Policy, Position, and Practice:

A Linguistic Ethnography Study of Taiwanese English Language Teacher Identity and Agency in Multilingual and Multimodal Times

I-Chen Hsieh

Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics

Department of Applied Linguistics

University of Warwick

November 2022

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES, FIGURES AND PICTURES

Tables

Figures

Pictures

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It takes an army to write a book. I am grateful to many people for the completion of this thesis.

First of all, I would like to thank my supervisor, Prof. Steve Mann, for his patience and guidance throughout this study. From his encouragement and advice, I not only learned how to be a good qualitative researcher but also how to be a good mentor. I am also grateful to my second supervisor, Prof. Ema Ushioda, who provided valuable recommendations for my thesis drafts.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude and appreciation to my thesis examiners Prof Tony Liddicoat (University of Warwick) and Prof Paul Seedhouse (Newcastle University) for their invaluable insights and suggestions - each one of them helped me to strengthen my work and made my PhD journey more complete. I also want to thank Dr Troy McConachy who acted as the examination supervisor.

My warmest thanks go to my PhD fellows, including Zi Wang, Catherine Cheng, Jason Anderson, Wagdi Gabreldar Mahil Abdallah, Abdullah Al Rawahi, and Claudia Rodríguez-Escobar, for the intellectual insights they brought to our class discussion.

I would like to thank the staff of the Centre for Applied Linguistics at the University of Warwick for their kindness and professionalism, particularly Pat Chauhan, Cheryl Warner, Ngan Dam, Andrew Smith, Izzy Edwards, and Kuldeep Surana. Their assistance with care made me feel reassured that my PhD project was on schedule.

My special thanks are due to each of the participant teachers for sharing their time, ideas, and experiences. Their continued support played a vital role in this PhD thesis. I would not have been able to afford to undertake this endeavour without their help.

I owe a great deal to my family. In particular, I am deeply grateful to my parents, Zhen Cai and Shu-Fen, for their unconditional love and infinite wisdom. I would like to dedicate this PhD thesis to my parents. My brother Min-Ying and sister Cai-Tong also constituted an unfailing source of support.

Finally, I would like to express my heartfelt thanks to my husband, Dr Ernesto Vargas Gil, and my Mexican parents, Dr Gabriel Vargas Lozano and Lic Rosario Gil Viramontes, for their unrelenting encouragement throughout the writing of this thesis. I am very blessed to have them all as my family.

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is entirely my own work, except where due acknowledgement is made, and that it has not been previously included in a thesis, dissertation, assignment, or report submitted to this University or elsewhere for a degree, diploma, or any other qualifications.

I-Chen Hsieh

ABSTRACT

Language teacher identity (LTI) and language teacher agency (LTA) have been recently recognised as important research topics in the English language teaching (ELT) field as English language teachers encounter the impact of educational technology, multilingualism, and globally marketized ELT education. The *TESOL Quarterly* (Varghese et al., 2016) and *Modern Language Journal* (de Costa & Norton, 2017) have devoted special issues to language teacher identity, and many researchers have published studies on language teacher identity and agency in relation to educational policy (Glasgow & Bouchard, 2019; Liddicoat & Taylor-Leech, 2021), classroom interaction (Bonacina-Pugh, 2020; Kayi-Aydar, 2015), community of practice (Yazan, 2018), CLIL and bilingual education (Bonnet & Breidbach, 2017; Moate & Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2020).

This thesis further situates LTI and LTA research in the Taiwanese language planning and policy context, aiming to investigate the construction of Taiwanese English language teacher professional identity and agency in multilingual and multimodal times. This thesis adopted a linguistic ethnography research design to examine how English language teachers were positioned by structural policies and how teachers positioned themselves and others in their daily narratives and classroom interactions. The data were collected from four policy documents, four participant teachers' interviews, reflective posts, and classroom observations.

The findings show that each participant teacher faced context-specific affordances and constraints in translating the policy and curriculum into their teaching practices. Language teacher identity and agency are neither pre-determined nor uniform but rather are constantly shifting across different micro contexts. The comparison of the four case teachers also illustrates how language teacher identity and agency are configured individually and collectively. The four teachers' flexible strategies for digital teaching and code-switching to L1 emerged from their community of practice and teaching beliefs. Their contextualised teaching practices took shape in reaction to the major policy and curriculum changes. The findings also suggest that the four case teachers showed little awareness of the impact of structural factors

on their identity and agency construction. Finally, implications for classroom teachers, language teacher educators, language policymakers, and researchers are provided.

ABBREVIATIONS

ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CA	Conversation analysis
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CIC	Classroom interactional competence
CLIL	Content and language integrated learning
CLT	Communicative language teaching
CPD	Continuous professional development
ELT	English language teaching
EMI	English as a medium of instruction
ESP	English for specific purposes
GCE	Google Classroom Educator
GDPR	General Data Protection Regulation
JCEE	Joint College Entrance Examination
LPP	Language planning and policy
LTA	Language teacher agency
LTI	Language teacher identity
MOE	Ministry of Education
NNS	Non-native speaker

NS	Native speaker
RQ	Research question
TBLT	Task-based language learning
TEIE	Teach English in English

1 Chapter One: Introduction

Before introducing the research aims, questions and design of this thesis, I would like to share an episode I observed on Facebook as a contextualised example for understanding teacher identity and agency in the Taiwanese context. This episode epitomises one of the tensions Taiwanese teachers have undergone in recent years due to the curriculum changes and how teachers have strived to make their voices heard.

In a contentious announcement of vacancies for junior high school teachers, the Taipei Municipal Bureau of Education received great criticism from the educational community. Issued in May 2021, two years after the *Bilingual Nation Policy* was enacted, this vacancy announcement stirred both English language teachers' and non-English language teachers' shattered sense of professional identity and increasing anxiety about bilingual education. There was a total of 126 teacher vacancies, 60 of which were designated as bilingual teacher vacancies, including subjects of life technology, information technology, health education, physical education, music, visual arts, and performing arts. To be eligible for bilingual teacher vacancies, candidate teachers needed to have a qualified teacher certificate for the given subject, as well as a qualified English teacher certificate, or meet the threshold of CEFR framework B2 or above. One high school art teacher posted his questioning about the eligibility for bilingual teachers on Facebook. His post was shared over 2000 times within a short period of time and aroused considerable debate over bilingual education on social media. Stakeholders involved in this policy, including pre-service and in-service teachers, parents, and students, left their comments below the Facebook post, 'B2 is the new black for all teachers!', 'Does it have to be bilingual to have the opportunity to apply for physical education teachers?' 'Teach technology bilingually? Are students learning English or technology?'

On the one hand, this example reveals how teachers on the ground level have been busy juggling various professional duties along with major curriculum changes. Right after the newly formulated *Twelve-Year Curriculum Guidelines* (Taiwan MOE, 2014; henceforth *108 Curriculum*) was officially implemented in 2018, Taiwanese teachers have faced another wave of the new policy—the *Bilingual Nation Policy* (National Development Council, 2018). On the other hand, to ride the wave of changing policy and curriculum and to make their voices heard, teachers in Taiwan tend to take it to Facebook to vent their frustrations, curate their daily teaching stories, and build their professional communities. For example, when Taiwan had its first nationwide lockdown due to the COVID pandemic on May 19th, 2021, a Facebook group named ‘Taiwan Online Synchronised Teaching Community’ was established the next day. This group was initiated by several influential teachers with digital teaching experiences, aiming to integrate available online resources for teachers and parents. Nearly 120,000 teachers quickly joined this community. It can be seen that apart from classrooms, Facebook has the potential to become a strategic site for ethnographic researchers to study Taiwanese teacher identity and agency in multimodal and multilingual times. Its efficiency, multimodality, and interactiveness make Facebook an excellent platform for teachers to exchange their teaching practices beyond the brick and mortar of classrooms and collaboratively engage in ‘reflection in the wild’ (Mann & Walsh, 2017, p. 100). In fact, the four participant English language teachers I interviewed in this thesis were quite active in Facebook teacher communities.

1.1 Research aims, questions, and design

The central argument of this thesis is that the two concepts, language teacher identity (LTI) and language teacher agency (LTA), interact in a dialogic way. This dialogic process is one where teachers respond to, and to some extent co-construct policy in their community practices and classroom practices. A central argument in this thesis is that LTI and LTA need to be researched and conceptualised from both the macro-level policy context and local teaching practices. This relationship is contextual, reflexive and constantly being shaped in a dialogic process. Consequently, another way of articulating this is argument is that teachers both respond to, resist, adapt, adjust and shape their practice in a dialogic relationship with such policy. The data presented later in the thesis examines evidence for such a dialogic relationship. This thesis titled *Policy, Position and Practice: A Linguistic Ethnography Study of Taiwanese English Language Teacher Identity and Agency in Multilingual and Multimodal Times* aims to explore the construction of English language teacher identity and agency in policy discourse, narrative discourse, and classroom discourse in the Taiwanese context. My definitions of LTI and LTA are built on the existing literature that has examined how LTI and

LTA are conceptualised and researched in language teacher education, educational language policy, and L2 classroom interaction. This thesis further situates the LTI and LTA study in the context of Taiwanese language planning and policy (LPP). The *108 Curriculum* and *Bilingual Nation Policy* contexts have become prominent in constructing Taiwanese English language teacher professional identity and agency in the multilingual and multimodal climate, a current conjuncture characterised by technological advancement and multilingualism.

This thesis highlights that language teacher agency and identity are embodied actions in online communities and digital classrooms, and so the collected data for RQ2 and RQ3 were analysed from a multimodal semiotics (Kress et al., 2005) point of view. This thesis defines multimodality as different semiotic resources for teachers expressing identity and demonstrating agency (see Section 3.3.3 for further discussion). Semiotic resources are available through artifacts (i.e., written lesson plans, demo videos, and public reflective comments as presented in Chapter Six) and teachers' code-switching, gaze, voice, gesture, and body posture in the classrooms. For this thesis, because I am attempting to investigate how language teachers embodied their identity and agency through their choices of multimodal actions, I tracked mainly the semiotic modalities relevant to, or could be construed as, individually and collectively valued meaning-making resources.

Linguistic ethnography research design allowed me to interrogate the intersection of ethnographic and structural views on language teacher identity and agency. I used discourse analysis to examine how English language teachers were positioned by structural policies and how teachers positioned themselves and others in their daily narratives and interactions. The discourse analysis data included four policy documents, four participant teachers' interviews, reflective posts on Facebook and personal blogs, and classroom interactions.

This thesis poses three research questions (RQs) as follows:

(1) How are English teachers positioned by the educational language policy texts and what are the potential consequences for teacher agency of such positionings?
(2) How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their accounts of multilingual and multimodal teaching experiences?

(3) How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their multilingual and multimodal classroom practices?

Regarding the RQ1, I analysed thematically the professional duties and rights ascribed in LPP discourse and identified an overarching theme 'English teachers have duties and rights to invest themselves and their students as lifelong learners'. The LPP positionings on English teachers illustrate the Taiwanese government's goals and priorities in English language education as well as the policymakers' perceptions of the unique geopolitical and economic circumstances Taiwan is confronted with.

Regarding the RQ2, I analysed the ways English teachers showcased, curated, and maintained their professional identity and agency in online communities. Three themes were identified in the four case teachers' accounts of dealing with uncertainty and anxiety in the changing curriculum: reflexivity-as-positioning, community-as-support, and flexibility-as-strategy. I coined the term 'scripts of teacherhood' to describe their self-representation of professional identity and agency in public online spaces.

Regarding the RQ3, I analysed the communicative functions of the four case teachers' code-switching sequences in the digitalised classrooms. One overarching theme 'code-switching-as-resource' was identified to help understand the teachers' rationale behind the use of L1 as the 'practiced language policy' (Bonacina-Pugh, 2020) in their classrooms. The findings suggest that when the teachers encountered contradictions between the 'teach English in English' policy and their classroom language policy, they tended to employ L1 as one form of the multimodal teaching resources available, which is a manifestation of 'agency achieved' (Biesta & Tedder, 2007) in daily teaching interactions.

1.2 Identity, agency, and structure

The stance taken up in this thesis is that there is a value in recognising and accounting for language teacher identity and agency in the sense that teachers adjust themselves to both the structural policy context and local practices in their context. While the importance of LTI and LTA have been established in the fields of language teacher education and language policy, it is argued in this thesis that identity, agency and structure forge a dialogic relationship that can be theorised through a multi-perspectival approach.

Inspired by theories of investment and identity (Norton, 2013), positioning theory (Harré & van Langenhove, 1999; Kayi-Aydar, 2019b), and critical realism (Block, 2015b; Choi, 2019; Glasgow & Bouchard, 2019), I coin the following four concepts to advance the theoretical discussion in the LTI and LTA research: *positional identity, invested identity, agency-in-structure,* and *structure-in-agency*. First, *positional identity* highlights that English language teachers mediate various positional identities and exercise their professional agency through social structure, personal stories, and social interactions. While many of the existing studies primarily focus on teachers' multiple identities within interviews and reflective journals, this thesis emphasises that English language teachers' positional identity is embedded in not only their spoken and written narratives of teacherhood but also in the political and economic discourses of the power of English language.

Second, *invested identity* offers a sociological perspective for interpreting English language teachers' motivation to invest their time and energy in digital teaching and community initiatives. Norton and her colleagues (Kanno & Norton, 2003; Norton, 2001; Pavlenko & Norton, 2007) have looked into the complex relationship between language learner identity, investment in cultural capital, and imagined community. Along the same line, this thesis examines the intersection between language teacher identity, investment in professional capital, and community of practice.

Finally, *agency-in-structure* and *structure-in-agency* underscore the dialectical momentum between agency and structure. Instead of viewing structure and agency as dichotomous counterparts, I make the case that structure and agency are dialectical constituents of language teacher identity construction. Nevertheless, I found that in their accounts of structure and agency, English teachers tended to remain at the level of institutional structure to describe the impositions and constraints they experienced. The absence of their reference to the broader structural factors suggests there is 'ethical importance' (Ushioda, 2020) in the language teacher education field to raise teachers' awareness of the factors of social structures and ideologies in their identity and agency building processes.

1.3 Personal motivation for the study

This thesis has been motivated by a number of events in my professional life. First, I have been concerned with the roles of human teachers and robot teachers in today's technology-defined zeitgeist. 'People are struggling to learn languages because there are too many bad classroom teachers', says Luis Von Ahn, the founder of Duolingo–a popular language learning APP with over 300 million users worldwide. At the same time, buzzwords around educational technology are everywhere: MOOC, AI-driven corpus, and translation robots, to name a few. Although some of the technology proponents do not consider in fairness the structural constraints classroom teachers encounter in their contexts, it had provoked me to reflect on the relationship between human teachers and robot teachers. It can be argued that educational technology presents opportunities for L2 teachers to liberate themselves from the routine of repetition and drills, such as pronunciation correction, spelling check, grammatical errors — an area categorised as low-order cognitive abilities in the SLA process. However, from my personal experience of being a classroom English language teacher for over ten years, the high-order cognitive abilities (e.g., creativity and critical thinking) and non-cognitive abilities (e.g., teamwork and interpersonal communication) in humanistic and spontaneous classroom interactions between human teachers and their students are something that robot teachers cannot offer. So, I have always been interested in how English language teachers collaborate with their 'technological assistants' to maximise students' learning on their path towards continuous professional development (CPD).

Another critical incident occurred in the first year of my PhD study. In October 2017, the new Premier Lai declared that to enhance the international competitiveness of Taiwanese citizens, he would first formulate a series of bilingual education (English and Chinese) policies, which was considered a linguistic foundation for making English the second official language in Taiwan in the future. Considering the consequences the bilingual education policy would bring for language teachers and students, I started to read LPP literature and gave a presentation titled 'Language Rehabilitation vs Language Utilisation in East Asia: Taiwan, Hong Kong and South Korea' in the Language Policy Forum 2018 held by the BAAL Language Policy group. My engagement with LPP literature made me realise how political discourses can ideologically impact how the English language should be learned and taught in the classrooms. This is a perspective I had seldom had as a classroom teacher.

With digital teaching and bilingual nation policy in mind, I entered the field in October 2018. In the process of collecting and analysing the data, I gradually realised that my ultimate concern in this research project was English language teacher identity and agency. As I worked on the concepts of LTI and LTA, I was aware that the two concepts functioned in a heuristic and dialogic way in which various aspects of discourses were interrelated. Therefore, I reformulated my research questions into an interdisciplinary research design and strived to bring LPP discourse, narrative discourse, and classroom discourse into a coherent discussion on LTI and LTA in the multilingual and multimodal times that Taiwanese English language teachers live today.

Since the first time I learned about the concept of discourse in my MA modules 'Text and Discourse' and 'Professional and Academic Discourse' at the University of Warwick, I have constantly been asking myself: what is discourse? Up to now, I am still not confident to provide an intellectual definition of discourse. Nevertheless, my fellow teachers back in Taiwan have taught me a lot about the concept of discourse. If allowed, I would like to provide my metaphorical definition of discourse, particularly in relation to ethnography studies of education. Discourse is something that one can capture in every word of the policy documents, in everyday small teaching stories, and in every classroom interaction. From a close look, discourse looks like little tiny bricks that do not deserve much attention; from a distance, one will discover that these little tiny bricks can eventually be built into high walls that prevent human beings from achieving their full potential or connecting bridges that empower people to live out all the possibilities they have. It all depends on how each stakeholder places the brick in their hands.

1.4 Mapping the thesis

This thesis is composed of nine chapters. Following this introduction, Chapter Two overviews the changes in national curriculum and educational language policy in Taiwan and the shift of teacher education from state-control to market orientation. Chapter Three reviews existing conceptual and methodological frameworks of LTI and LTA research and provides operational definitions of LTI and LTA to locate my research. A multi-perspectival framework is proposed to understand Taiwanese English language teacher identity and agency in multilingual and multimodal times. Chapter Four provides the methodological rationale and descriptions of the paradigmatic position, research design, fieldwork process, data collection, codification and categorisation process, and ethical considerations of this thesis. Chapters Five, Six, and Seven present the findings of LTI and LTA construction in policy discourse (see Chapter Five), narrative discourse (see Chapter Six), and classroom discourse (see Chapter Seven), respectively. Chapter Eight discusses the major findings in four theoretical concepts: *positional identity, invested identity, agency-in-structure,* and *structure-in-agency.* Chapter Nine summarises key findings in each chapter, contributions, implications, limitations and recommendations for future LTI and LTA research.

2 Chapter Two: The Taiwanese Context

This chapter addresses the contextual background of the study by introducing the relevant educational policies in Taiwan. I will review the changes in the national curriculum and educational language policies, focusing on how the driving forces of deregulation, internationalisation, and globalisation have elevated the status of the English language in Taiwan and transformed teacher education and professional development from the directions of state control to market orientation (Wang, 2016).

2.1 The status of the English language in a multilingual nation

Taiwan, geographically situated in Southeast Asia, is a multilingual country with five main ethnolinguistic categories: Hokkien, Hakka, mainlanders, new immigrants, and indigenous peoples (Kobayashi, 2020). Among these local languages, the ethnic group of Hokkien is estimated to be the largest one, with 1.6 million (73.3%) people using the local language on a daily basis (Chen, 2006). However, Mandarin had been exclusively promoted as the standard language in institutions and the only medium of instruction in schools, whereas the local languages were suppressed and even forbidden. It was not until the late 1980s that the language policy in Taiwan was profoundly transformed due to the dramatic socio-political and economic changes (Chen, 2006; Hsiau, 1997). At the local level, the awareness of 'de-Chinaisation' and revitalising local languages gradually gained currency; at the global level, international businesses and IT services significantly strengthened the role of English as an international language in Taiwan. The Taiwanese government simultaneously implemented two major educational language policies in reaction to such a shift in global and local contexts. One was local language education with the aim of revitalising the long-overlooked local languages and enhancing Taiwanese identity; the other was English language education with the aim of improving students' English communicative competency in the globalisation time. These two LPP trends were first realised under the *Nine-Year Curriculum* in 2001 and have been continued in the newly formulated *Twelve-Year Curriculum* in 2018.

Local language education was implemented in 2001 throughout elementary schools. Local language education incorporated into the *Nine-Year Curriculum* became a compulsory course that required a minimum of one class per week in elementary schools. Depending on regions and teacher availability, schools provided courses in various local languages. Chen (2006) found that Tai-yu dominated most schools and became the mainstream local language under this policy. However, compared to the abundant resources of English language education, local language education has gained little attention in terms of textbook design and development, qualified teachers, and formal assessments. Besides, Chen (2004) found that most schools only fulfilled the minimum requirement of one local language class per week. These difficulties and obstacles suggest that Mandarin and English still overshadow local languages.

On the other hand, English language education had long been implemented as a compulsory class in high schools under the *Normal School Curriculum Standards* since 1968 (Chen & Tsai, 2012), with form and accuracy emphasised in Grammar-Translation Method. With the implementation of the *Nine-Year Curriculum* in 2001*,* it was required that Grade 5 and above students had to receive a minimum of one English language class per week in elementary schools. Most schools were willing to offer more English classes, teaching English from Grade 1 or 2 (Chen, 2006). Furthermore, as shown in the study (Oladejo, 2006), a considerable number of Taiwanese parents (95.3%) preferred English as a foreign language for their children, compared to that of Japanese (3.4%) and French (1.3%). In response, the central government later revised the English education policy, demanding a minimum of two English classes per week for Grade 3 and above in elementary schools. In contrast to local language education, both parents and school administrations held positive attitudes toward English language education, supporting the notion that more English classes should be provided as early and much as possible in schools.

With the enactment of the *Bilingual Nation Policy* in 2018, English has gained legitimate status as a semi-official language after being made a compulsory subject in high schools and elementary schools. Furthermore, it is predicted that globalisation and policy-turn to the regional economic organisation ASEAN (the Association of Southeast Asian Nations) would further consolidate the status of the English language in Taiwan (Wu & Lau, 2019).

2.2 Curriculum reform and its impact on teacher professional identity and agency

Ever since the Kuomintang Nationalist government (KMT) retreated from mainland China in 1949, the national curriculum in Taiwan has experienced several major developments. This section reviews the historical development of the national curriculum reforms, revealing the interplay between curriculum reforms and the changing role of teachers. Precisely, the conceptual evolution from 'curriculum standards' to 'curriculum guidelines' reflects the major curriculum transformation in the past decades in Taiwan (Hong, 2019). Furthermore, with curriculum reforms, the ethos of teachers' role and continuous professional development also brings about challenges and opportunities for teachers. In what follows, the history of curriculum development in Taiwan will be discussed in three major policies: *Normal School Curriculum Standards* enacted in 1968, *Nine-Year Curriculum Guidelines* in 1998, and *Twelve-Year Curriculum Guidelines* in 2014.

2.2.1 Normal School Curriculum Standards

In 1968, Taiwan launched its nine-year compulsory education system with the aim of cultivating talents for the need for industrial and political developments (Wang, 2016). The title *Normal School Curriculum Standards* indicates that the curriculum was designed as a set of standards and regulations for local schools, teachers, and students to comply with. Because of the unique geopolitical atmosphere in the post-WWII period, Taiwan implemented its martial law from 1949 to 1987. At this stage, the characteristic of the national curriculum is that nation-building and patriotic values were emphasised in teaching materials. A state-controlled curriculum was the means to exercise the political ideology of the KMT government. Then-President Chiang Kai-Shek stated the relationship between nation-building and education (Shu, 2016, p. 45):

> To transform education, the first step is restoring teachers' morality and obligation, and the second task is establishing model teachers of exemplary virtue. The effects of education lie in the change in disposition and the cultivation of moral character. Therefore, teachers should encourage and cultivate students based on state righteousness and national interests.

Considered loyal and rational implementers of the curriculum requirements, teachers were assigned with ‘the missions of combating communists and the Soviet Union’ (Shu, 2016, p. 45) to cultivate students’ awareness of morality and patriotism. At this stage, teacher education for primary and secondary schools was only provided by ‘normal colleges’ under the central government’s control. The centralised national curriculum and teacher education approach did not allow teacher professional agency to develop.

2.2.2 Nine-Year Curriculum Guidelines

The booming export-oriented economy in the 1980s and the removal of martial law in 1987 contributed to the localisation, deregulation, and globalisation of education policy and curriculum. To respond to local needs for breaking the monopolised education system and greater integration into the global markets, the Taiwan MOE enacted the *Nine-Year Curriculum Guidelines* in 1998 (Chen & Huang, 2017). The wording shift from ‘curriculum standards’ to ‘curriculum guidelines’ implies more flexibility and agency for school-based curriculum development and local classroom teaching (Taiwan MOE, 2000), including:

- **Competency framework**: it shifted from discipline-based knowledge to a competency-based framework, integrating various subject matters and social issues into learning content. As shown in Table 2.1, to cultivate students as modern citizens in the 21st century, three main categories and ten fundamental competencies were stipulated in the *Competency Framework of the Nine-Year Curriculum* (Taiwan MOE, 2000). This framework defined competency as the essential knowledge, skills, and attitudes students need to develop lifelong learning.
- **Distributed leadership**: a wide range of stakeholders were involved in the process of education planning and policy, including central and local governments, teachers, parents, scholars, and NGOs. The centralised authority of policymaking and implementation was transformed into shared responsibility and accountability among three levels: central government, local governments, and local schools. The central government provided guidelines and resources to support school communities, while the local governments and schools obtained more agency in implementing the school-based curriculum.

- **Textbooks**: it was no longer produced by the state-owned publishing house. Instead, textbooks were provided by various private publishing houses. Teachers were given the right to choose the textbooks that served their local teaching needs.
- **Teacher education**: in tandem with *the Teacher Education Act* in 1994, the provision of teacher education was no longer monopolised by the state-controlled normal universities. General universities could also provide teacher education programs for their graduates. The pluralisation and diversification of teacher education suppliers echoed the global wave of 'neoliberal deregulation' for education reforms (Yang, 2016).
- **Teacher continuous professional development (CPD):** in-service teachers had the right and duty to participate in the CPD activities. On the one hand, a three-tier MOE curriculum consulting team was established at the central, regional and school levels. Bridging between the central government and schoolteachers, experienced teachers were recruited as curriculum consulting team members to support classroom teachers for the new curriculum implementation. On the other hand, the mechanism of teacher CPD evaluation was established to enhance teaching performance and professional dialogues among teachers. The CPD evaluation was taken in the form of voluntarism. In other words, teachers were invited, not required, to participate in the CPD formative assessment.
- **Teachers' multiple roles**: with the multiple duties mandated in the nine-year curriculum, teachers were expected to fulfil various roles, such as action researchers, lifelong learners, material developers, curriculum designers and evaluators.

Table 2.1 The Competency Framework of the Nine-Year Curriculum (Taiwan MOE, 2000; adapted from Chen & Huang, 2017)

Categories	Ten fundamental competencies
1. Relation to the self: individual development of body and mind	1. Self-understanding and development of potentials 2. Appreciation, performance, and creativity 3. Career planning and lifelong learning

2. Relation to the society: integration of society and culture	4. Expression, communication, and sharing 5. Respect, care, and teamwork 6. Cultural learning and international understanding 7. Planning, organising, and putting plans into practice
3. Relation to the natural environment: nature and environment	8. Utilisation of technology and information 9. Active exploration and inquiry 10. Independent thinking and problem-solving

The *Nine-Year Curriculum Guidelines* is regarded as a paradigm shift in Taiwan's curriculum reform (Hong, 2019; Jong, 2017; Yeh & Chern, 2021). This curriculum not only discursively constructs teachers' new identity and agency but also ushers in the marketisation of teacher education. Wang (2016, p. 7) summarises the formation of two approaches to teacher education in Taiwan: state control and market orientation, arguing that 'education reforms in Taiwan exactly resemble the developments in Europe, America, and Japan and also followed the operating logic of marketisation'.

2.2.3 Twelve-Year Curriculum Guidelines

Based on the foundations of previous curriculum guidelines, the *Twelve-Year Curriculum Guidelines* was enacted in 2014 and officially implemented in 2018. The latest curriculum version aims to respond to the challenges of technology advancements and global competitiveness by integrating the nine-year compulsory education with three-year senior high school education. Both nine-year and twelve-year curricula foreground the principle of cultivating students as lifelong learners for the 21st century. In what follows, two major modifications made in the *Twelve-Year Curriculum Guidelines* are discussed.

- Competency framework: as shown in Table 2.2, there are three main categories (i.e., self-directed action, communicative interaction, and social participation) and nine competencies stipulated in the *Competency Framework of the Twelve-year Curriculum* (Taiwan MOE, 2014). Specifically, multimodal literacy is highlighted as one of the essential competencies for students.

- Teacher CPD support: since its inception in 2006, the mechanism of teacher CPD evaluation has been criticised for placing an external burden on teachers due to the top-down monitoring CPD processes. Specifically, the policy wording, such as 'evaluate' and 'assess', did not treat teachers as an agentive role in their professional development. Therefore, the MOE announced that the previous 'teacher CPD evaluation' would be transformed into 'teacher CPD support' from 2017 onwards (Hong, 2019). The shift from evaluating teachers to supporting teachers suggests that a reflexive dialogue between policymakers and grassroots teachers seems achievable, and that a dialectical interaction between structure and agency seems possible (see Section 5.4 / 6.2 / 8.2 for detailed discussion).

Table 2.2 The Competency Framework of the Twelve-Year Curriculum (Taiwan MOE, 2014; adapted from Chen & Huang, 2017)

Categories	Competencies
1. Self-directed action	1-1 a sound body and mind and self-improvement 1-2 systematic thinking and problem-solving 1-3 planning, implementing, and creative flexibility
2. Communicative interaction	2-1 use of symbols and communicative expression 2-2 technology, information, and media literacy 2-3 arts and aesthetic competency
3. Social participation	3-1 interpersonal relations and teamwork 3-2 multicultural and international understanding 3-3 moral practice and civic consciousness

2.2.4 Summary

This section has briefly reviewed the historical development of curriculum reforms in Taiwan by discussing three major educational policies and their impact on teacher professional identity and agency. As can be seen, the pendulum has swung from state-controlled authority to localised agency in curriculum developments. Paradoxically, this form of localised agency seems to afford teachers more resources to achieve the goal stated in the curriculum guidelines— to cultivate students as lifelong learners for the 21st century. However, at the same time, the localised agency is contextualised in the neoliberal discourse in which individual professional performance is linked to national competitive advantages in the globalised economy. This brings me to the policies relevant to cultivating students' market competitiveness in the next section.

2.3 International education for globalisation

Both nine-year and twelve-year curricula underscore the competency of multicultural and international understanding, emphasising that students should appreciate different cultures and cooperate with international members. In what follows, two major policies relevant to international education for globalisation are discussed: *White Paper of International Education for Primary and Secondary Schools* (Taiwan MOE, 2011; 2020) and *Bilingual Nation Policy* (National Development Council, 2018).

2.3.1 International education for primary and secondary schools

In terms of international education in Taiwan, the initial attempt made by the central government can be traced back to the *Educational Fundamental Act* in 1999 (Laws & Regulations Database of ROC, 2013; cited in Li et al., 2021):

> The purposes of education are to cultivate modern citizens with a sense of national identity and international perspectives . . . The country, educational institutions, teachers and parents alike shall share responsibilities to facilitate the realisation of the aforesaid education purposes.

Since then, there have been several initiatives for international education in Taiwan. For example, in 2004, the MOE published the *Education Policy Principles: 2005 to 2008*, emphasising the importance of nurturing talents with a global vision (Lin & Chen, 2014). Another example is the *Aim for the Top University Project* launched in 2005, with the goal of developing first-class universities and higher education internationalisation (Lo & Hou, 2020). Nevertheless, it was not until the *White Paper on International Education for Primary and Secondary Schools* issued by the Taiwan MOE (2011) that the topics such as global competence, global mobility and global co-opetition became common in primary and secondary education. This policy states that globalisation is inevitable and that Taiwan needs to ride on the wave by forward-looking thinking. According to the policy, the mechanism of internationalising education in Taiwan's elementary and secondary schools includes (1) curriculum development, (2) teachers' professional development, (3) international exchanges, and (4) internationalisation of schools.

With the competency of multiculturalism and international understanding upheld in the *Twelve-Year Curriculum* and the *Bilingual Nation Policy*, Taiwan MOE (2020) announced a second version of the policy titled *International Education for Primary and Secondary School 2.0*. With the aim of connecting with the world, this policy sets three objectives: (1) cultivating global citizens, (2) promoting the internationalisation of education, and (3) expanding global exchanges (National Development Council, 2018). There are four core competencies listed:

- exhibiting national values
- respecting multiculturalism and enhancing international understanding
- strengthening international mobility
- developing global citizenship

The four competencies suggest the dialectical relationship between the global and the local, between national identity and global citizenship. This policy also indicates the possibility of integrating international education into bilingual teaching in the school-based curriculum. Local schoolteachers are encouraged to integrate international education and bilingual education into their teaching practices.

2.3.2 Bilingual Nation Policy

Both international education policy and bilingual nation policy illustrate the global intention of the Taiwanese government. The ethos of internationalisation of education can also be identified in the policy *Blueprint for Developing Taiwan into a Bilingual Nation by 2030* (National Development Council, 2018). A detailed analysis of this policy text will be provided in Chapter Five. In what follows, I will briefly review two historical language policies that lay the foundation for *Bilingual Nation Policy*.

2.3.2.1 President Chen Shui-bian: English as a second official language in Taiwan

In 2002, then-president Chen Shui-bian announced making English a second official language. Accordingly, the then-premier Yu Shyi-kun proposed a comprehensive policy blueprint to deliver this policy within six years. As a result, various action plans were enacted in the following years, including 'Creating an English-friendly Living Environment', 'Creating an International Living Environment', and 'Improving the Citizens' English skills'. It is claimed that the series of action plans implemented from 2002 to 2012 has successfully established a bilingualised environment in Taiwan (National Development Council, 2018), including that all public signs are printed in Chinese and English, and government bureaus offer Chinese and English versions of their websites.

2.3.2.2 Mayor William Lai: English as a second official language in Tainan City

In 2014, the mayor of Tainan City, William Lai, who later became the premier in 2017, announced the intention to make English a second official language in Tainan City and make Tainan the best city in Asia for foreign investors (Tainan City Government, 2017). A ten-year action plan was proposed with the aim that by the end of 2025, both primary and secondary schools in Tainan would have 90% of English classes taught in English and 90% of other subject classes taught partly in English. To reach this goal, a CLIL pilot project was launched in 13 schools and relevant issues were identified in the process: the medium of instruction, foreign teacher recruitment, and bilingual teacher education (Chen et al., 2020). The researchers found that many CLIL subject courses were given by English teachers because they could teach content in English and that it was crucial for educational authorities to provide both foreign and local teachers with CPD support (Chen et al., 2020).

2.3.3 Summary

This section has briefly reviewed two major policies relevant to international education for globalisation. In the development of Englishification for internationalisation, English language teachers and teacher educators are often held responsible by the LPP discourses 'for the realisation of such lofty missions' (Tsui, 2021, p. vx). Teachers' English proficiency is linked with national missions, competitiveness, and economic benefits. These policies together turn out to be a critical impact on Taiwanese English teachers' identity and agency construction. In this sociolinguistic context, Taiwanese English language teachers are loaded with different social expectations, ranging from cultivating students' awareness of global co-opetition, cultivating students' communicative competencies, and maximising students' success via digital technology. A detailed analysis of governmental stakeholders' expectations of an ideal English teacher will be provided in Chapter Five.

2.4 Chapter summary

Figure 2.1 Factors relating to educational policy and teacher practice in Taiwan

With the focus on the interplay between policy and teachers' duties and roles, I have reviewed the historical development of Taiwan's national curriculum and educational language policies. As can be seen, the interplay of policy and practice in Taiwan is significantly shaped by the forces of localisation, deregulation, internationalisation, and globalisation of education (Figure 2.1). First, despite the attempts to revitalise the long-overlooked local languages, the English language is continually a predominant language in Taiwan. Furthermore, education policies concerning internationalisation and globalisation tend to consolidate the legitimate status of the English language in Taiwan. Second, teachers' English language proficiency and CPD performance are linked to national competitive advantages in the globalised economy. As reviewed in Section 2.2, teachers' localised identity and agency in LPP discourse is paradoxically intertwined with the neoliberal logic of marketisation.

3 Chapter Three: Literature Review

This thesis aims to investigate the interplay among language planning and policy (LPP), educational technology, and English language teachers' construction of professional identity and agency in the Taiwanese context. The first section in this chapter will present conceptual and methodological perspectives of teacher identity and agency research in language teacher education, revealing a reflexive interaction between teachers' professional knowledge construction and identity construction. The second section will examine the impact of LPP discourse on the construction of language teacher identity and agency, including how policy and curriculum mandate English to be taught and how English teachers respond to such changes in multiple contexts. The third section will review current perspectives on L2 classroom discourse research and its relation to the identity and agency construction of English language teachers. Specifically, code-switching and multimodal research in L2 classrooms are the foci in this case. The last section will summarise key definitions and stances adopted in this thesis. By reviewing how language teacher identity and agency have been conceptualised and researched in language teacher education, LPP studies, and classroom discourse, it reinforces the view of this thesis that there is dynamic complexity of language teacher identity, agency and structure.

3.1 Teacher identity and agency in language teacher education

Why is it essential to research language teacher identity and agency? In the *TESOL Quarterly* special issue on language teacher identity in multilingual settings, the editors explain, 'who teachers are and what they bring with them, individually and collectively, matters in what and how they teach and thus, to students, families, communities, and institutions' (Varghese et al., 2016, p. 548). As English language teachers encounter the flux of technology advancement, multilingualism, and globally marketised ELT education (Gray & Block, 2014), it is the thread of identity and agency that bridges their past, present and future. In addition, a heightened sense of *professional self* cultivates their profound agency and reflexivity as English language teachers in their career development. This section will review theoretical and methodological frameworks for researching teacher identity and agency in the literature on language teacher education.

3.1.1 Teacher agency

Teacher agency is a relatively new construct in language teacher education literature compared to learner autonomy and agency research development. Kalaja et al. (2015, p.14) critically point out that early studies predominantly concentrated on language learner autonomy and thus considered teachers as 'learners' environment'. In earlier studies of learner autonomy and agency, topics such as learners' motivation (Ushioda, 2011), identity (Norton, 2001), and contextual affordances and constraints (van Lier, 2000) have attracted researchers' attention. Some scholars employ autonomy and agency interchangeably, conceptualising autonomy as learners' socially-oriented agency (Toohey & Norton, 2003). van Lier (2010) considers the two compatible synonyms but underlines that the two come from different epistemological traditions. Benson (2007, p.30) uses autonomy as an umbrella term, defining autonomy as learners' capacity to 'take control of one's own learning' and clarifying agency as 'a point of origin for the development of autonomy'. Gao (2013) proposes a reflexive relationship between autonomy and agency and theorises learners' agency as a precondition to their exercise of autonomy. While these scholars tend to regard autonomy and agency as intertwined entities, some researchers problematise the concept of 'autonomous individual', underscoring that individual actions, to a certain extent, are conditioned by social structures. In her often-cited study, Ahearn (2001) challenges the notion of autonomy as individualistic, independent, and rational actions, which was a modernist perspective of self and actions derived from the Enlightenment. Ahearn (2001, p. 114) points out that 'such an approach ignores or only gives lip service to the social nature of agency and the pervasive influence of culture on human intentions, beliefs, and actions'. In this camp, agency is not something individuals possess, but something individuals can develop and achieve in situational contexts. Therefore, agency is defined as 'the socioculturally mediated capacity to act' (Ahearn, 2001, p. 112). Ahearn and researchers in this strand argue that agency should be examined in its social structures (for a review of social structure, language policy, and human agency, see Section 3.2 in this chapter).

Recent research in language teacher agency has reconceptualised teachers as agents in their own contexts from sociocultural perspectives. In what follows, I will briefly review three approaches to teacher agency: (1) Vygotskyan sociocultural approach, (2) the ecological approach, (3) Bakhtinian dialogical approach.

3.1.1.1 Vygotskyan sociocultural approach

Within the Vygotskyan sociocultural strand, various approaches to teacher agency have a shared focus — a teacher's agentive potential is mediated via cultural artefacts, including language, other semiotic systems (Waring, 2016), policy and curriculum (Bouchard & Glasgow, 2019; Liddicoat & Taylor-Leech, 2021), and CPD activities (Johnson & Golombek, 2016). Researching teacher agency, from this viewpoint, should not exclusively concentrate on individual cognitive processes but also the social and contextual processes. In other words, teacher agency can be manifested through individual actions mediated by the sociocultural contexts and cultural artefacts. For example, Edwards (2019) adopts Vygotskian sociocultural analysis to investigate how English language teachers' agency and identity are mediated through action research. The findings show that action research is an empowering tool to mediate teachers' agency. If agency is not individually or institutionally supported, teachers are likely to redirect or even reduce their use of action research as tools to solve the issues encountered in their contexts. For example, Fones (2019) examines the agency of high school English language teachers and identifies that there are collective and collaborative elements in language teacher agency. Fones points out that language teacher agency emerges not only from individuals but also from the people they work with. Teacher agency is related to the instructional strategies they use in the classrooms and the policy and curriculum reform they are influenced by.

3.1.1.2 Ecological approach

An ecological approach has also provided theoretical frameworks to reveal aspects of teacher agency. In general teacher education, Emirbayer and Mische (1998) are considered the pioneers of taking an ecological approach to teacher agency research. Based on the ecological approach, Priestley et al. (2015) offer a comprehensive review of its theoretical development and argue that teacher agency is rarely discussed in the literature because teacher agency as a term is not actively conceptualised nor explicitly defined. They conceptualise teacher agency as an emergent phenomenon, arguing that agency is 'achieved within continually shifting contexts over time and with orientations towards past, future and present, which differ within each and every instance of agency achieved' (Priestley et al., 2015, p. 25). Building on 'agency-as-achievement' (Biesta & Tedder, 2007), they further develop a three-dimensional framework for understanding teacher agency (Figure 3.1). First, the iterational dimension involves a teacher's life and professional history; second, the practical-evaluative dimension involves cultural, structural, and material factors in a teacher's context; third, the projective dimension involves a teacher's short-term and long-term actions and aspirations. Ecological agency, in this sense, inquires about how agency is achieved within the three-dimensional ecology. For instance, Staker et al. (2019, p. 59) investigate English teacher agency via this ecological lens and suggest that a teacher's daily achievements of agency could bring about transformation and lead to sustainable success for both students and teachers.

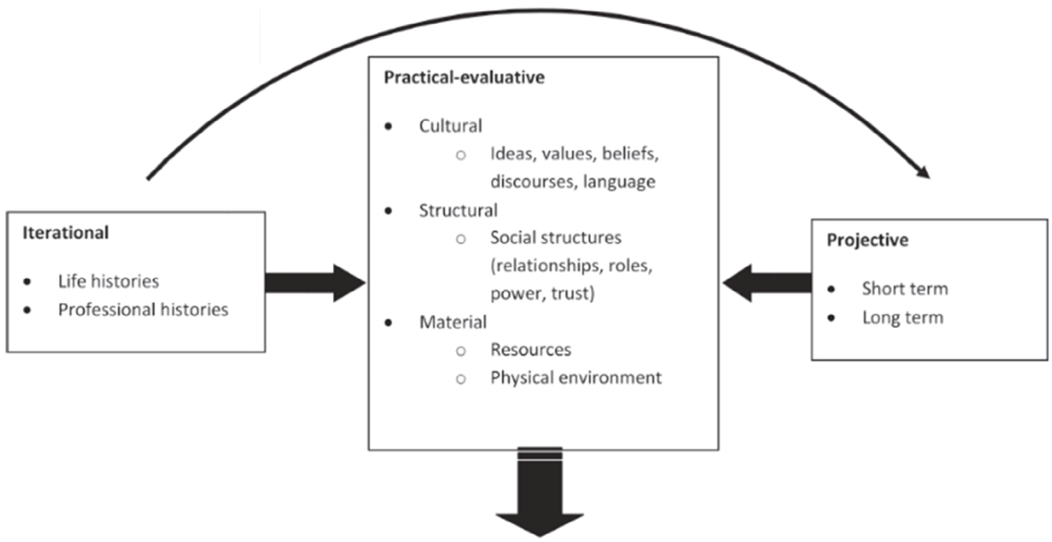


Figure 3.1 The iterational, practical–evaluative and projective aspects of teacher agency (Priestley et al., 2015, p. 30)

In the field of language teacher education, the ecological approach to agency is mainly inspired by Kramsch (2002), Cameron and Larsen-Freeman (2008), and van Lier (2004). Though various terms and epistemological constructs are proposed to understand ecological agency in language teaching and learning, they all attempt to adopt a holistic perspective to examine the dynamic relationship between individuals and the environment. One of the key concepts in the ecological approach is *affordances*, which is adopted to explore how learners and teachers perceive the potential utilisation and benefits of a given environment or tools. Ecological agency, in this sense, focuses on how individuals act in the context shaped by affordances. For instance, Ruohotie-Lyhty (2015) adopts van Lier's (2004) ecological theory to investigate how novice language teachers construct their relationship with the school environment and how this relationship influences their beliefs about good language teaching. The findings show that novice language teachers do not perceive the environment as it is. Instead, the teachers utilise the affordances in the environment that influence their beliefs and teaching practices.

3.1.1.3 Bakhtinian dialogical approach

While the sociocultural turn (Johnson, 2006) attempts to reconceptualise agency as a non-individualistic human action, it has been criticised for its biased inclination toward structural affordances and constraints, externally observed actions, and the local community. To place the lived experience of an agent at the centre, a Bakhtinian dialogical approach to agency is employed by some researchers to analyse the internal emotions and affections of an individual (Sullivan & McCarthy, 2004). In their often-cited article, Sullivan and McCarthy argue that 'any investigation of agency needs to account for the felt agency of the other' (2004, p.307). Dialogical agency lies in an individual's responsive dialogue with the other. In dialogical terms, 'they constantly *author* their life story and their role' (Aro, 2015, p.50, emphasis in original) in their ongoing narratives. Adopting the Bakhtinian dialogical framework that conceptualises agency as individual lived experiences along with collective interdependence in the community, Ruohotie-Lyhty and Moate (2014) examine Finnish student teachers' language learning experiences via analysing their biographical essays. From the findings of their study, they propose a triad model to better understand multi-faceted teacher agency (Figure 3.2). (1) *I-for-me* dimension comprises constant dialogues between a changing self and a stable self, (2) *I-for-other* dimension involves how an individual responds to the other's expectations, and (3) *Other-for-me* dimension includes how an individual perceives and authors the people around. This model highlights the interdependent and relational phenomenon of teacher agency and helps teachers map out which life episodes enable or constrain their agency. They suggest that this metacognitive understanding would propel teachers to take agentive responses and aspire to exert professional agency (Ruohotie-Lyhty & Moate, 2014, p. 59).

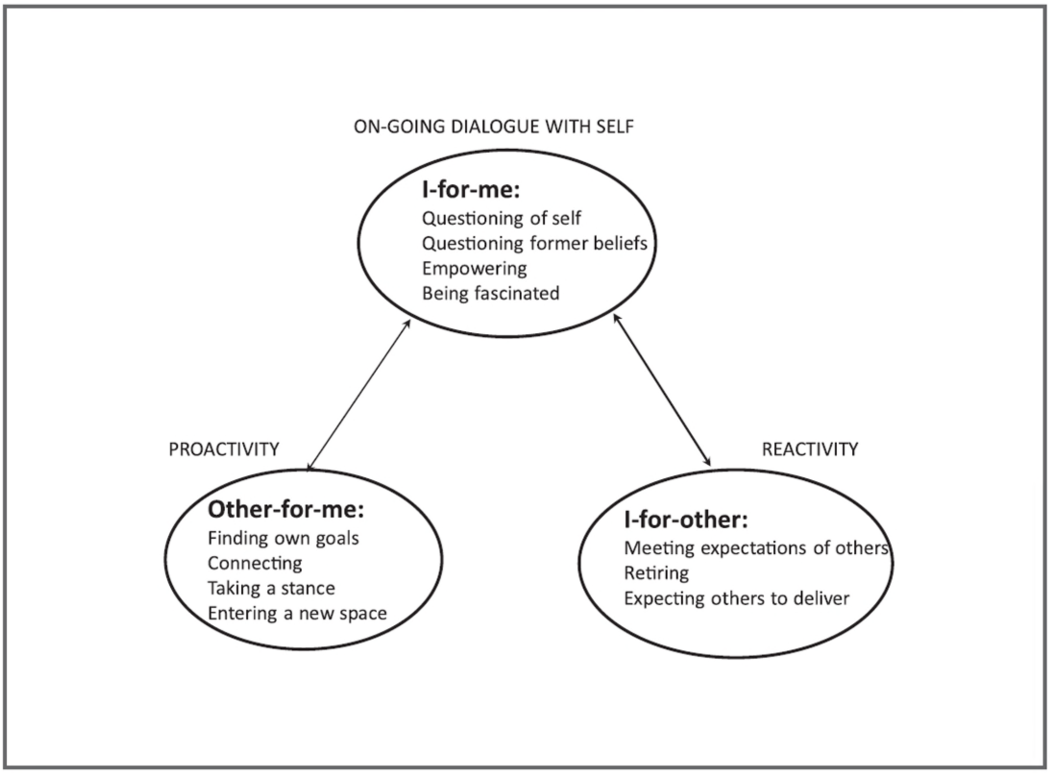


Figure 3.2 Proactive and reactive dimensions of life-course agency (Ruohotie-Lyhty & Moate, 2014, p. 58)

In summary, this section has briefly reviewed the theorisations and approaches to researching teacher agency in language teacher education. It is evident that the 'social turn' in the ELT field not only reconceptualises learning in SLA (Block, 2003) but also transforms the stances on teacher autonomy and agency research. Despite the epistemological and methodological differences in the Vygotskyan sociocultural approach, ecological approach, and Bakhtinian dialogical approach, the underlying theme among the studies is that they are against the traditional notion of conceptualising agency as essentialist, individualistic, and independent actions.

3.1.2 Teacher identity

Like the aforementioned theoretical trajectory of teacher agency, teacher identity research is related to previous literature on SLA identity studies (de Costa & Norton, 2017; Kalaja et al., 2015). Since Firth and Wagner's (1997) critique of the modernist orientation in the SLA field, it has witnessed a significant rise in studies adopting sociological and poststructuralist approaches to L2 identity (Block, 2007; Lei & Liu, 2019). This socially oriented reconceptualisation of L2 identity in relation to learners' motivation (Ushioda, 2020), multilingual subject (Kramsch, 2009), agency and metacognition (Gao & Zhang, 2011) has underscored that the nature of L2 identity is multi-layered, dynamic, and fragmented. Like language learner identity, language teacher identity (LTI) is conceptualised as a multi-faceted construct. Barkhuizen (2017, p. 4) captures this essence by providing an elaborate definition of LTI as follows:

> Language teacher identities (LTIs) are cognitive, social, emotional, ideological, and historical—they are both inside the teacher and outside in the social, material and technological world. LTIs are being and doing, feeling and imagining, and storying. They are struggle and harmony: they are contested and resisted, by self and others, and they are also accepted, acknowledged and valued, by self and others. They are core and peripheral, personal and professional, they are dynamic, multiple, and hybrid, and they are foregrounded and backgrounded. And LTIs change, short-term and over time—discursively in social interaction with teacher educators, learners, teachers, administrators, and the wider community, and in material interaction with spaces, places and objects in classrooms, institutions, and online.

This definition illustrates how LTIs are currently conceptualised and researched. First, it highlights *identities* as a plural form and needs to be investigated from different angles. Cognitively, LTIs are intricately linked to teachers' professional knowledge construction (Freeman, 2016), beliefs, and emotions; historically, LTIs has to do with how a teacher *authors* their own lived experiences (Barkhuizen, 2016); ecologically, LTIs are afforded by the material and technology given in the environment (Trent & Shroff, 2013; socio-ideologically, LTIs are interpreted, negotiated and appropriated in relation to policies, institutions, local communities, and classroom interactions (Johnson, 2013). Second, LTIs are mediated via dynamic equilibrium between struggle and harmony because LTIs are negotiated and achieved among competing ideologies and positionings. Through these dynamics, an individual keeps *evolving* (Canagarajah, 2017) and *becoming* (Block, 2015a) a language teacher.

In what follows, I will briefly review three theoretical conceptualisations in LTI research: (1) community of practice, (2) investment theory, and (3) identity-agency construction.

3.1.2.1 Community of practice

In his seminal book *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity*, Wenger (1999, p. v) proposes a social theory of learning with the premise that 'engagement in social practice is the fundamental process by which we learn and so become who we are'. Wenger (1999, p. 149) suggests that the identity-practice relationship could be characterised in the following aspects:

(1) Identity as negotiated experience
(2) Identity as community membership
(3) Identity as learning trajectory
(4) Identity as nexus of multi-membership
(5) Identity as a relation between the local and global

As can be seen, identity construction is a multi-layered formation along with social negotiation and participation. Identity-in-practice (Varghese et al., 2005, p. 39), as a theoretical approach to understanding teacher identity construction, emphasises the aspect of actual actions and practices embodied in the community, implying what language teachers enact in practices is as important as what they narrate in discourses. For example, Yazan (2018) applies Wenger's framework to examine pre-service teachers' identity negotiation as English teachers. The study reveals that as newcomers to a professional community, pre-service teachers construct their professional knowledge and identity dialectically in the process. On the one hand, pre-service teachers desire social recognition and professional legitimacy in the community. Nevertheless, when they encounter certain community practices (i.e., yelling at students) that they do not value, they exhibit non-participation and exercise critical reflection as their identity negotiation strategies. By doing so, they construct their reflexive teacher identities and advocate social justice for their students. Vega et al. (2021) employ native speakerism theory and Wenger's identity framework to study non-native English teachers' negotiation of identity. The findings show that when native-speaker norms are privileged in the community of practice, non-native English teachers' insecure emotions index their less legitimate professional identity as English teachers. On the other hand, non-native English teachers take this opportunity to reflect on native speakerism in the community and negotiate between existing identities.

3.1.2.2 Investment theory

Investment theory (Darvin & Norton, 2015/2021; Norton, 2001; Norton, 2013; Norton & Toohey, 2011) has also been influential as a theoretical framework to research language teacher identity. Built on Bourdieu's capital theory (1991), Norton proposes *investment* as a construct to understand the interplay among language learner identity, investment in cultural capital, and imagined community. The concept of investment emphasises that language learners invest in a target language in order to obtain social resources, increase cultural capital, and therefore consolidate their identity as social beings. Challenging psychological and cognitive theorisations of language learner motivation, Norton and researchers in this strand are more concerned with 'Are students *invested* in the language practices of the classroom or community?' (Darvin & Norton, 2015, p. 37, emphasis in original). Because of the fluid nature of identity construction, Norton (2013, p. 4) defines identity as 'the way a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future'. Invested identity, in this sense, is conceptualised as 'a site of struggle that is negotiated through language and social interaction' (Darvin & Norton, 2021, p. 3). Investment theory was initially conceptualised as a sociological construct to understand language learners' motivation and identity. Later, reflecting on the relationship between language learner investment and language teacher identity, Norton (2017) emphasises that learner investment is co-constructed by teachers, community practices, technology advancement, globalisation and neoliberalism. Therefore, Norton (2017, p. 82) invites teachers to reflect on the extent to which systemic power and ideology are enacted in the classrooms and communities in the following three questions:

(1) To what extent do teachers recognise and respond to the material, unequal lived realities of learners, and their multiple identities?
(2) What dominant ideologies and systemic patterns of control circumscribe the realities and experiences of language learners and teachers? How does the worldview of teachers position learners?
(3) To what extent and in what ways do teachers recognise the linguistic and cultural capital that language learners bring to class?

Teachers' critical examination as such can help them better understand the relationship between investment, capital and ideology in their teaching practices, as well as reclaim their agentive identities. Drawing on investment theory and positioning theory, Reeves (2009) studies the identity negotiation process of secondary English teachers in relation to English language learners. Specifically, the study investigates how an actor (i.e., an English teacher) intentionally invests in the other's (i.e., English language learners) identity construction to reinforce the actor's own self-positionings. The findings indicate that when teachers are aware of the underlying power relations and ideology in their investment in students' identity construction, teachers are more likely to re-interrogate the complex network of identity positionings in teacher-student relationships.

3.1.2.3 Identity-agency construction

Ruohotie-Lyhty and Moate (2016) propose *identity-agency* as a theoretical construct to investigate different forms of agency in language teachers' identity development. In this framework, *identity-agency* is defined as

> personal responsiveness to the environment based on meaningful experiences, the values of the individual, the possibility to enrich participation through the investments of others and the development of self through invested effort in this negotiation at the heart of professional identity development (Ruohotie-Lyhty & Moate, 2016, p. 326).

Built on Dewey's notion of reflection and Bakhtin's dialogism, the construct of *identity-agency* considers identity development as teachers' conscious investment in becoming a teacher, while agency is considered as teachers actively apply their lived experiences to construct professional knowledge and identity in the community. In this sense, language teachers' professional identity and agency are treated as a complex entity *identity-agency*. Like two sides of a coin, identity-agency as a theoretical construct underscores that professional identity is intertwined with professional agency through an agent's lived experiences, learned knowledge, beliefs, and aspirations in relation to others. Ruohotie-Lyhty and Moate (2016) identify three forms of *identity-agency*. First, *expansive form* is the way teachers exploit their experiences to reconstruct professional identity, boost pedagogical confidence, and assert ethical responsibilities. *Reductive form*, on the contrary, is characterised by teachers' withdrawal, rejection and resistance to new practices or knowledge provided in the context. *Attentive form* means that when teachers encounter tensions between their original beliefs and new practices, they employ available practices and beliefs as resources to reconcile the clash and project imagined future identities. Evidenced by the three forms of identity-agency, Ruohotie-Lyhty and Moate (2016, p. 326) argue that 'identity-agency appears to be a useful mediating concept between identity and agency with identity-agency maintaining and enacting the negotiation around who I am'. Instead of treating agency as an underlying force in the process of identity negotiation, identity-agency as a theoretical construct foregrounds the parallel momentum from each side. None of the two is subsumed by the other. As a relatively new prototype of understanding the relationship between teacher agency and identity, Ruohotie-Lyhty and Moate's (2016) construct of *identity-agency* needs further investigation.

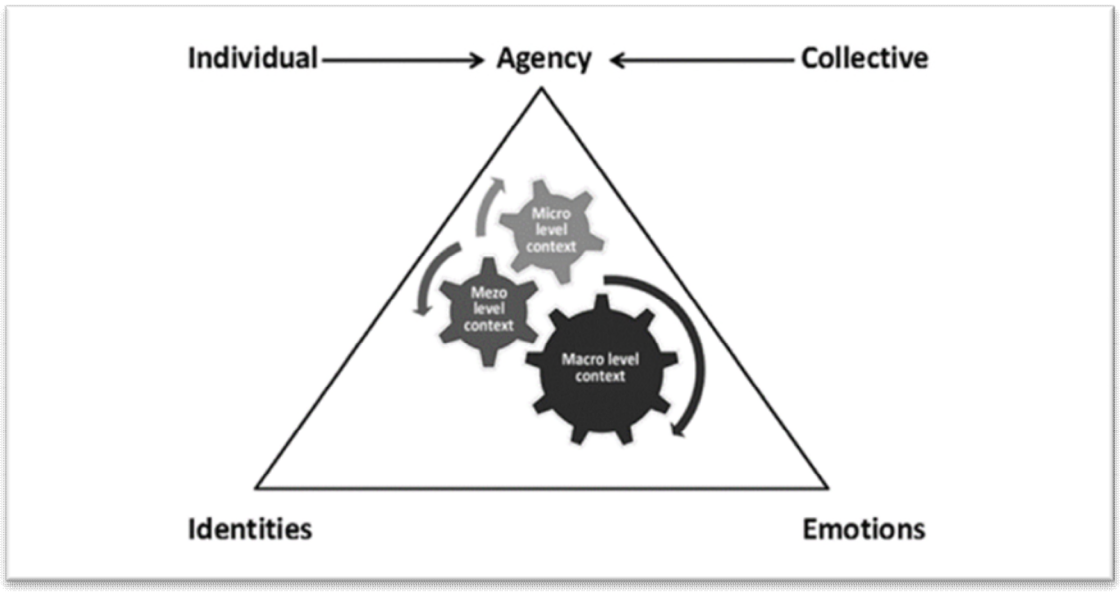


Figure 3.3 Conceptualising language teacher identity-agency-emotions (Kayi-Aydar, 2015, p. 16)

Regarding teacher identity and agency relationship, Kayi-Aydar (2019a, p. 18) proposes a triangle model of identity, agency and emotions (Figure 3.3), arguing that 'the complex identity–agency relationship is affected by and reflected in one's emotions and feelings'. Kayi-Aydar identifies emotions as a research gap in teacher identity-agency studies and suggests that an analysis of emotions would yield insights into the intricate identity-agency relationship.

3.1.3 Summary

So far, this section has briefly reviewed the theoretical development of identity and agency studies in the language teacher education field. Despite differences in various approaches and theories, two common themes are identified as follows.

(1) Language teacher identity, as well as language teacher agency, is a multi-layered construct that requires scrutiny from distinct perspectives, including the social structures, community of practice, and personal narratives. To capture the fluid nature of identity construction and agentive exercise, a sociocultural methodology is often adopted to investigate the complex relationship between the self and the other, including positioning theory (Arvaja, 2016; Kayi-Ayar, 2019b; Turner, 2017), action research (Dahbi, 2016), and narrative analysis (Barkhuizen, 2016).

(2) There is a reflexive interaction between teachers' professional knowledge construction and teacher identity-agency. Shifting from the model of transmission and product-oriented teacher education to the model of process-oriented teacher agency (Gray & Morton, 2018; Kumaravadivelu, 1994/2006; Wright, 2010), current understandings of language teacher identity and agency show that teacher professionalism goes far beyond the consequences of passive knowledge transmission and involves a self-directing, self-determining, and collective developmental process.

3.2 Teacher identity and agency in educational language policy

Twenty-five years ago, Ricento and Hornberger (1996) wrote an influential article, 'Unpeeling the onion: language planning and policy and the ELT professional' in a *TESOL Quarterly* special issue. They foreground classroom teachers' agentive power in the LPP process, arguing that instead of being passive policy implementors, teachers' agency is mediated by their pedagogical decisions in the classrooms.

> In the ELT literature, the practitioner is often an afterthought who implements what *experts* in the government, board of education, or central school administration have already decided. The practitioner often needs to be *educated, studied, cajoled, tolerated,* even *replaced* by better prepared (even more pliant) teachers. In contrast, we claim that educational and social change and institutional transformation, especially in decentralised societies, often begin with the grassroots.
>
> (Ricento & Hornberger, 1996, p. 417; emphasis in original)

In this article, they also made a metaphor of *onion* to describe that language planning and policy (LPP) is a multi-layered construct and needs to be investigated from multiple layers — agents, levels, and processes. Classroom teachers are placed at the centre of the LPP onion and are considered the main momentum for educational reforms. Following this vein, this section will first review different terms, concepts and frameworks related to LPP research. Then, the theoretical development of agency and identity in the LPP field will be presented. Last, English teachers as LPP agents within curriculum changes will be reviewed, including how policy and curriculum mandate English to be taught and how English teachers respond to such changes in multiple contexts worldwide.

3.2.1 Terms, definitions and concepts relating to language planning and policy

The term *language planning and policy* (LPP) has been used interchangeably with *language-in-education policy*, *educational language policy* (Johnson, 2013), and *language education policy* (Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2019). To establish a clear understanding of the phenomenon researched in the present study, it is essential to distinguish these commonly used terms. According to Oxford Learner's Dictionaries, *policy* refers to 'a plan of action agreed or chosen by a political party, a business' or 'a principle that you believe in that influences how you behave; a way in which you usually behave'. The provided definitions indicate that policy can be either official enforcement or unofficial beliefs and behaviour. While this is how *policy* is understood in general terms, the term *language policy* has been defined and theorised by various disciplines such as sociolinguistics, ethnography, education and political science. From a sociolinguistic perspective, Spolsky (2012) considers it appropriate to label this field as *language policy* and identifies three components of the language policy of a speech community (Spolsky, 2004, p. 5):

(1) language practices: the habitual pattern of selecting among the varieties that make up its linguistic repertoire
(2) language beliefs or ideology: the beliefs about language and language use
(3) any specific efforts to modify or influence that practice by any kind of language intervention, planning or management

Taking 'speech community' as analysis units, Spolsky conceptualises language policy as language practices, language ideology, and language management. This conceptualisation implies that language policy is not a linear process from the top-down management but also a dialectic complex involving individual choices and collective intersubjectivity. Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (2019, p. 3) define *language education policies* as

> a form of human resource development planning (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997) that operate to develop language abilities that society identifies as important for social, economic, or other objectives. They make statements about which languages will be included in education and the purposes for which those languages will be taught and learned.

This definition highlights the role policy statements and educational institutions play in shaping the linguistic landscape and fulfilling the stated policy goals. Stated language policy can be in the form of legislative documents, curriculum designs, and other educational texts. Similar to Spolsky's (2004) notion of the close connection between language policy and language ideology, Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (2019) acknowledge that the explicitly stated language policies are in tandem with implicit language values, arguing that the tangible and authoritative language education policy could constitute a contextualised research site for language policy research.

Emphasising the importance of micro-level language decision-making, Cooper (1989) argues that macro-sociological language planning should include language teaching and acquisition.

Following this strand, Johnson (2013, p. 54) defines *educational language policy* as 'the official and unofficial policies that are created across multiple layers and institutional contexts (from national organisations to classrooms) that impact language use in classrooms and schools'. This definition echoes the metaphor of the LPP onion and reflects the dialogic relationship between language education and language policy. Similarly, García and Menken (2010, p. 254) expand Cooper's (1989) acquisition planning and introduce the term *language education policies*, emphasising 'the plurality and dynamism of the many choices that are available to educators, students, and communities, as they are constrained or liberated by different structures that are also changed through their actions'. Classroom teachers are regarded as policymakers 'stirring the LPP onion' (García & Menken, 2010) by claiming the agency from top-down education policies and enacting agency in classrooms.

The conceptualisation of language classrooms as a site for language policy research indicates that an interdisciplinary enterprise is required in this research field. In this sense, the term *educational language policies* seems to fit my research context better. Nevertheless, the term *language planning and policy* (LPP) has been an established research discipline in its own right since the mid-twentieth century. Moreover, the term *LPP* has been widely adopted in recent years. For example, Baldauf and Kaplan (2004, 2006, 2007) have edited a series of *Language Planning and Policy*. Therefore, in my research, I adopt the terms *LPP* and *educational language policies* interchangeably to discuss relevant theoretical and pedagogical issues for the convenience of the academic readership.

3.2.2 Agency and structure in LPP research

The conceptualisation of language classrooms as a site for LPP research also makes the role of agency prominent in the local policy environments. Before going further on how teachers interpret, appropriate, and instantiate (Johnson, 2013) language policies on the ground level, this section briefly discusses the theoretical debate over agency and structure in LPP scholarship.

The theoretical evolution of agency in LPP research could be divided into three phases of study (Glasgow & Bouchard, 2019). During the first phase, LPP was first recognised as a research domain in the context of decolonisation and the nation-making process. LPP research was positioned as 'the codified, neutral output of language planning' (Hornberger et al., 2018, p. 155), attending to the official need for national languages as a means to unification. Agency in this period was considered a legal authority 'located within macro-level institutions created and/or sanctioned by nation-states' (Liddicoat & Baldauf, 2008, p. 3). Later, the state-controlled LPP was challenged by Tollefson (1991), who maintained that the LPP should take a socio-political perspective to scrutinise the formulation and implementation of the policies critically. This critical turn in LPP research dissected the ideological forces embedded in the legitimisation and institutionalisation of national languages.

Nevertheless, Tollefson's critical language policy approach had been criticised for its disproportionate inclination toward structural constraints over agentive potentials. The implication of critical LPP is that local agents are still regarded as unwilling and disempowered recipients of structural oppression. To calibrate the tendency of prioritising structure over agency, the third phase placed ethnographic realities at the centre of LPP inquiry (Hult & Johnson, 2015). While the ethnography of LPP liberates agents from structural controls, the pitfall of prioritising agency over structure is also problematic. For example, Johnson (2013, p. 108) reminds researchers to explore the dialogic relationship between macro-level policy discourses and micro-level practices because the dichotomy of top-down and bottom-up 'obfuscates the varied and unpredictable ways that LPP agents interact with the policy process'. Liddicoat (2019) also argues that the micro-macro dichotomy is questionable because in reality, LPP agents could operate at micro, meso or macro levels in dialectic directions. In their review of agency in LPP research, Liddicoat and Taylor-Leech (2021) briefly compare various perspectives on the agency-structure relationship. For researchers who consider LPP as a form of structure, they may focus on how the agents respond to policy and curriculum impositions; for researchers who consider LPP as a form of agency, they may focus on the agents' decision-making process of language use in context.

On the other hand, Block (2012, 2013, 2015b) provides a critical evaluation of the agency-structure debate in applied linguistic research. Block's main argument is that 'language and identity research has, if anything, become over-agentive' (2015b, p. 23). Therefore researchers need to take structure more seriously via the lens of critical realism. Block observes that when it comes to the construct of *agency*, distinct definitions are often cited as 'the socioculturally mediated capacity to act' (Ahearn, 2001, p. 112) or 'people's ability to make choices, take control, self-regulate, and thereby pursue their goals as individuals leading, potentially, to personal or social transformation' (Duff, 2012, p. 414). Nevertheless, clear theoretical definitions of the *structure* are often absent in discussing the agency-structure relationship. To better understand the agency-structure phenomenon, he proposes a model of structure as follows (Block, 2015b, p. 21):

(1) economic structure: including the economic, legal, and political bases of societies
(2) physical structure: including geographical landscape, neighbourhood, and physical objects
(3) social structure: including the discursive and non-discursive impositions from organisations and institutions
(4) psychological structure: including embodied dispositional formations, or in Bourdieu's term *habitus*
(5) communicative structure: including the ongoing interactions among individuals collaborating, or in Lave and Wenger's term *community of practice*

Block argues that agency should be researched in relation to situated structures to counterbalance the overall tendency toward individual life trajectories in language and identity research. Block suggests critical realism as an alternative paradigm to study agency-structure interrelation to solve the epistemological tension between grand and personal narratives. Challenging the positivist tradition, critical realism acknowledges there may be generalities in natural science research, but this is not how social scientists describe the stratified social phenomena. Challenging the constructivist tradition, critical realism maintains that there is an 'epistemic fallacy' (Bhaskar, 1975, p. 36; as quoted in Block, 2015b, p. 28) because an actual reality (i.e., ontology) cannot be conflated with social actors' statements of knowledge (i.e., epistemology). Critical realism, in this sense, is *realist* with regard to ontology because there is an admittedly real world that exists independently of the social actors; *critical* because multi-layered social phenomena must be investigated from both structure and agency. Taking a critical realism perspective, Glasgow and Bouchard (2019, p.

13) suggest that LPP research should aim to unpack how agents acknowledge language policies as structural constraints and affordances and how agents mediate language policies to enact collective and individual identities.

In thinking about multiple identities ascribed or evoked in educational policy work, Ball et al. (2011) identify eight roles embedded in the process of policy implementation.

(1) Narrators: actors who interpret, dictate, and mandate how to enact the policy in a given institution
(2) Entrepreneurs: actors who invest themselves in the policy and recruit members to gather momentum to enact the change
(3) Outsiders: external actors such as local authority advisers, consultants, and edu-business partners
(4) Transactors: actors who report executive performance of the top-down policy, including policy monitoring, enforcement, and accountability
(5) Enthusiasts: actors who positively and creatively embody the policy in their practice
(6) Translators: actors who translate policy texts into tangible actions in their context of work
(7) Critics: actors who maintain counter-discourses of the official policy interpretation and resist the implementation
(8) Receivers: actors who seek guidance from other colleagues and comply with the regulations

Ball et al. (2011) point out that school stakeholders at the local level would take a wide range of roles and positions to respond to the policy demands. Though not directly relevant to agency in LPP, this category suggests the covert power hierarchy among various roles in general education policy settings. Ball et al. (2011) argue that with institutional legitimacy to mandate how to enact the policy, *narrators* have more agentive space for educational policy work. From a more specific LPP perspective, Wiley and García (2016) identify three agentive roles involved in US schools:

(1) Governmental planning agents: actors who make legal and judicial decisions over LPP

(2) Language strategists: actors who have key social influence over language issues in the community
(3) De facto planners or arbiters: actors who have linguistic expertise and offer professional advice
(4) Local stakeholders: actors who exercise agency from the bottom-up, including families and local communities

Wiley and García's category suggests that along a continuum between top-down structure and bottom-up agency, multiple LPP agents are also involved in the process. For example, *language strategists*, who exercise their social influence in accepting or rejecting a given LPP, are highlighted in this category, which captures how influencers and celebrities on social media shape public opinions nowadays. Similarly, Cheng and Li (2021, p. 120) categorise LPP actors into five groups from macro to micro levels:

(1) Policymakers: actors including the Ministry of Education and distinguished scholars
(2) People with expertise: actors in foreign language teaching scholastic circle
(3) People with influence in society: actors who are labelled with social elites, such as distinguished writers and business leaders
(4) People with power at the meso level: actors who work at the institutional level
(5) People as implementers and micro policymakers: actors who work at the ground level

Cheng and Li's category attempts to integrate multiple LPP actors into the multi-layered LPP contexts, emphasising that agency in LPP is diversified, contingent, and stratified.

This section has reviewed the theoretical development of agency and identity in LPP research from different perspectives, including nation-building technocracy, critical approach, ethnography approach, and critical realism. Agency in LPP can be viewed as situated in multiple social layers and players, and this is the position taken in my research. This stance can be summarised as Johnson's framework (2013, p. 193; Figure 3.4). It lists potential LPP layering into three categories (MACRO, MESO, and MICRO) and subsequent three levels (Macro, Meso, and Micro). Though not a comprehensive coverage, this framework foregrounds the multi-layer and multi-actor nature of LPP processes. The micro-macro distinction is relative and depends on the actors involved within particular contexts.

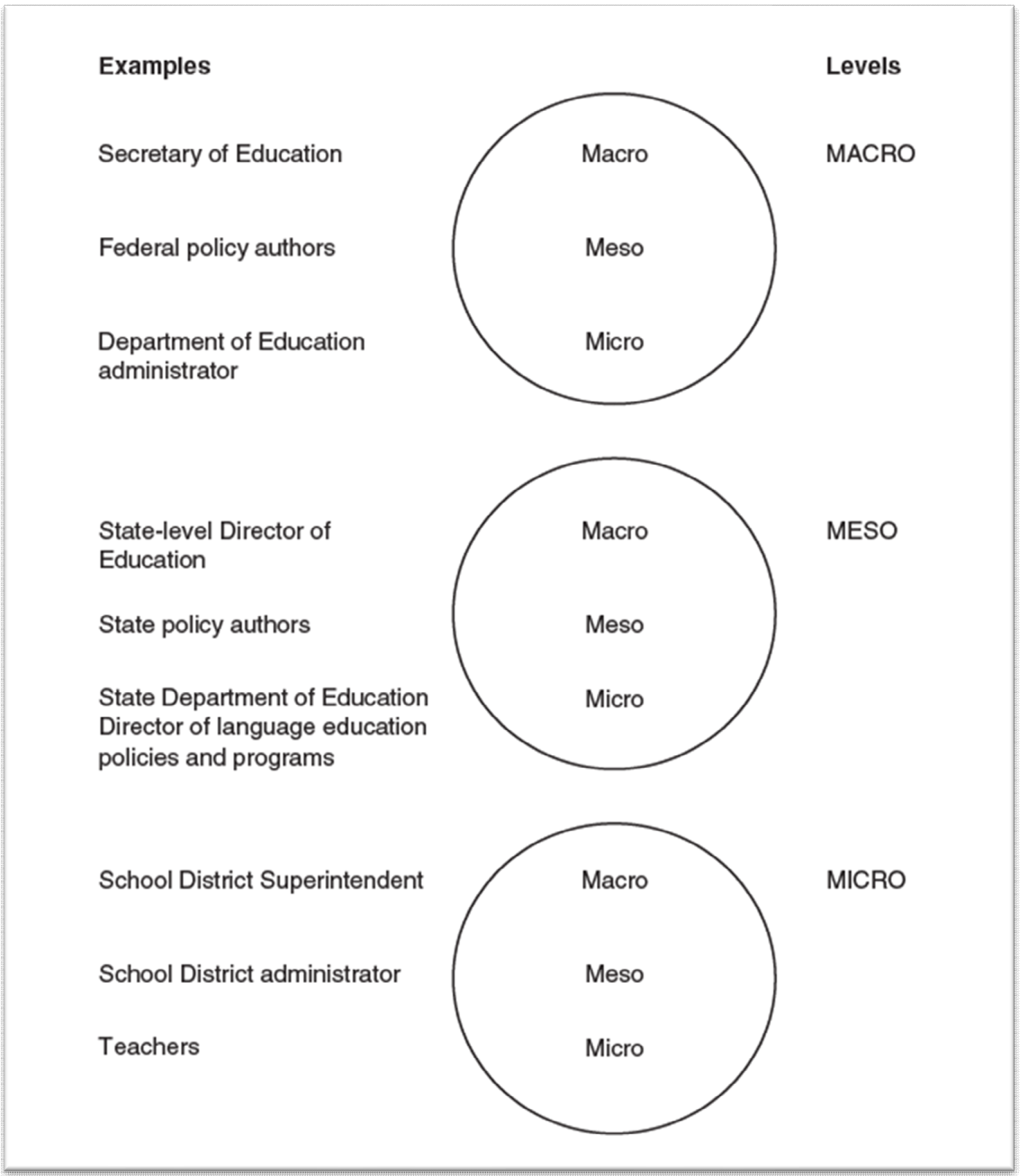


Figure 3.4 Macro, meso, and micro educational language policy

3.2.3 English language teachers as agents of policy and curriculum changes

In the prevailing climate of globalisation and technology advancement, there has been a growing arms race among countries to enhance the competitive competence of their citizens. One of the consequences is that the global landscape of education policy and planning has been substantially transformed (Kramsch, 2014). Burns (2017, p. xi) cogently argues that among various subject domains, 'nowhere does the impact of educational policymaking seem to be so keenly and perplexingly felt than in English language teaching'. Policymakers in various countries keenly integrate the English language into educational policy, emphasising English as a 'must-have' and 'the-earlier-the-better language' for political and economic benefits. The prevalent anxiety over the English language has led to new policies for English language teaching laden with political ideology and unsubstantiated assumptions on how English should be learned and taught. It is in this globalisation and internationalisation discourse (Block & Cameron, 2002; Blommaert, 2010; see Section 2.3 in Chapter Two for international education for globalisation in Taiwan) that English language teachers around the world have either reluctantly or joyfully jumped on the ELT bandwagon: English as a medium of instruction (EMI), content and language integrated learning (CLIL), bilingual education, blended teaching, among others.

Most Asian countries speak English as their foreign language, and the English language enjoys a prestigious status compared to other foreign languages (Liddicoat, 2013). To respond to the need for globalisation and internationalisation, Asian governments, including Indonesia, Malaysia, Vietnam, and South Korea, have recently allocated considerable resources to enhance the quality of English language education (Tsui, 2021). Furthermore, the regional organisation ASEAN in Southeast Asia designates English as the official lingua franca, further reinforcing English language dominance in educational institutions in Asian countries. One of the examples is that English is introduced into the curriculum earlier and earlier in most Asian countries (Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017). In what follows, I will present studies of how policy and curriculum mandate English to be taught and how English teachers respond to such changes in multiple contexts in Asia.

Molina (2017) examines how English language teachers in China negotiate different forms of tensions between policy and practice and exercise their agency to navigate their teaching practices. The study is contextualised in the *New English Curriculum* that strives to counterbalance the predominance of the grammar-translation method. The new English curriculum aims to develop learners' comprehensive language competence, including linguistic knowledge, language skills, positive attitudes towards learning, language learning strategies, and cultural awareness. To achieve these goals, the Task-Based Language Teaching method is promoted explicitly in the new curriculum. From an ecological perspective to analyse English teacher agency, the findings show that the level of teacher agency in translating the new curriculum into classroom practice is influenced by institutional affordances and constraints. Molina (2017) suggests that instead of viewing teachers as passive knowledge transmitters (Kumaravadivelu, 2012), grassroots teachers' beliefs and experiences can help educational governing bodies make informed decisions.

Hamid et al. (2019) give an updated overview of English language teacher agency in LPP in the context of Vietnamese higher education. This paper compares and contrasts the findings from three doctoral studies conducted in Vietnam, examining the nature of teacher agency in relation to three macro-level language policies: (1) EMI policy, (2) localised CEFR for teachers' English proficiency, and (3) Learner Autonomy policy. The first PhD study investigates teacher agency in the EMI setting (Nguyen T. H., 2016). Nguyen's study identifies four types of agency exercised by teachers: adaptive agency (being pragmatic and flexible), compliant agency (performing what EMI policy mandates), supportive agency (providing students in the struggles with assistance), and non-engaging agency (feeling uncomfortable in delivering EMI classes). The second PhD study investigates teacher agency in enacting the CEFR-based policy (Nguyen V. H., 2016). University teachers are expected to align classroom activities with the CEFR's level rubric within the policy. Tensions emerge from inconsistency between pedagogy, assessment system, and varied teacher competency. Strategies adopted by the teachers, termed 'judicious opportunism', allow them to deal with the constrained expertise and resources in the localised CEFR-based teaching. In addition, the findings show that when a CEFR certificate is linked to English teachers' eligibility to teach, it has a consequential impact on teachers' sense of self-worth and professional identity. The final PhD study (Phan, 2018) explores teacher agency in relation to the Learner Autonomy policy. This study reveals teachers' contradictory agentive responses to the macro-level policies: enthusiastic and sceptical engagements, hope and frustration, and ideal and reality. Despite the divergent forms of agentive responses to the macro-level policies identified in the three PhD studies, a shared strategy among the three studies is teachers' capacity to accommodate and adapt the policies in their own teaching contexts. Hamid et al. (2019) argue that the local LPP agency in

Vietnam is an intersubjective enterprise constructed by individual and collective interpretations of policy, personal commitments, and beliefs about language teaching and learning. In addition, the introduction of standardisation of teaching practices requires extensive professional development support for classroom teachers.

Glasgow (2017) examines native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) agency in the 'teaching English in English' policy in the senior high school context in Japan. The author employs the linguistic pragmatics method and native speakerism theory (Holliday, 2013) to analyse the qualitative data collected from 62 teachers. The findings show that both JTEs and NESTs exert limited agency due to dissonance between macro-level policy and affordances provided by institutions. For JTEs, they do not feel professionally sufficient to teach English in English; for NESTs, they feel like foreign outsiders who do not fully integrate into school culture. In addition, JETs tend to view NESTs as an indispensable part of enacting the 'teaching English in English' policy in their classrooms, hence reinforcing the native speakerism ideology that NESTs are more qualified to execute the classroom language policy. On the other hand, NESTs desire to integrate into local institutions via more collaboration with their JTEs counterparts. The study suggests that the LPP should enable NESTs and JETs teachers to value their professional competency. Therefore, the notion of 'qualified teacher of English' should be reconceptualised in the ELT field.

The three papers presented in this section do not intend to be comprehensive or representative of the LPP research in Asia. However, to a certain extent, they explain how geopolitical and economic structures (Block, 2015b) influence language policy formation and teacher agency in Asian countries.

3.2.4 Summary

This section has briefly reviewed various terms relating to language policy (i.e., language education policies, educational language policy, and language education policies) and different approaches to language planning and policy (i.e., nation-building technocracy, critical language policy, ethnography of language policy, and critical realism). The discussion of agency and structure in LPP research thus far has suggested the following aspects.

(1) Agency, rather than free will and resistance of individuals, is mediated through social and cultural conditions. Therefore, to avoid treating agency in a structural vacuum, agency should be researched not simply within individuals but also within communities and broader socio-political spheres.
(2) Structure, which in my research refers to the LPP discourse, is not exclusively the source of constraints. Structure interacts with agency iteratively, expanding the space for human capacity. It is the dialectical space that structure offers enablements for local agency.

3.3 Teacher identity and agency in L2 classroom discourse

As discussed in the previous sections, LPP research has recently turned its interest in how educational language policy is enacted and practised in classroom settings. In the form of 'practised language policies' (Bonacina-Pugh, 2020) in the classrooms, both teachers and students exercise their agency and negotiated identities. On the other hand, classroom interaction in the domain of language teacher education has developed theoretically and empirically as an essential research inquiry. This line of inquiry generally focuses on the reflexive relationship between teacher talk, classroom interaction and pedagogical goals (Seedhouse, 2004; Sert, 2015; Walsh, 2006; Waring, 2016). For example, the construct *classroom interactional competence* (CIC) is defined as 'teachers' and learners' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning' (Walsh, 2006, p. 132). This definition foregrounds classroom participants' decision-making capacity to co-construct classroom learning opportunities. Such studies have offered insights into how teachers and students employ interactional resources to orient pedagogical goals. In this section, I argue that classroom interaction can also be investigated from the agency and identity perspective. The interplay between classroom interaction, language policy, and teacher identity and agency deserves further investigation in the field of language teacher education. To re-investigate how L2 classroom interaction and English language teacher agency-identity are linked, it is necessary to review existing literature on L2 classroom interaction. Given that my research is contextualised in the *Bilingual Nation Policy* and multimodal literacy promoted in the *108*

Curriculum in Taiwan, I mainly discuss classroom discourse studies through the multilingual and multimodal perspectives.

3.3.1 Terms, definitions and concepts relating to L2 classroom discourse

Researchers have debated whether the term 'L2' (a second language) is still a valid construct in the SLA domain. Given the fact that bilingualism and multilingualism have become prevalent around the world (Block, 2003; Ellis, 1994; Leung & Creese, 2010), the implication of using the term L2 should be reconsidered in terms of how many languages a learner speaks as mother tongues (Dewaele, 2018), and whether the language has official status in national language policy (Johnson, 2013). In this study, L2 refers to 'an umbrella term that stands for English as a second/foreign/additional language used in an instructed language learning setting' (Sert, 2015, p. 1). This definition highlights that instructed language learning contexts (e.g., L2 classroom interaction) could provide learning opportunities and scaffolding for language learners.

Another set of terms, often used interchangeably, are 'L2 classroom interaction' and 'L2 classroom discourse'. In my research, the term 'L2 classroom discourse' refers to the unique form of institutional interactions between teachers and learners. Seedhouse (2004) provides an elaborate account of an institutional-discourse perspective on L2 classroom interaction. As one of the varieties of institutional discourse, L2 classroom interaction exhibits four different kinds of asymmetries between the professionals and apprentices (Seedhouse, 2004, p. 96):

(1) Asymmetries of participation
(2) Asymmetries of institutional know-how
(3) Epistemological asymmetries of knowledge
(4) Asymmetries of rights to access to knowledge

Given that language is both the vehicle and object of instruction in L2 classrooms, such asymmetries constitute L2 classroom interaction as an instructed language learning setting in which 'teachers should, and indeed do, play a much more central role than that advocated under both Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-based Language Learning

(TBLT)' (Walsh, 2006, p. 3). This is the stance taken in my research — teacher talk should be weighted fairly in L2 classroom discourse research. Although the technology-mediated CLT or TBLT seems to render L2 classrooms more learner-centred, teacher talk still plays a vital role in scaffolding and engaging students in the classroom. Researchers should consider different aspects of teacher talk, such as scaffolding, corrective feedback, turn-taking, sequence organisation, and code-switching. The micro-analytic insights derived from the classrooms can be conducive to the development of English language teachers' professional identity and agency.

Before explaining the reason why I chose code-switching as an analytical lens to research teacher identity and agency in classroom interactions, it is helpful to discuss the theoretical divergence and overlaps between the terms code-switching and translanguaging. Code-switching as a research conceptualisation, compared to the relatively new concept of translanguaging, has been long studied since 1970 (e.g. Gumperz & Hymes, 1972; Auer, 1984). The early research of code-switching focuses on 'diglossia in speech communities' (Kamwangamalu, 2010), which has been critiqued by translanguaging scholars that this monoglossic perspective of language alternation treats bilingualism as two named languages (García, 2009; Li, 2018), without considering the fluidity and dynamics of languages. However, code-switching, as a line of research inquiry in applied linguistics and ELT, has evolved a long the time. One of the evolving directions is classroom code-switching in EMI contexts (Macaro et al., 2014; Macaro, 2021; Sahan et al., 2021). In this research line, classroom code-switching is theorised as a communicative and pedagogical resource in bilingual/multilingual settings. Methodologically, classroom code-switching is researched through the quantities and functions of teacher L1 use and through students' beliefs about teachers' L1 use (Macaro et al., 2020). Specifically, the functions of teacher L1 use include lexical information, grammar explanations, and communicative competence.

As many researchers argue (Carstens, 2016; Sahan & Rose, 2021; Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021), the concept of translanguaging reconceptualises the bilingual minds, highlighting that it 'includes the full range of linguistic performances of multilingual language users for purposes that transcend the combination of structures, the alternation between systems, the transmission of information and the representation of values, identities and relationship' (Li, 2014, p. 159-160). In this line of thinking, translanguaging implies going beyond the boundaries of linguistic codes and is therefore different from the concept of code-switching. Recently, translanguaging research has turned its attention to teachers' and students' employment of their linguistic repertoires in multilingual classrooms (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017). Translanguaging as pedagogical scaffolding emphasizes:

- Translanguaging as a means for bridging students' knowledge gap
- Translanguaging as a means for promoting students' responses
- The role of the teacher's prior life experience in shaping his translanguaging practices
- Translanguaging as a way for motivating student interest in the content subject
- Translanguaging as a way to bridge the social distance between the teacher and students (Tai, 2021, p. 128)

Typically, studies on translanguaging in multilingual settings indicate that both teachers and students spontaneously or/and strategically take advantage of their multilingual and multimodal resources to scaffold students' language learning (Ke & Lin, 2017; Rajendram, 2021; Schulze & Marquez, 2019).

In translanguaging and code-switching literature, some have argued that the two notions have different theoretical foundations (García & Li, 2015) while some have pointed out that there are overlapping characteristics between translanguaging and code-switching. Goodman and Tastanbek (2021, p. 9) provide a detailed literature review of translanguaging and code-switching in the classroom, indicating three overlaps between the two notions. First, both translanguaging and code-switching are used as umbrella terms for daily classroom communication practices and for target language learning scaffolding. Second, teachers' and students' beliefs associated with either translanguaging or code-switching are usually not congruent. The differences may result from institutional language policies and teachers' and students' language ideologies. Third, either translanguaging or code-switching studies have identified that teachers may employ conscious language choices as their means to reify, resist, or transform the monolingual language polices.

Though translanguaging seems the preferred conceptualisation for investigating nowadays multilingual classrooms, this thesis adopts the term code-switching in a sense that focuses on the functions of teachers' L1 use with accompanying semiotic resources in the classroom. The purpose of the analysis is to reveal how teachers exercised their agency in response to the 'teach English in English' policy.

3.3.2 Multilingual perspectives of L2 classroom discourse

Before May's (2014) call for a 'multilingual turn' for the linguistic-cognitive SLA paradigm and García and Li's (2014) proposal of 'translanguaging' for bilingual language education, the use of different languages in language classrooms had been under investigation from different theoretical and methodological stances, including the use of L1, diglossia (Ferguson C. A., 2003), code-meshing (Canagarajah, 2011), code-switching (Üstünel, 2016), multilingual practices (Bonacina-Pugh, 2020), communicative repertoire (Rymes, 2016). Divergent and pluralistic as these terms are, the common ground among them is to legitimise all the forms and modalities of language use other than the target language – the L2. The fluid combination is conceptualised as pedagogical strategies for teaching communicative skills, multilingual awareness, social semiotics and critical literacy.

My research is contextualised in the *Bilingual Nation Policy* in Taiwan, in which the method 'to teach English in English in primary and secondary schools' is mandated. Given the analytical focus on how English teachers embody their professional identity and agency from their language code choices, namely Chinese and English, in classroom interactions, the term 'code-switching' is employed in my research. It aims to explore English teachers' code-switching behaviour on how teachers mediate macro-level LPP, meso-level institutional affordances and constraints, and their talk-in-interaction in the classrooms – an issue further complicated by the fact that in a technology-mediated classroom, the multi-layered pedagogical goals and interactional orientations make the L2 classroom a dynamic and reflexive research context to explore.

Based on Martin-Jones (1995), Lin (2013), and Üstünel (2016) reviews of classroom code-switching studies in the past three decades, I summarise four main approaches employed by bilingual/multilingual researchers: functional coding approach, interactional sociolinguistics, critical ethnography, and conversation analysis. The first is the functional coding approach, mainly inspired by Halliday's systemic functional linguistics (1994). Teachers' code-switching is considered a communicative resource to achieve the three functions:

(1) Ideational functions: to offer L1 translation, annotation, explanation, examples for students to access the L2-mediated content
(2) Textual functions: to signal conversational shifts or transitions between different classroom activities
(3) Interpersonal functions: to maintain teacher-student relationships and identities, evoke shared cultural values or institutional norms, and keep social distance or closeness

Researchers in this strand usually code classroom utterances by counting the L1 and L2 distribution frequency across different functional categories. For example, Du (2016) investigates the use of Chinese and English in Chinese university EFL classrooms by analysing the communicative functions of teachers' code-switching from English to Chinese. Teachers' code-switching patterns are identified by counting the frequency of code-switching sequences for each functional category. In addition, based on Halliday's metafunctions, G. Ferguson's (2003, p. 41) framework establishes three fine-grained functions of code-switching in language classrooms:

(1) Curriculum access: in providing access to English medium text and in scaffolding knowledge construction for pupils with limited English language resources
(2) Classroom management: to maintain classroom discipline, redirect students' attention and negotiate tasks with students
(3) Interpersonal relations: to attend to both teachers' and students' affective needs in the process of negotiating their identities

G. Ferguson's framework is helpful in that it provides a prototype for analysts further to investigate the link between pedagogical functions and code-switching. Nevertheless, the functional coding approach is often criticised for treating a priori categories as stable and flattened (Seedhouse, 2004; Walsh, 2006).

The second approach is interactional sociolinguistics. Teachers' code-switching is considered contextualisation cues (Gumperz, 1982) and footing changes (Goffman, 1981). According to Goffman (1981, p. 128, emphasis added):

> A change of *footing* implies a change in the alignment we take up to ourselves and to the others present as expressed in the way we manage the production or reception of an utterance. A change in our footing is another way of talking about a change in our frame for events.

To put it simply, footing refers to one's stance in a conversation. Footing is constantly negotiated and reshaped by the interlocutors along with contextualisation cues such as intonation variation and gaze directions. Classroom code-switching, a form of contextualisation cue, can evoke different role relationships and implicit identities. For example, Cahyani et al. (2018) examine teachers' code-switching patterns between English and Bahasa Indonesia. Drawing on interactional sociolinguistic concepts, it shows that teachers' shifting into Bahasa Indonesia reduces social distance with their students while shifting into English signals an increased formality.

The third approach is critical ethnography, mainly inspired by Canagarajah (1999), Hornberger (2002), and Martin-Jones (1995). Researchers in this strand combine interpretive ethnography and critical linguistics to examine the relationship between code-switching at the local level and linguistic ideologies at the structural level. Classroom code-switching is considered a discursive site for legitimation and marginalisation of L1-L2 hierarchies in the institutions. For example, Canagarajah (1999) examines how teachers and students manifest agency in the classrooms where the English-only policy is implemented. Both teachers and students negotiate their hybrid identities in the code-switching between Tamil and English. Canagarajah concludes (1999, p. 197; emphasis added):

> The simplest gestures of code-switching and linguistic appropriation in the pedagogical safe houses suggest the strategic ways by which discourses may be negotiated, intimating the resilient ability of human subjects *to creatively fashion a voice for themselves* from amidst the deafening channels of domination.

Canagarajah's view on classroom teachers and students as LPP agents to 'creatively fashion a voice for themselves' is echoed by Johnson (2013, p. 51), who argues that ethnographic understanding of classroom code-switching can help 'challenge linguistic imperialism and champion linguistic diversity in schools and society'.

The fourth is ethnomethodology and conversation analysis. Auer (1984) is one of the pioneers who adopted CA to analyse code-switching in bilingual conversation though his CA agenda for code-switching was not initially designed for L2 classroom research. Auer argues that code-switching must be investigated in the sequential development of interaction. Auer combines Gumperz's notion of contextualisation cues and the CA approach and demonstrates that the meaning of code-switching is jointly constructed by participants, not by a priori theory nor by analysts' presumptions and generalisation. In other words, it is '*members* procedures to arrive at local interpretations' (Auer, 1984, p. 3, emphasis in original). In a similar line of inquiry, Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005) explore the relationship between pedagogical goals and classroom code-switching in a Turkish university. To answer 'why that, in that way, right now?', their study identifies two types of code-switching emerging in the L2 classroom: teacher-initiated and teacher-induced code-switching. They point out that classroom code-switching orderly evolves along with the pedagogical foci and sequences. Both teachers and students display their alignment or misalignment with the pedagogical goals through the language choices.

In my research, English teachers' code-switching is considered a vital dimension not only because it manifests how teachers appropriate, negotiate and implement the LPP in classrooms (McCarty, 2015), but, of equal importance, code-switching is 'a complexly agentive phenomenon that can be used as a resource to express multiple and shifting identities' (Hall & Nilep, 2015, p. 608). As an available resource in the L2 classrooms, code-switching can enable both teachers and students to negotiate and embody different forms of footings, attitudes, agency, and identities. To uncover the functions and local rationality of code-switching in the L2 classroom, I will draw on insights from different approaches (i.e., functional coding approach, interactional sociolinguistics, critical ethnography, and conversation analysis) to better understand the relationship between language teacher identity and agency and L2 classroom discourse.

As discussed in Section 3.3.1, I adopt the term code-switching to refer to teacher L1 use in multilingual classrooms. To justify Ferguson's code-switching framework adopted in this thesis, I make a brief review of relevant frameworks since 1990s to examine the functions of code-switching in language classrooms (see Table 3.1). As can be seen in the table, the functional categories of pedagogic code-switching can be broadly summarised as follows:

- To construct and transmit students' content and linguistic knowledge
- To manage students' behaviour and operate classroom equipment
- To humanise classroom climate and negotiate teacher and student identities

Table 3.1 Studies of functional categories of pedagogic code-switching

Author	Context	Functional categories
Canagarajah (1995)	ESL classrooms in Sri Lanka	• Content transmission • Classroom management
Ferguson (2003)	Literature review of studies of classroom code-switching in post-colonial settings	• Curriculum access • Classroom management • Interpersonal relations
Lin (2006)	A bilingual science classroom in Hong Kong	• To humanise the classroom atmosphere • To build students' content and linguistic knowledge
Lo (2015)	CLIL classrooms in Hong Kong	• Pedagogical functions: Content transmission • Pedagogical functions: Classroom management • Social or affective functions
Cahyani et al. (2016)	An EMI programme at a tertiary level in Indonesia	• Knowledge construction • Classroom management • Interpersonal relations • Personal or affective meanings
Sahan & Rose (2021)	EMI engineering Programmes in Turkey	• Content transmission • Classroom management • Social or affective functions • Other

Therefore, I adopted Ferguson's (2003, p.39) framework, whose analytical focus is to investigate classroom code-switching in the following aspects: (1) curriculum access, (2) classroom management, and (3) interpersonal relations. On the one hand, this framework can be viewed as a pedagogical application of Halliday's functional view of language (i.e., ideational, textual, and interpersonal meta-functions). On the other hand, this framework succinctly captures the functional categories of pedagogic code-switching identified in the relevant studies (as summarised in Table 7.1). It is worth noting that I did not employ time-sampling techniques to analyse the code-switching behaviour at a specific point in time (e.g. Macaro et al., 2020). To capture the fluidity of teachers' language choices, the code-switching data was analysed at both the intrasentential and intersentential levels.

3.3.3 Multimodal perspectives of L2 classroom discourse

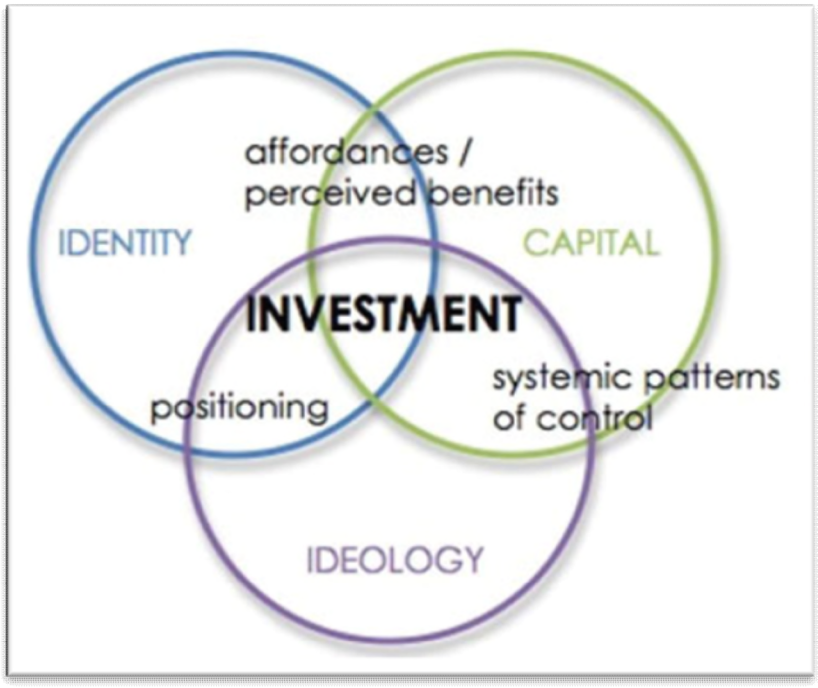


Figure 3.5 Model of identity and investment (Darvin & Norton, 2015, p. 42)

To respond to the new world order propelled by globalisation and technology advancement, Darvin and Norton (2015) propose an alternative model of identity and investment in the ELT field (see this chapter, section 3.1.2). Their new model (Figure 3.5) highlights digital multimodal affordances as a new form of cultural capital. Language teachers and learners navigate between online and offline spaces and deploy their linguistic and semiotic repertoires to perform multiple identities agentively. At the same time, Darvin and Norton (2015, 2017, 2021) acknowledge that inequality brings constraints and affordances that teachers and learners need to negotiate their resources to invest in their learning and identities. In what follows, I will discuss the term multimodality and then review several studies relating to multimodality and identity construction.

Kress and van Leeuwen (2001, p. 20) define *multimodality* as 'the use of several semiotic modes in the design of a semiotic product or event'. The definition stresses that meaning-making is mediated through various semiotic resources and that linguistic mode is not necessarily the first and foremost priority for discourse analysis (Kress, 2012). Inspired by Halliday's social semiotic theory of communication, multimodal discourse analysis expands the concept of social semiotics to incorporate all modes as sets of meaning-making resources. This concept of social semiotic foregrounds the agency of the social actor, treating the choice of mode as 'constantly transformed by their users in response to the communicative needs of communities, institutions, and societies: new modes are created, and existing modes are transformed' (Jewitt, 2014, p. 23). The advancement of digital technology affords complex modes, including gaze, gesture, posture, movement, artefacts, sound, text and image, to be involved in communication. In pedagogical terms, this implies that both teachers and students are required to have multimodal digital literacy to respond to the communicative needs of societies and institutions. In this multimodal space, teachers reconfigure their agency and identity in the classroom via their choice of various modes.

In her book *Technology, Literacy and Learning*, Jewitt (2006) employs multimodal analysis to investigate technology-mediated learning in secondary English classrooms. Though this research was conducted fifteen years ago, the insights are still relevant to the current discussion on multimodal classroom interaction. First, the research indicates a tension between what educational and assessment policies promoted and how classroom teachers designed their multimodal teaching. On the one hand, governments implemented technology-related policies hoping that technology could transform education. However, both summative and formative assessments still overemphasised the mode of language, specifically the written mode. Despite that the new definition of *literacy* had been widely embraced, namely the capacity to shuttle among multiple modes swiftly to communicate, students' multimodal literacies were reduced to the results of written assessment. Second, technology could re-establish the pedagogical roles and relations in the classroom as well as reshape the agency and intersubjectivity of teachers and students. In the instances of how teachers and students resisted and engaged in the positions assigned to them, Jewitt (2006) demonstrates that the technological affordances accompanying the pressures on teachers, such as the imposition of the testing system and students' attainment, 'serve to reconfigure and *ebb away* at the role of the teacher' (Jewitt, 2006, p. 163, emphasis in original). Her book concludes with a call to re-agent the teachers as multimodal teaching designers in their own teaching contexts to counterbalance the utopian discourse of educational technology.

Stranger–Johannessen and Norton (2017) adopt the model of identity and investment (Darvin & Norton, 2015) to investigate Ugandan primary school teachers' multilingual and multimodal literacy. Based on the assumption that the promotion of learner investment is usually combined with shifts in teacher identities, their study reveals that both learners' and teachers' imagined futures are the fundamental sources of investment. The affordances of digital technology, specifically digital literacy gained from CPD activities, enhance teachers' perceptions of professional agency and hopes for the future. Their case study of a group of English teachers investing in digital-related training provides insights on teachers' investment and its connection to identity, capital and ideology. The teachers consider their investment in digital literacy a worthwhile enterprise because their digital expertise could serve as valuable resources for their large classrooms. Furthermore, when teachers bring their bilingual cultural resources into their digital pedagogy, they position themselves as knowledgeable teachers with multilingual and multimodal literacy. On the other hand, Stranger–Johannessen and Norton (2017) also point out that in a challenging context where infrastructure and educational resources are relatively limited, teachers have to negotiate clashing ideologies related to LPP implementation, testing system and teacher evaluation. These challenges provide opportunities for teachers to exercise their professional agency.

3.3.4 Summary

As can be seen in this section, L2 classroom discourse research has gone beyond the scope of the target language and striven to incorporate classroom participants' multilingual and multimodal literacies. L2 classroom discourse research sheds light on how teachers and students make sense of a range of modes and co-construct knowledge through code-switching, text, image, intonation, gaze, and body posture. In this thesis, teachers' code-switching and digital literacy are considered affordances and resources to support them to live in a changing time when bilingualism and digital pedagogy policies are enacted in the curriculum. One of my research aims is to investigate English teachers' investment in their multilingual and multimodal identities and how institutional roles and relationships are shifted in relation to broader LPP discourse.

3.4 Chapter summary: A multi-perspectival approach

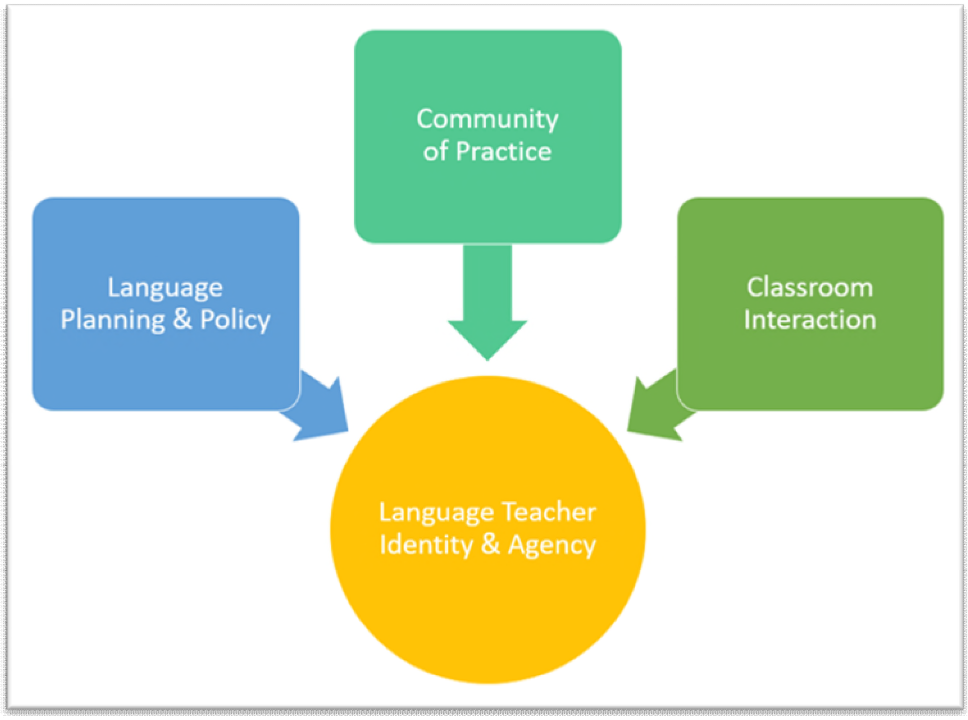


Figure 3.6 Conceptualisation framework of language teacher identity and agency

The complexity which characterises language teacher identity and agency as a research focus makes it difficult to adopt one single theoretical and/or methodological framework. In this chapter, I have discussed three analytical themes weaving throughout the theoretical foundation for this thesis and underpinned my view of how macro, meso, and micro perspectives construct language teacher identity and agency. The macro perspective adopted in Section 3.2 facilitates understanding of the interaction between structure and agency in the LPP process. The meso perspective adopted in Section 3.1 aims to understand how language teacher identity and agency is afforded and constrained in the institutions and communities, namely language teacher education programmes and CPD activities. Finally, the micro perspective in Section 3.3 seeks to understand the reflexive interplay between language teacher identity and agency and their employment of multimodal and multilingual resources in L2 classroom discourse. As discussed in the previous sections, it is commonly acknowledged that language teacher identity and agency are both multi-layered constructs and that micro-macro distinction relatively depends on the actors involved within particular contexts. Instead of adhering to a specific theory or method to research the fluidity of this phenomenon, it is, therefore, reasonable to integrate multi-perspectival approaches to a broader grasp of language teacher identity and agency. Figure 3.6 illustrates a set of perspectives chosen for the current research. This conceptualisation framework offers a multi-faceted view of language teacher identity and agency construction.

Drawing on what I have reviewed from selected sources, in what follows, I will summarise two key concepts and provide operational definitions adopted in this thesis to locate my research in the ongoing discussion about language teacher identity and agency in the field. First, language teacher identity (LTI) is operationally defined as the way language teachers understand, narrate, and enact their professional selves and the way they position themselves in relation to policy discourse and classroom discourse. Based on Harré and van Langenhove (1999), Harré (2012), and Kayi-Aydar (2015, 2019b), I propose *positional identity* as language teachers' discursive positioning themselves in relation to policy contexts, key stakeholders, community engagement, and classroom interaction. The construction of positional identity involves teachers' constant negotiation among various conflicting beliefs, emotions, and ideologies. Secondly, following Norton (2013), Norton and Toohey (2011) and Darvin and Norton (2015, 2017, 2021), I define *invested identity* as language teachers' investment in professional knowledge construction, community of practice, classroom interactional competence, and multimodal literacy to increase their professional capital and therefore consolidate their identity as a competent language teacher. Thirdly, language teacher agency (LTA) is considered the exercise of language teachers' professional decision-making in their own contexts. It is exercised by language teachers in multiple forms in multiple contexts. Built on Biesta and Tedder (2007), Choi (2019), Emirbayer and Mische (1998), Johnson (2013), and Priestley et al. (2015), I operationally define *language teacher agency* as:

(1) teachers' creative appropriation and instantiation of structural resources and constraints into their pursuit of professional aspirations. Structural resources are the affordances provided by LPP discourse and implementation.
(2) teachers' achievement constituted in their daily narrative, community support, past experience, present adaptation, and future vision.
(3) teachers' flexible employment of discursive strategies and multimodal resources available in the classroom, including negotiating the tasks with students, using digital technology, and resorting to students' L1, to fulfil their pedagogical goals and respond to LPP discourse.

Based on my research focus and analytical motivation, three research questions are formulated as follows:

(1) How are English teachers positioned by the educational language policy texts and what are the potential consequences for teacher agency of such positionings?
(2) How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their accounts of multilingual and multimodal teaching experiences?
(3) How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their multilingual and multimodal classroom practices?

It is hoped that the multiple perspectives integrated into this thesis will yield a multi-faceted understanding of Taiwanese English language teachers' identity and agency in multilingual and multimodal times.

4 Chapter Four: Methodology

The question of 'how can I manage, develop, and exhibit the quality of my qualitative research?' (Flick, 2018a) has always been a critical touchstone in my PhD research journey. Qualitative research does not principally refer to the traditional criteria for quantitative research (i.e., reliability, validity and objectivity). It 'should be assessed on its own terms' (Spencer et al., 2003, p. 4) because it encompasses 'divergent theoretical, methodological and value assumptions' (Hammersley, 2007, p. 6). Though it is challenging to have one-size-fits-all criteria for qualitative research, various guidelines for evaluating qualitative research have been proposed, covering the aspects from authenticity, plausibility, criticality (Golden-Biddle & Locke, 1993), clarification, justification, research process, interpretation, reflexivity, and transparency (Twining et al., 2017). With these guidelines for the quality of qualitative research in mind, I aim to account for the rationale of the methodological choices for this study. This chapter will first present the paradigmatic position of this thesis, introduce the research design, describe my fieldwork process, and discuss data collection and analysis methods. This chapter will conclude with a discussion of the ethical considerations of this research project.

4.1 Paradigmatic position

A good researcher should cultivate their paradigmatic awareness because this is not merely an intellectual duty but also prevents researchers from making methodological mistakes (Richards, 2003). One of the reasons to choose qualitative methodology is that it is a 'person-centred enterprise and therefore particularly appropriate to our work in the field of language teaching' (Richards, 2003, p. 9). Qualitative research is concerned with the dynamic and complex phenomena embedded in social contexts. Therefore, qualitative researchers are expected to identify patterns 'located in the subjective interpretation of data' (Levitt, 2015). In other words, it is the subjective interpretation that constitutes the answers qualitative researchers strive to seek. The quintessence of qualitative research lies in that researchers should be aware of the ontological and epistemological stances of the interpretative methods they use in the data collection and analysis process. There should be consistency among paradigmatic underpinnings, research questions, research design, data collection and analysis methods (Twining et al., 2017).

Considering my research focus and analytical needs, I adopted linguistic ethnography as the methodological framework in its openness to 'a wide variety of discourse analytic traditions in its combination with ethnography' (Copland & Creese, 2015, p. 43). I could gather ethnographic information about my participants' daily lives through interviews, observations, and document analysis while delving deeper into the interactional patterns from a micro-analysis, moment-by-moment viewpoint. To appropriately conceive linguistic ethnography as a methodological framework, I shall now turn to the discussion of its ontological and epistemological foundations.

Ontologically, linguistic ethnography is a synergy of linguistics and ethnography with the assumptions that (1) language and social life reciprocally shape each other, and (2) spatial setting, non-verbal behaviour, cultural artefacts and shared values co-construct the reality where social practices are situated (Goodwin & Duranti, 1992). To understand human realities, linguistic ethnographers put language—the most ubiquitous human social behaviour—at the centre of analysis, with a shift from 'social activities create talks' to 'talks also shape social activities'. Beyond the dichotomy of micro/macro or emic/etic, linguistic ethnography strives to use background information to locally interpret the sequential organisation of participants' social behaviour.

Epistemologically, linguistic ethnography provides a reflexive perspective to conceptualise the relationship between the knower and the known. Classic ethnography has issues as follows: (1) there are epistemic tensions between participants' and analysts' perspectives on knowledge construction, (2) it takes a great deal of time for outsiders to cultivate reflexive sensitivity to comprehend the situated knowledge (Rampton, 2007). On the other hand, pure linguistic approaches (e.g., conversation analysis) are often criticised for their failure to recognise that micro interactional processes are intricately interwoven into macro-social structures (Tusting & Maybin, 2007). To deal with these challenges, Rampton (2007, p. 596) suggests two principles for linguistic ethnography methodology:

(1) *Linguistics ties ethnography down*: to push cultural description towards the analysis of clearly delimitable processes, increasing the amount of reported data that is open to falsification.

(2) *Ethnography opens linguistics up*: to invite reflexive sensitivity to the processes involved in the production of linguistic claims and to the potential importance of what gets left out.

Therefore, I operationalised the methodological strengths of the two approaches to interrogate the intersection of ethnographic and structural views on language teacher identity and agency. The methodological pluralism and heteroglossia (Lin, 2015; Snell et al., 2015) adopted in this research will be further discussed in Section 4.5.

4.2 Research design

The above-discussed paradigmatic stance, relevant theories and empirical studies discussed in the literature review, and research questions lead to the overall research design, as shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Research design

Policy, Position, and Practice: A linguistic ethnography study of Taiwanese English language teacher identity and agency in multilingual and multimodal times		
Research questions	Data source	Analytical tools
1. How are English teachers positioned by the educational language policy texts and what are the potential consequences for teacher agency of such positionings?	1. Policy documents 2. Fieldnotes	1. Thematic analysis 2. Positioning analysis
2. How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their accounts of multilingual and multimodal teaching experiences?	1. Ethnographic interviews 2. Reflective posts	1. Thematic analysis 2. Positioning analysis
3. How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their multilingual and multimodal classroom practices?	1. Observation 2. Video-recordings 3. Fieldnotes	1. Conversation analysis 2. Multimodal analysis 3. Positioning analysis

4.3 Fieldwork process

This study was designed as a qualitative study with the focus of exploring English language teachers' identity and agency in Taiwanese high schools and investigating English teachers' positionings in relation to language policy and educational technology. Given the aim of the research, four participant teachers were recruited. This section will present my fieldwork process, including sampling participant teachers, piloting, and relations with participants.

4.3.1 Sampling participant teachers

Denzin and Lincoln (2000) have suggested that the concepts of 'generalisation' or 'representativeness' for statistical sampling is not paradigmatically appropriate in qualitative sampling processes. In a similar vein, Dörnyei (2011, p. 89) puts it,

> though we cannot generalise such signature dynamics from one situation to another – or even from one time phase of a situation to the next – the identified patterns are fundamental enough to be useful in understanding the dynamics of a range of other situations.

Therefore, in terms of sampling, the critical concern for qualitative researchers is to offer thick descriptions of the contextual information for readers to evaluate the similarities and differences between various contexts and decide whether to apply the findings to other contexts (Schreier, 2018). Among different sampling strategies in the methodological literature, I adopted purposive sampling to investigate English teachers' identity and agency in multilingual and multimodal times. The advantage of purposive sampling lies in its capacity of selecting heterogeneous cases to generate rich data to address research questions (Patton, 2015).

Before entering the field, I planned to invite two teachers I had known to be my research participants. However, both of them were not available because of job relocation. Luckily, they introduced other teachers who could be suitable for my research. From the pool of potential teachers, I contacted them, obtained access, observed their classes, conducted semi-structured interviews, and gained approval to record their classes.

In my fieldwork, I selected four teachers who had tried digital teaching. The four teachers were selected because of their willingness to participate in my research project and their differing contextual conditions (e.g., the resources provided by the institutions, teachers' experience, motivation and perceptions of using technology in classrooms). Further details of their professional background will be provided in Chapter 6.

4.3.2 Piloting

Gass and Mackey (2008, 2017) have reminded researchers of the importance of pilot testing. Piloting can:

> reveal subtle flaws in the design or implementation of the study—flaws that may not be readily apparent in the plan itself, but that could otherwise prove costly and time-consuming, perhaps even leading to the loss of valuable and irreplaceable data (Gass & Mackey, 2008, p.3)

Therefore, before entering the field, I had planned a piloting scheme with the purpose to

(1) refine my research questions
(2) practice my interview skills, identify the difficulties, and propose the solutions
(3) operate different mechanical devices skilfully
(4) develop the form for my observational notes
(5) develop my observation/interview protocols
(6) be aware of the pros and cons of each intended research method

Later, I realised that this kind of one-off piloting did not fit my ethnography-informed research. The assumption of piloting is that it could help researchers examine the reliability, validity, plausibility, and practicality of the overall research design. By conducting pilot studies, researchers could spot unanticipated problems in the tentative plan and refine accordingly in the following main study. However, I found that there were always unexpected problems in the fieldwork, no matter how well-prepared I was. For me, each interview and classroom observation was considered the only one of its kind and a form of pilot testing for the subsequent ones. When I adopted a reflexive and iterative practice to collect the data, I learned that in each encounter, there was always room to improve my interpersonal and interview skills, refine my research focus, and optimise what I could do better in the future. For example, I had a successful negotiation for observation access with Case 1 teacher, Ruth, but failed to gain access with the second potential teacher. I wrote my reflection on this unsuccessful access and amended my protocol accordingly. My reflection goes like this:

> remember to send the teacher a Thank-you message right after the initial interview and observation. They feel you appreciate their help and are willing to be recorded in the following classes.
>
> (Research diary, 2018.10.29)

As a reflexive ethnographer, I think what matters is not how to conduct my pilot testing but how to keep track of my ongoing improvement along the research journey.

4.3.3 Relations with participants

One recent teacher professional movement characteristic in Taiwan is that teachers are encouraged to open their classes for peer observation. The *108 Curriculum* stipulates that every teacher should hold an open class observation at least once in one academic year for their professional development (Taiwan MOE, 2014). In this context, I obtained access to the classrooms without difficulties. Since peer observation is a common practice in Taiwan (Liu, 2017), I did not gain access via institutional staff. Instead, I contacted my participant teachers personally on Facebook to avoid the impression that I was sent to spy on the teachers' classes. I introduced myself as a junior high school English teacher, and I could relate to their everyday teaching efforts. I also told them this was a government-funded research project, and it would be great if they could participate in this study to make English teaching and learning better in Taiwan.

As an introvert in the field, I found it was difficult to network with teachers I did not know. To maximise my chance to recruit desired participant teachers, I also read articles on LinkedIn (a professional online networking platform) about networking strategies for introverts. In the process, I learned that if I knew how to tap into the quality of being an introvert, introversion could help me manage better relationships with the teachers. For example, my attentiveness to people's needs and concerns made me an unobtrusive observer in class as well as a good listener when teachers expressed their emotions. Thanks to Facebook, I could maintain the relationship with my participant teachers after leaving the field. Besides writing New Year wishes to them every year, I also wrote a concise report about my research findings and discussion after completing my thesis draft.

4.4 Data collection

Data collection is 'the moves toward data for catching meaning or representations' (Flick, 2018b, p. 6). The process of collecting data with care and reflexivity is the demonstration of their credibility and trustworthiness (Twining et al., 2017). How to acquire sufficient and relevant data to achieve the research aims is something that constantly perplexes novice researchers who conduct their qualitative research (Baker & Edwards, 2012). In this thesis, interviews, classroom video recordings, and documents were the main research instruments, while the research diary and field notes were supplementary sources to provide multiple perspectives on the qualitative data. Table 4.2 below outlines the configuration of the overall data set. As can be seen, there was a preliminary interview with each case teacher before class observation and recording. The number of class observations ranges from 8 classes to 12 classes.

Table 4.2 Data configuration

Number		Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4
Location		**Taipei City Ruth**	**Tinan City Sherry**	**Changhua County Cari**	**Taipei City Wan-wen**
1	**Preliminary meeting**	2018.10.24 Class observation (50 min)	2018.10.24 Class observation (50 min)	2018.12.14 Interview (60 min)	2018.11.29 Interview (60 min)
		2018.10.24 Interview (40 min)	2018.10.24 Interview (40 min)		
2	**Observation & recording**	2018.10.29~ 2018.11.02 12 classes (600 min)	2018.10.29~ 2018.11.02 12 classes (600 min)	2018.12.18~ 2018.12.24 11 classes (550 min)	2018.12.19~ 2019.01.02 8 classes (400 min)
3	**Others**	- Informal chats - Social media posts - Teaching materials - Fieldnotes - Policy documents			

Before entering the field, I originally planned to adopt stimulated recall interviews (Gass & Mackey, 2017) to investigate teachers' classroom discourse. Nevertheless, in my fieldwork, I found it was challenging to arrange a specific time and place to conduct such interviews. Therefore, I strategically integrated the principles of stimulated recall interviews (i.e., tracking the 'there and then' thinking in the tasks a participant had done) into my informal chats with the teachers after classes. Here is what I did:

(1) During observation: I wrote down critical incidents on my fieldwork notes and put a question next to the incident that intrigued me.

(2) After class: I usually had around 10 minutes to talk with the teachers, so I would take the time to ask the questions raised in the observation.

(3) After the visit: I would find a nearby café and jot down the content of informal chats.

In what follows, I will present four data collection methods employed in this thesis: (1) interview, (2) class observation and field notes, (3) document, and (4) research diary.

4.4.1 Interview

Interviews conducted in this research can be categorised into semi-structured and ethnographic interviews. Unlike traditional ethnographers who favour informal, conversational interviews, linguistic ethnographers are more open to using structured and semi-structured interviews, given the limited time and access to conduct informal interviews and the operational definitions in their research questions (Copland & Creese, 2015). Spradley explicates the importance of ethnographic interviews in fieldwork (1979; cited in Mann, 2016, p. 114):

> Ethnographic interviewing involves two distinct, but complementary processes developing rapport and eliciting information. Rapport encourages informants to talk about their culture. Eliciting information fosters the development of rapport.

This implies that the two core missions for researchers collecting data in their fieldwork are: (1) to manage their relations with participants and (2) to develop their interview skills. To this end, there are some methodological issues to be addressed.

- First, researchers' constant sensitivity and reflection are essential for building a relationship in the field. Richards (2003, pp. 120-129) shares practical suggestions for qualitative researchers to consider how to establish positive relationships before, during and after their fieldwork. The process also involves many ethical considerations, which I will discuss in Section 3.6.
- Second, researchers should be conscious of the linguistic and pragmatic aspects in the data elicitation process. I was aware that the decisions I made in the fieldwork would have implications for participants' perceptions and answers, such as 'to interview in the L1 or L2', or 'to ask questions in the form of direct questions or reported ones' (Canh & Maley, 2012). Mann (2016, pp. 122-132) offers a helpful summary of various interview techniques, including types of questions, moves and sequences of questions, and non-verbal gestures and backchanneling.
- Third, an interview is not merely a neutral, objective and straightforward tool for data elicitation. It is also a dialogic process unfolded through negotiation and collaboration between the interviewee and interviewer (Talmy & Richards, 2011). Talmy (2011) contrasts two opposing theoretical standpoints of interviews. One is 'interview as research instrument', and the other is 'interview as social practice'. The two different perspectives yield different interpretations of interview data.

I conducted pre-observation interviews, aiming to establish an initial relationship with my research participants and better understand the background of the teachers and students. The interviews were taken in a semi-structural way for around one hour, and the data was collected via a voice recorder. The detailed interview questions will be presented in Chapter 6.

Besides the semi-structured interviews, I also had many informal chats with my teacher participants before and after my class observations. Due to my positive interactions with them, teachers gradually became willing to share more with me. The topics ranged from lesson plans, teaching reflection, class anecdotes, and emotional remarks. The informal chats were treated as a form of ethnographic interviews in the sense that they served as interpersonal rapport as well as an information-eliciting device (Mann, 2016). Because of its spontaneity, I usually used Google Voice to take spoken notes after the informal chats.

4.4.2 Class observation and fieldnotes

To work on my RQ3: *How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their multilingual and multimodal classroom practices?* I conducted class observation with fieldnotes and set up a camera in the back of the classroom to record the classroom interactions. To minimise the impact of the observer's paradox, I was aware of the camera's position, the way fieldnotes were taken, and how much research information should be disclosed to teachers and students (Gass & Mackey, 2008; Richards, 2003). The second issue is the observer's bias. Ethnographic fieldnotes involve description, interpretation and evaluation (Copland & Creese, 2015). Hence, field notes were taken concurrently, iteratively, and reflexively to allow me to interrogate my bias and presuppositions (Twining et al., 2017).

At the beginning of my fieldwork, I did not know what to observe. After reading Delamont's (2016) suggestions, I designed a template for my class observations (see Table 4.3 and Picture 4.1). The left-hand column is for factual classroom observations. Here I recorded the classroom environment and settings. I took this column as rough sketches of the classroom interactions. I usually jotted down teaching procedures and interesting incidents. When I came back with recorded classroom videos, these notes reminded me of the atmosphere I experienced in the specific setting. The right column is for my tentative interpretation. Specifically, there are five subcategories in the right column.

(1) The first set is *conflict* ←→ *logic*. It helped me find out if there was consistency or discrepancy in classroom interactions. For example, in Sherry's class, there was an interesting conflict between teacher's and students' perceptions about technology integrated into language learning. The conflict was embodied vividly in the T-S interaction. Contrary to popular belief that students are more likely to be engaged and motivated to use technology in learning (Dudeney et al., 2013), in this case, it is the other way around—the teacher was the most motivated one to use technology, whereas her students were indifferent to teacher's effort.

(2) The second set is *puzzle* ←→ *insight*. I noted down something I was curious about or wanted to highlight so that I could ask the teacher later, either in spontaneous conversations or follow-up interviews. For example, in Ruth's class, I observed that

students constantly used Google Translate when they took on the given tasks. I wondered about the teacher's opinion about translation software and online dictionaries. Given that there were so many fleeting moments to process, I found this technique useful to retain my spontaneous puzzles.

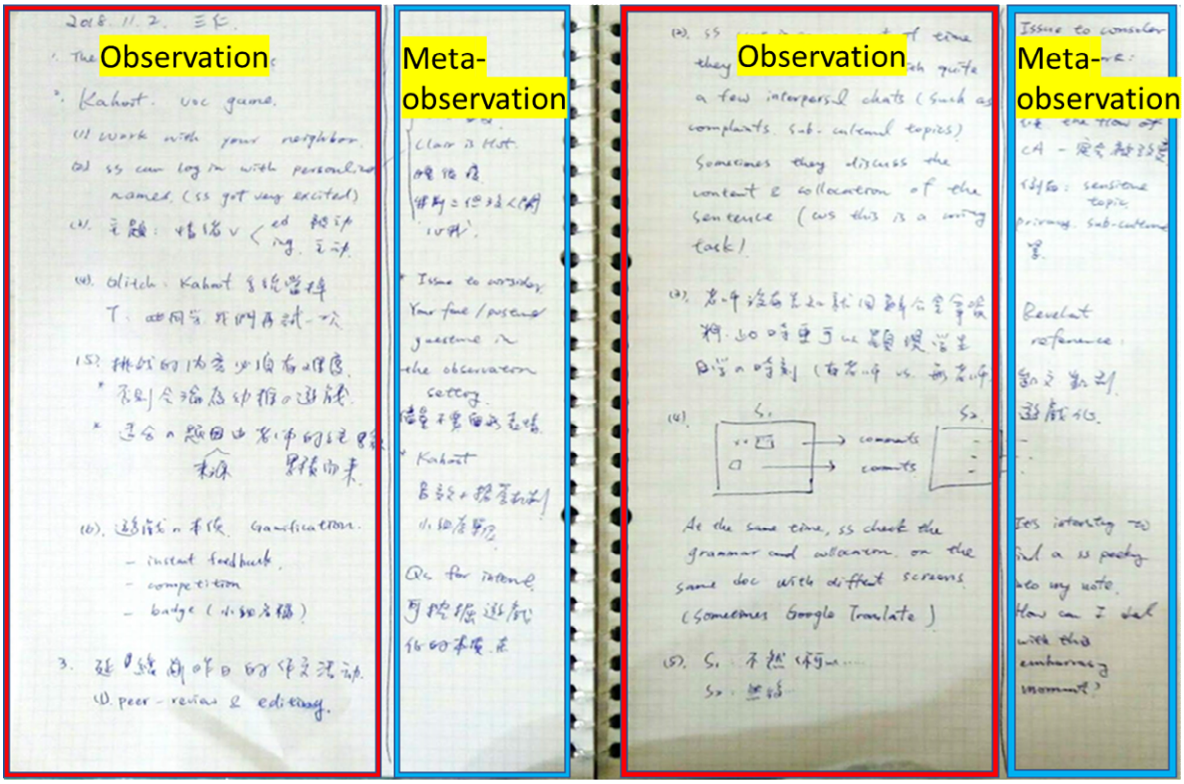
(3) The third set is *negative* ←→ *positive*. Here, I jotted down my subjective judgements about teachers' code-switching behaviours and the employment of technology in class.

(4) The fourth set is *micro* ←→ *macro*. At the micro level, I noted how teachers designed lesson plans to integrate technology and how students responded to the tasks; at the macro level, I tried to put the teaching reality into a broader context (i.e., local institution and MOE policy) to interpret the classroom interactions. For example, digital literacy and learner autonomy are promoted in the *108 Curriculum.* However, my participant teachers expressed that they were still trying to figure out how to translate the policy into practice. There was a lack of concerted support from the institutional administration and governments.

(5) The last set is questions for follow-up informal chats. I usually prepared two or three follow-up questions so that right after the class, I could chat with the teachers spontaneously and curiously.

Table 4.3 Template for fieldwork observations

Observation	**Meta-observation**
• Environment and setting • Atmosphere • T-Ss interaction & S-S interaction • Teaching procedures • Interesting incidents	• Conflict ←→ Logic • Puzzle ←→ Insight • Negative ←→ Positive • Micro ←→ Macro • Questions for follow-up informal chats



Picture 4.1 Sample of fieldnotes

4.4.3 Document

In this thesis, document analysis consists of (1) educational language policy documents (Taiwan MOE, 2014, 2018a, 2018b; National Development Council, 2018), which informed me of the core values promoted in the *108 Curriculum* and *Bilingual Nation Policy*, (2) four participant teachers' teaching materials and handouts, which served as supplementary data for me to interpret classroom interactions, (3) teachers' social media posts, which provided a fuller representation of teachers' identity and agency construction. Specifically, (3) refers to teachers' public reflective posts and products on social media (i.e., Facebook, Blog, and YouTube). Initially, this type of document was not considered in my data collection scheme. However, as I grew to know better my teacher participants, I found they were all quite active on social media, sharing their lesson plans, teaching reflection, and teaching resources in the online communities. Given that the online and offline worlds are so intertwined for contemporary social actors, it is argued that 'the Internet is a research site where one can ground findings about reality' (Rogers, 2010, p. 243). In addition, 'multi-sited ethnography'

(Marcus, 1995) proposes that researchers keep track of participants' behaviour across various spaces and times. From the perspective of data triangulation, the online documents helped me contrast teachers' self-representation in public online spaces, teachers' narratives in the interviews, and teachers' actual teaching practice in class.

4.4.4 Research diary

As Delamont (2016, p. 64) puts it, 'research diary is the best place to rehearse the necessary reflexivities', research diary is recommended by many experienced qualitative researchers. Mann (2016, p. 17) provides a helpful summary of how to conduct qualitative research with a reflexive focus, including

(1) Standing outside and reflecting
(2) Ongoing and evolving awareness
(3) Understanding the impact of identities and interpersonal relationships in the field
(4) Understanding 'self' in relation to knowledge
(5) Interrogating representation
(6) Observing our feelings and positionality
(7) Questioning interpretations

In addition, Mann (2016, p. x) points out that to avoid the pitfall of paying lip service, qualitative researchers should demonstrate how they engage with their choices throughout the research process. In other words, reflexivity should be evidence-based. Built on Mann's (2016) suggestions, I designed a template to track my reflexivity trajectory as a qualitative researcher (Table 4.4 and Picture 4.2). In the left-hand column, my reflection is organised as follows:

(1) *Facts: What have you done today?*
This included my reading list and logistic arrangements in the fieldwork.

(2) *Problems: What problems/difficulties did you encounter?*
This column recorded a myriad of puzzles that I had never anticipated during the data collection period.

(3) *Emotions: How did you feel?*

Derived from the problems I encountered, this part dealt with my personal feelings involved in the process.

(4) *Assumptions: What is your previous assumption about the behaviour, problem, or difficulties?*

This part delved into the assumptions previously identified in (2) *Problems* and (3) *Emotions*. Assumptions could be conceptualised as different entities in different schools of thought. In my research diary, *assumption* is simply defined as taken-for-grantedness and unconscious familiarity. In self-examining my assumptions, I realised why it is often emphasised that the researcher is her own best data-collection instrument (Wa-Mbaleka, 2019). It is the reflexivity that guides qualitative researchers to move forward bit by bit.

(5) *Decisions: How can you improve in the future? (insights from peers, mentor, reading and self).*

After clarifying my problems, emotions, and assumptions, *Decisions* served to guide my future improvement and actions.

(6) *To-do list: Tasks for tomorrow.*

Table 4.4 Template for reflexive diary

Template for reflective diary		**Memo in fieldwork**
Facts	What have you done today?	
Problems	What problems / difficulties did you encounter?	
Emotions	How did you feel?	
Assumptions	What is your previous assumption about the behaviour / problem / difficulties?	
Decisions	How can you improve in the future? (Insights from peers, mentor, reading and self)	
To-do	Tasks for tomorrow	

In the right-hand column, I kept all the detailed information, such as my Facebook exchanges with participant teachers, the initial access negotiations, a list of semi-structured interview questions, a checklist for fieldwork (before/during/after), my puzzles and decision-making process, and my reading notes. In retrospect, I think this technique had assisted me to stay reflexive. The daily reflection process made me focus on my research aim and do the most relevant tasks when collecting data in the fieldwork.

Later at the data analysis stage, I continued using this template to record my analytic memos, including the procedural decisions I made during the analysis process. This template also served as a mechanism for my reflexive bracketing (Mann, 2016) to maintain a certain distance between the data and my own pre-existing beliefs and value systems.

Date	20181003, Wed
Facts	1. Read: Fieldwork in educational settings (Delamont 2016) 2. Read: PhD, an uncommon guide to research, writing and PhD life (Hayton 2015)
Problems	I don't know how to modify my RQs.
Emotions	Is this a viable research? Im afraid that I cannot collect the data I want. Even though I read the book by Delamont which provides many useful tips, I still cannot help thinking negatively about my research. And I don't know why everyone says that data-collection phase is the most enjoyable process of their research...I don't see the point.
Assumptions	My false assumption is that I can stick to the predetermined plan and get the results I want. But as Hayton says (2015:60) 'Research is a process of trial and error and of solving unexpected problems as they arise', I should modify my perception about data-collection process.
Decisions	I know it takes time for me to overcome the emotional block, but I believe I can make it in the end. Remember: if you feel uncomfortable and stressed, it means you are stepping out of your comfort zone.
To-do list	1. Data collection protocol 2. Summarise 'Fieldwork in educational setting' 3. Read: Amy Tsui's articles about expert teachers 4. Learn how to use MAXQDA

Issue to consider in pilot study

1. what interaction? T-Ss / S-S / or Both
2. what context? FTF / virtual / Online-Offline
why school? If students can learn at home online, then the only purpose of going to school lies in that the FTF interactions btw ss and T-Ss has something that tg cannot replace with.

3. what's the role of technology? Medium / assistant / replacement?

4. What's the permenant concern of teaching and learning?
From Socrates to machine teachers, the principles lies in "interaction"

5. Are there any limitations to viewing learning as observable behaviour?
Consider the framework "deliberate practice" to reconcile behaviorsim and cognitivism

Picture 4.2 Sample of reflexive diary

4.5 Data analysis

Data analysis is 'the process through which interpretations and inferences are made which might include the development of a theory, explanation, or model' (Twining et al., 2017, p. 6). Data analysis is often a 'back-and-forth' process (Mann, 2016, p. 211), generally including familiarising and transcribing data, approaching data via an analytic lens, coding and categorising data, reflecting and reviewing candidate themes, identifying patterns across data sets, formulating conceptual/theoretical models, and writing up (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Gobo, 2018; Mann, 2016; Richards, 2003; Saldaña, 2013). This section will mainly discuss the theoretical and methodological issues of the methods used in data analysis—thematic analysis, classroom discourse analysis, and positioning analysis. Then, I will present how I transcribed, translated, codified and categorised the collected data.

4.5.1 Thematic analysis

The policy documents, interview transcripts, teaching materials and teachers' public reflective posts were analysed by the thematic analysis method. The rationale for using thematic analysis is its analytic flexibility. Based on Braun and Clarke (2006, 2013) and Clarke and Braun (2013), I summarise key features of thematic analysis. In terms of the theoretical position,

(1) It is theoretically flexible. Thematic analysis is 'just a method' (Clarke & Braun, 2013, p. 178). It allows researchers to apply this analytic tool to a given theoretical and/or methodology framework. Hence, the onus of validity is on researchers to spell out their paradigmatic position and assumptions when using thematic analysis as an analytical tool.

(2) It emphasises searching for patterned themes. Researchers move from observed instances, codes, categories, themes, and to the final conceptual model (Figure 4.1).

(3) *Theme* is defined by the quality of the instances rather than the quantity. Prevalent instances do not necessarily count as *a theme*. Searching for a theme depends on the research questions, analytic focus and researcher's reflexivity.

(4) Researchers play an active and reflexive role. A theme does not emerge by itself but is constructed by researchers' judgement, inference and interpretation.

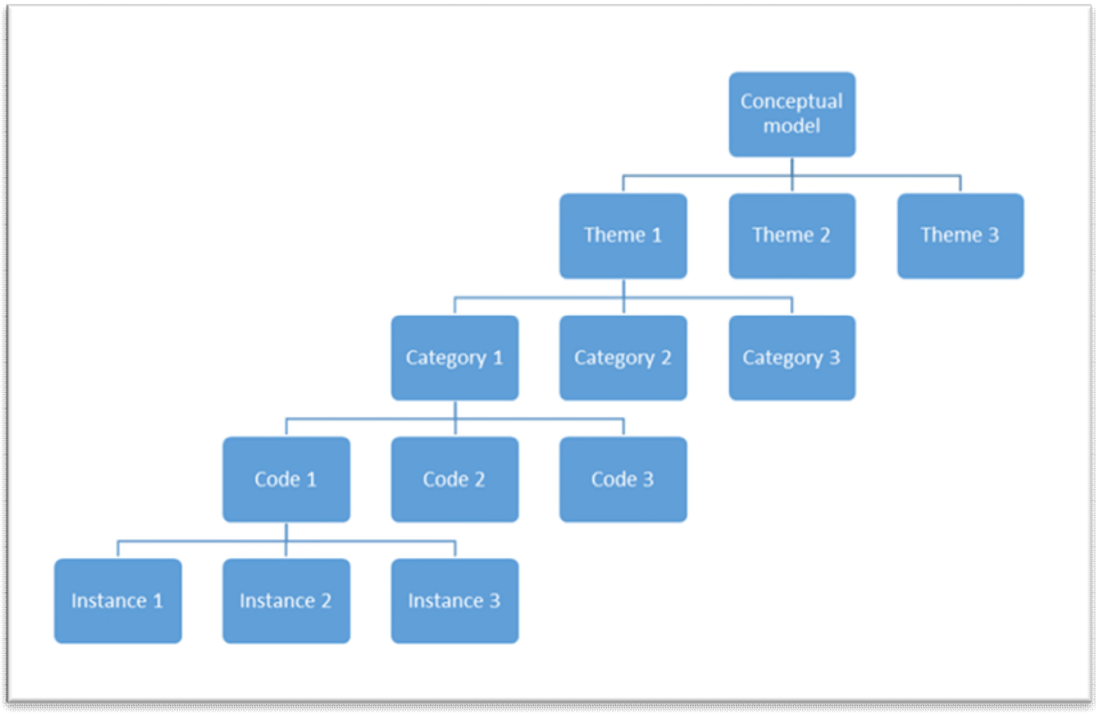


Figure 4.1 Coding process (adapted from Riazi, 2016, p. 319)

The theoretical flexibility of thematic analysis is a double-edged sword. In terms of its potential pitfalls, thematic analysis is often criticised for its limited interpretative capacity and inconsistency between analytic claims, research questions and theoretical framework (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Clarke & Braun, 2013). These issues are quite common not only in the thematic analysis method but also in each type of qualitative study (Twining et al., 2017). To address the pitfalls, researchers should carefully think about their overall research design, demonstrating the logical consistency between theoretical underpinnings, research questions, ontological and epistemological standpoints, data collection methods, and data analysis methods. In addition to a clear rationale provided in the methodology chapter, researchers should illustrate how and why themes are identified or discarded as outliers (Freeman, 1998), how and why extracts are selected, by significance, extreme, opportunism (Holliday, 2016), or anecdotalism (Bryman, 1988). In this chapter Section 4.5.4, I will provide detailed descriptions of how transcription, translation, codification and categorisation were conducted. Furthermore, relevant details of how I codified and categorised the three data sets will be provided in Chapter 5 (policy document analysis), Chapter 6 (teachers' narrative analysis), and Chapter 7 (classroom discourse analysis), respectively.

As discussed, qualitative researchers need to invoke other established theories and methods to interpret and evaluate thematic analysis results. Additionally, because thematic analysis aims to find out patterns in the data sets, it has been criticised that the nuance embedded in talks is neglected (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Clarke & Braun, 2013). In this thesis, the inherent weakness of thematic analysis could be triangulated with classroom discourse analysis.

4.5.2 Classroom discourse analysis

In this thesis, the recording of naturalistic classroom interactions was analysed by classroom discourse analysis, an umbrella term for describing the methods to study institutional interaction in L2 classrooms (see Chapter 3, Section 3.3 for the review of terms and theories relating to L2 classroom discourse research). To be more specific, what this thesis adopted is not a 'pure CA' but 'applied CA, CA-inspired' (ten Have, 2007) method, aiming to understand the interplay between classroom interactional patterns and teachers' identity and agency. The rationale for using a CA-inspired method is its analytic strength in the organisation of interaction. Based on Gardner (2019), Markee (2015), Richards (2003), Seedhouse (2004), Sert (2015), ten Have (2007), Walsh (2006), and Waring (2016), I summarise critical features of CA as follows.

Ontologically, CA assumes that social reality is embodied in mundane interactions. Epistemologically, CA emphasises that interaction is built on intersubjectivity; that is, local members employ their shared understanding to analyse, interpret, and orient their interactional trajectory, as ten Have puts it (2007, p. 51):

> The flow overtime of the interactional production of language allows the participants to *project* what might be coming next, which is a major resource for both the production and understanding of language in situ (emphasis in original).

As such, the fundamental inquiry for CA could be encapsulated as 'why that, in that way, right now?'. Here are three assumptions behind this question. First, there is a rational design in interactions. CA challenges the commonly held belief that ordinary conversation is messy and chaotic, maintaining that by delving into the 'seen-but-unnoticed' (Seedhouse, 2004, p. 5) features in talks, analysts can make visible the machinery, the procedure, and the 'produced orderliness' (ten Have, 2007, p. 35) of the utterances. Second, grounded on emic social reality, CA assumes that the order is jointly constructed by participants, not by a priori theory or by analysts' presumptions and generalisation. In other words, it is membership knowledge that orients the overall sequences of talk. Third, unlike the dominant view of context as external, ethnographic and socio-political matters, CA invokes contextual features only when relevant to participants' orientation (Markee, 2015). Heritage argues (1997; cited in Walsh, 2006, p. 50):

> Sequences of actions are a major part of what we mean by the context, that the meaning of an action is heavily shaped by the sequence of previous actions from which it emerges, and that social context is a dynamically created thing that is expressed in and through the sequential organisation of interaction.

Methodologically, CA insists on using naturally occurring data, although ten Have (2007) argues that there is no clear-cut distinction between natural data and prompted data. It all depends on when, how, why and where the data is collected. To illustrate its unique approach to data analysis, Seedhouse uses the metaphor of 'documentary' to capture the faithfulness in naturally occurring data (2004, p. 7),

> Any turn at talk becomes a document or display of a cognitive, emotional, and attitudinal state, an analysis of context and of the previous turn(s) in the sequence and social action which renews the context.

In a similar vein, Alasuutari (1995, cited in ten Have 2007, p. 35) used the metaphor of 'specimen',

> Unlike data seen from the factist perspective, a specimen as a form of research material is not treated as either a statement about or a reflection of reality; instead, a specimen is seen as part of the reality being studied.

However, CA's empiricist, behavioural, and emic perspective has received criticism from other discourse analysts. For instance, Fairclough (2001, p. 9) argues that CA's data-driven approach treats conversation 'in a social vacuum'; Bucholtz (2003; cited in Markee, 2015) problematises the notion that transcription is self-sufficient, unbiased and objective evidence of the social phenomenon being researched. To counter CA's methodological limit, some researchers propose to combine recording data and ethnographic data to understand the local social life (Rampton, 2007; Schegloff, 1997). This is also why this study adopted linguistic ethnography as a methodology framework.

One of the features of digitalised L2 classroom interaction is that it is multimodal, multi-directional, and multi-layered (Seedhouse & Almutairi, 2009). This also raises the issues of what constitutes data in digital societies, the implication for research methods (Lindgren, 2018), and ethical concerns. Epistemologically, multimodal discourse analysis stresses that meaning-making is mediated through various semiotic resources and that linguistic mode is not necessarily the first and foremost priority for discourse analysis (Kress, 2012). Methodologically, the advancement of various technologies (e.g., video, sound, image, and virtual reality) makes more salient the multimodal semiotic system (Lemke, 2012). Given my research focus on teachers' identity and agency in multimodal times, the insight from multimodal analysis also informs me to grasp a more holistic understanding of classroom interaction in digitalised settings. In linguistic ethnography, relevant digital artefacts and semiotic products can be treated as clues to frame the talk being contextualised and understand how the teachers and students multimodally display their own cultures in the L2 classrooms (Gardner, 2019).

4.5.3 Positioning analysis

As the three RQs indicate, this thesis examines how English teachers' identity and agency are constructed and negotiated in policy, narrative, and classroom discourse via the analytic lens of positioning theory. Positioning theory has become an established methodological choice for teacher identity research (Kayi-Aydar, 2019b) and evolved into different approaches to identity and discourse. Given my analytic purpose, I will first discuss the commonality between different positioning approaches and then introduce three approaches relevant to my data analysis.

Unlike the traditional sociological and psychological tendency to treat identity as an essentialist and normative self, positioning analysis views identity as 'situated achievements, which do not sum up to a coherent self' (Deppermann, 2015, p. 370). In this sense, positioning theory presents an epistemological challenge to traditional psychometric research, arguing that the production of knowledge is constructed in discourse and manifested in 'the skills of the actors, their relative moral standing in the community and the storylines that unfold' (Harré & van Langenhove, 1999, p. 4). These common starting points notwithstanding, there are two main types of positioning analysis—biographically oriented and interactionally oriented approaches (de Fina & Georgakopoulou, 2012). Their main difference lies in that the biographical approaches 'regard the life story and the individual narrator as the source of data and target of analysis, while interactional approaches centre on the interactional process of storytelling as the focus of attention' (de Fina, 2015, p. 352). The biographic positioning strand is influenced by social cognitive theories with the assumption that a participant's internal thinking can be collected and documented as the way external behaviour can be observed and analysed. A participant can translate the non-verbal cognitive processes into verbal or written reports. There are numerous tools for collecting introspective data, such as interviews, diaries, and written/spoken reflective journals (Barkhuizen, 2015). The biographical scope of identity goes beyond a single piece of storytelling and serves as a discursive device for self-development (Gregg, 2011). On the other hand, the interactional positioning approach is influenced by ethnomethodological (Garfinkel, 1984), conversation analysis, and ethnographic traditions. Interactional researchers closely observe participants' local interactions and how they orient to intersubjectivity in talks.

As the wording of the three research questions indicated, insights from both biographical and interactional positioning analysis were employed to analyse English language teachers' identity and agency construction. In what follows, I will present how I integrated thematic analysis, classroom discourse analysis, and positioning analysis to work on the three research questions. I will also demonstrate how I transcribed, translated, codified and categorised the data collected in each data set.

4.5.4 Transcription, translation, codification and categorisation

4.5.4.1 LPP discourse analysis

Research questions	Data source	Analytical tools
1. How are English teachers positioned by the educational language policy texts and what are the potential consequences for teacher agency of such positionings?	1.Policy documents 2. Fieldnotes	1. Thematic analysis 2. Positioning analysis

In the data set of policy discourse analysis, I thematically analysed the four LPP documents:

(1) *12-Year Basic Education Curriculum Guidelines* (Taiwan MOE, 2014; henceforth *108 Curriculum*)
(2) *Domain-Specific Curriculum: English Language* (Taiwan MOE, 2018a; henceforth *English Curriculum*)
(3) *Blueprint for Developing Taiwan into a Bilingual Nation by 2030* (National Development Council, 2018; henceforth *Bilingual Blueprint*)
(4) *MOE Proposal for Bilingual Nation Policy* (Taiwan MOE, 2018b; henceforth *Bilingual Proposal*)

Two of them (i.e., the *108 Curriculum* and *Bilingual Blueprint*) were written in both English and Chinese, so I chose the ones written in English as the raw data. Two of them (i.e., *English Curriculum* and *Bilingual Proposal*) were only provided in a Chinese version by the governments. Therefore, I manually translated them into English.

In the process of codification and categorisation of policy documents, analytic insights provided by thematic analysis and positioning were employed simultaneously. Positioning analysis was adopted in this data set because of its analytical utilisation for researching identity and agency in discourse. As Harré and van Langenhove (1999, p. 4) maintain,

> Not only what we do but also what we can do is restricted by the rights, duties and obligations we acquire, assume or which are imposed upon us in the concrete social contexts of everyday life.

In other words, positioning is a mechanism in which people situate themselves or others with certain rights and duties derived from a given identity or role. Positioning, as a discursive process, allows people to assume and reject certain positions. Kayi-Aydar (2019b) points out that though positioning theory shares similar ontological and epistemological grounds with other discourse analysis approaches (i.e., conversation analysis, narrative inquiry, and ethnomethodology), it foregrounds the interpretation of rights and duties as overarching variables for social interactions. In this data set, I adopted the straightforward definition of 'rights and duties' provided by Harré (2012, p. 7):

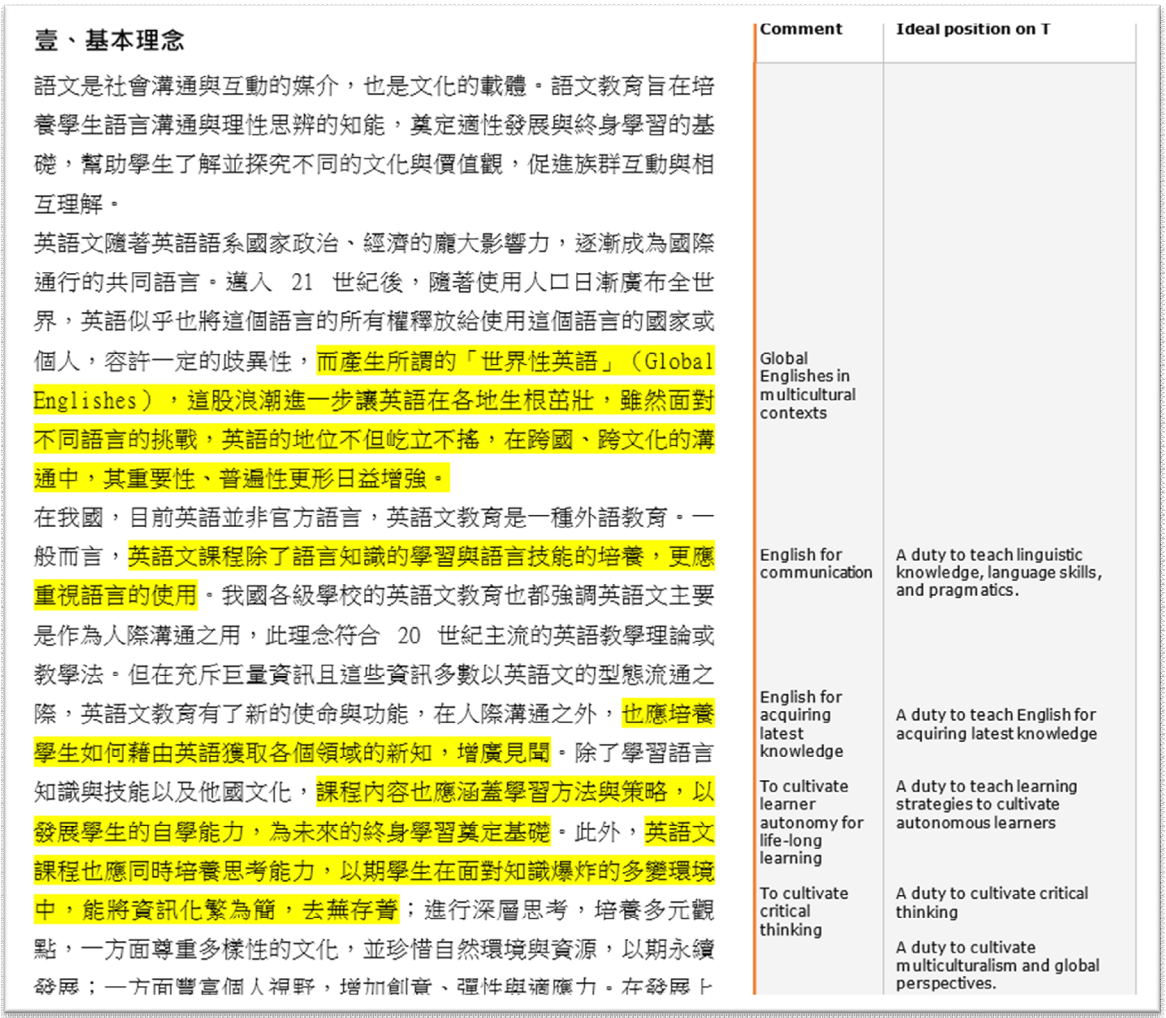
- Rights: My rights are what you (or they) must do for me.
- Duties: My duties are what I must do for you (or them).

I would argue that this right-duty duality in the policy documents constitutes possible actions for teachers. 'Possible' because the right-duty pattern is determined not only by the authoritative power from the macro-level but also by the intersubjectivity the participants locally shape.

To analyse how teachers' rights and duties are distributed in the policy, I adopted and adapted the 'Six Phases of Reflexive Thematic Analysis' (Braun et al., 2019) to serve my analytic purposes, which are:

(1) Familiarising with the data
(2) Identifying codes
(3) Constructing positions
(4) Revising and defining positions
(5) Thematic mapping
(6) Producing the report

Familiarising with the data allowed me to notice the phrases that intrigued me during the initial coding process. I designed a two-column table on the margin of the policy documents (see Picture 4.3 below). I noted my thoughts, interpretations, and questions emerging in the familiarisation phase. In this phase, I was aware that sometimes I felt displeased and frustrated because of the discrepancy between what was claimed and promised on the papers and what was experienced by teachers and students in reality. The emotional responses triggered by my own teaching experiences and assumptions might lead me to analyse with bias. Therefore, whenever I noticed a surge of emotions, I paused for a moment and then recorded it in my research diary (see Section 4.4.4). By doing so, it helped me to bracket my emotions and put my presumption in a box.



壹、基本理念

語文是社會溝通與互動的媒介，也是文化的載體。語文教育旨在培養學生語言溝通與理性思辨的知能，奠定適性發展與終身學習的基礎，幫助學生了解並探究不同的文化與價值觀，促進族群互動與相互理解。

英語文隨著英語語系國家政治、經濟的龐大影響力，逐漸成為國際通行的共同語言。邁入 21 世紀後，隨著使用人口日漸廣布全世界，英語似乎也將這個語言的所有權釋放給使用這個語言的國家或個人，容許一定的歧異性，而產生所謂的「世界性英語」（Global Englishes），這股浪潮進一步讓英語在各地生根茁壯，雖然面對不同語言的挑戰，英語的地位不但屹立不搖，在跨國、跨文化的溝通中，其重要性、普遍性更形日益增強。

在我國，目前英語並非官方語言，英語文教育是一種外語教育。一般而言，英語文課程除了語言知識的學習與語言技能的培養，更應重視語言的使用。我國各級學校的英語文教育也都強調英語文主要是作為人際溝通之用，此理念符合 20 世紀主流的英語教學理論或教學法。但在充斥巨量資訊且這些資訊多數以英語文的型態流通之際，英語文教育有了新的使命與功能，在人際溝通之外，也應培養學生如何藉由英語獲取各個領域的新知，增廣見聞。除了學習語言知識與技能以及他國文化，課程內容也應涵蓋學習方法與策略，以發展學生的自學能力，為未來的終身學習奠定基礎。此外，英語文課程也應同時培養思考能力，以期學生在面對知識爆炸的多變環境中，能將資訊化繁為簡，去蕪存菁；進行深層思考，培養多元觀點，一方面尊重多樣性的文化，並珍惜自然環境與資源，以期永續發展；一方面豐富個人視野，增加創意、彈性與適應力。在發展上

Comment	Ideal position on T
Global Englishes in multicultural contexts	
English for communication	A duty to teach linguistic knowledge, language skills, and pragmatics.
English for acquiring latest knowledge	A duty to teach English for acquiring latest knowledge
To cultivate learner autonomy for life-long learning	A duty to teach learning strategies to cultivate autonomous learners
To cultivate critical thinking	A duty to cultivate critical thinking
	A duty to cultivate multiculturalism and global perspectives.

Picture 4.3 Sample of initial familiarisation (LPP discourse)

Identifying codes moved me to capture the essence of data in a more systematic format. As an essential communication site between the government and the public, LPP documents are full of linguistic codes that construct ideal positions for teachers, students and other relevant stakeholders. In this phase, I highlighted the enacted expressions in the policy documents, aiming to discern how language choices were used intentionally to establish the desired positions for teachers. There were 134 codes identified in the four policy documents.

Constructing positions entailed further exploration of how given codes allocated teachers' duties and rights (Picture 4.4). According to positioning analysis, a position is defined as 'a cluster of beliefs with respect to the rights and duties of the members of a group of people to act in certain ways' (Harré, 2012, p. 196). Explicitly ascribed as obligations and norms, the belief clusters discursively constructed the desired positions of teachers. In this phase, the constructed positions were derived from the convergence of the collected data, my own teaching experience, and research questions.

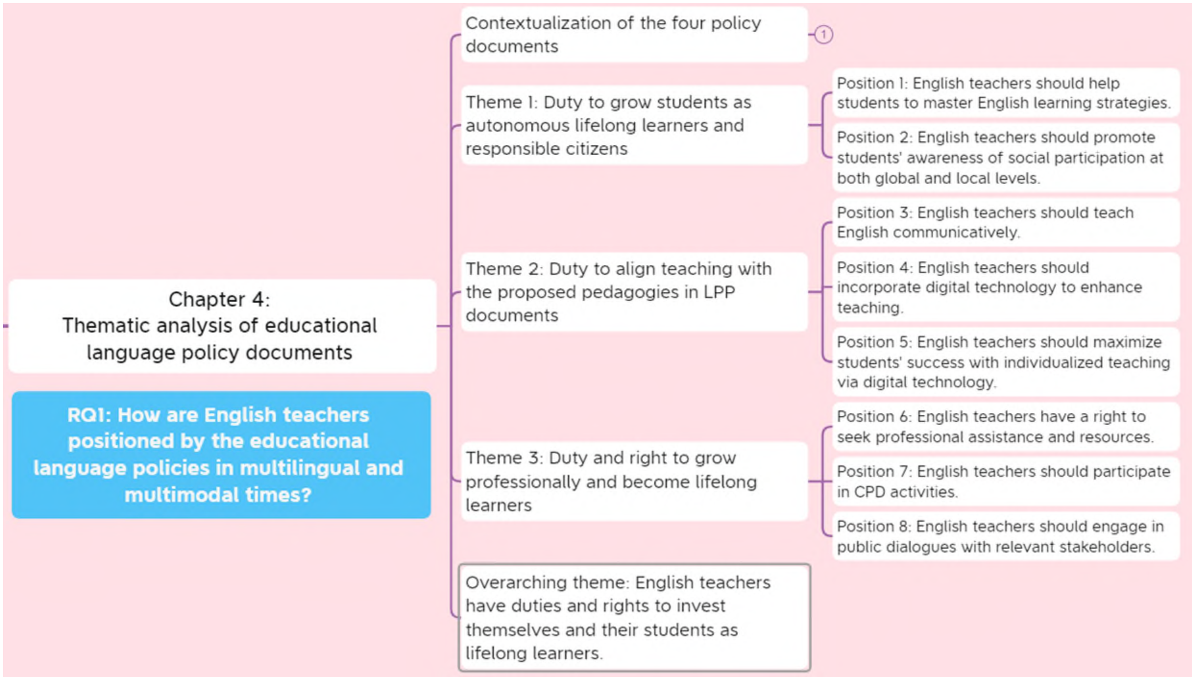
First Round

Document No.	Code	Teachers' Position
1. 12 年國教課綱	The aforementioned issues present numerous challenges to education, and more importantly, they have demonstrated that education must keep pace with the changing social needs and global trends. 學校教育面臨諸多挑戰，必須因應社會需求與時代潮流而與時俱進。	A duty to provide updated content for students to keep pace with the world.
	This enables offering education that aligns with students' aptitudes, maximizes their talent, and helps them develop lifelong learning abilities, social compassion, and an international outlook. 落實適性揚才之教育，培養具有終身學習力、社會關懷心及國際視野的現代優質國民。	A duty to appreciate students' talents. A duty to cultivate them as lifelong and socially-compassionate learners in an international context.
	The curriculum also urges that schools be active in encouraging students to become motivated and passionate learners, leading students to appropriately develop the ability to interact with themselves, others, society, and nature. 學校教育應善誘學生的學習動機與熱情，引導學生妥善開展與自我、與他人、與社會、與自然的各種互動能力，協助學生應用及實踐所學、體驗生命意義，願意致力社會、自然與文化的永續發展，共同謀求彼此的互惠與共好。	A duty to motivate students as passionate learners who know how to interact with the surroundings appropriately.
	The Curriculum Guidelines of the 12-Year Basic Education was developed based on the spirit of holistic education, adopting the concepts of *taking initiative*, *engaging in interaction*, and *seeking the common good* to encourage students to become spontaneous and motivated learners. 十二年國民基本教育之課程發展本於全人教育的精神，以「自發」、「互動」及「共好」為理念，強調學生是自發主動的學習者。	A duty to cultivate students as active learners.
	Schools should assist students in applying their learned knowledge, experiencing the meaning of life, and developing the willingness to become engaged in sustainable development of society, nature, and culture, facilitating the attainment of reciprocity and the common good. 學校教育應善誘學生的學習動機與熱情，引導學生妥善開展與自我、與他人、與社會、與自然的各種互動能力，協助學生應用及實踐所學、體驗生命意義，願意致力社會、自然與文化的永續發展，共同謀求彼此的互惠與共好。	A duty to assist students to apply what they learn to provide the common good for themselves, others, society and the nature.

Picture 4.4 Sample of identifying codes and positions

Revising and defining positions aimed to enhance the analytic quality so that the candidate positions could be further developed in later phases. Braun and Clarke (2013, p. 234) suggest the criterion is to have a set of coherent candidate themes (each has a central organising concept), distinctive (from each other), work together and, importantly, relate to the research question in some way. In this phase, similar candidate positions were collated with extracted data. After the revision, eight positions were identified with a label and a definition. The definition of each position must be mutually exclusive, which implied that overlapping positions and corresponding codes were reorganised.

Thematic mapping facilitated my overall understanding of how each position connected with the others. In 'codeweaving' (Saldaña, 2013, p. 45), the visual presentation of networks among the codes and positions allowed me to weave the components into a logical and coherent thematic mapping. As shown in Picture 4.5, the eight identified positions were categorised into three broader themes.



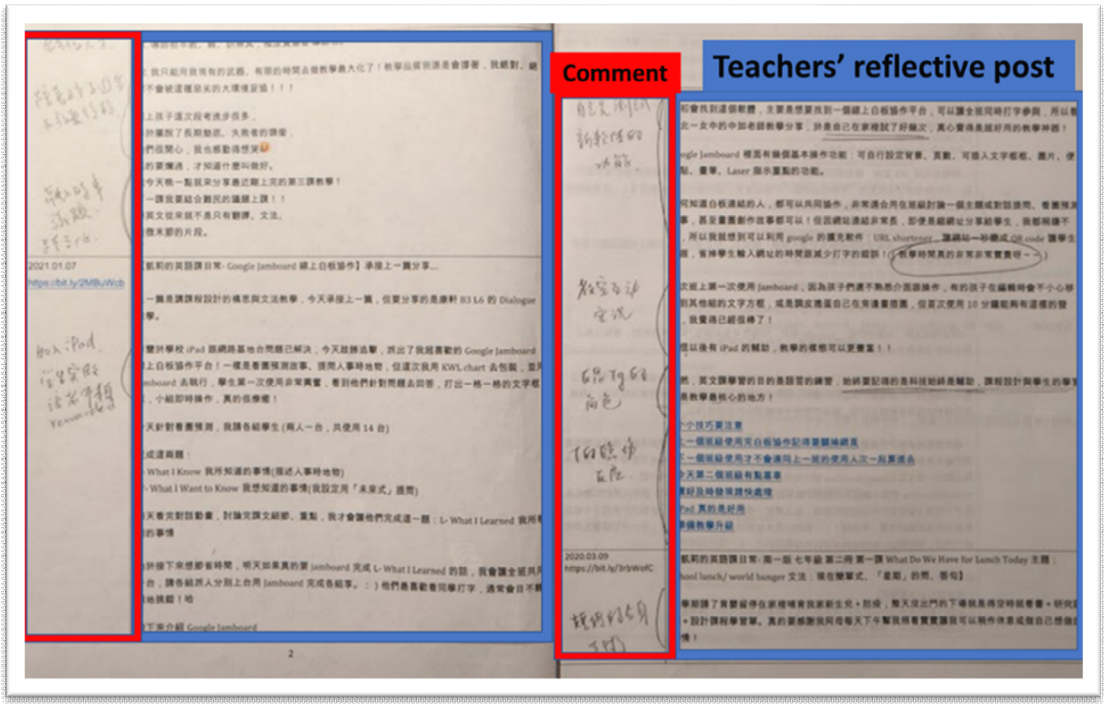
Picture 4.5 Thematic mapping of policy discourse

Producing the report was the last step of the thematic analysis process. To ensure that the positions and themes concisely capture the essence of this data set, I revisited my analytic memos and refined the word choices of my RQ1 and the labels for each theme and position. To connect existing themes and positions, I also constructed an overarching theme to summarise the analysis results.

4.5.4.2 Narrative discourse analysis

Research questions	Data source	Analytical tools
2. How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their accounts of multilingual and multimodal teaching experiences?	1. Ethnographic interviews 2. Reflective posts	1. Thematic analysis 2. Positioning analysis

The data set of teachers' narratives were composed of two: (1) teachers' public posts in online communities and (2) teachers' interview data. The first part was directly translated into English by me. The second part of the data was first transcribed in Chinese and then translated into English. In the process of codification and categorisation, analytic insights provided by thematic analysis and biographically-oriented positioning analysis (Barkhuizen, 2015) were employed simultaneously. Biographically-oriented positioning analysis was adopted in this data set because of its analytical utilisation for researching teachers' identity and agency in their self-representational stories. This data set analysed teachers' narratives about personal reflections, classroom practice, CPD activities, and community engagement.



Picture 4.6 Sample of initial familiarisation (narrative discourse)

I again adopted and adapted the six phases of thematic analysis (Braun et al., 2019) to analyse how English teachers positioned themselves and constructed professional identity and agency in their accounts of multilingual and multimodal teaching experiences.

In the phase of familiarising myself with the data, I designed a table with two columns and printed out the transcripts (see Picture 4.6). On the right-hand side, I noted my thoughts and interpretations; on the right-hand side, I highlighted the phrases or sentences of the interview transcripts and social media posts by 'chunking the text into broad topic areas, as a first step to see what is there' (Bazeley, 2007, p.67; cited in Saldaña, 2013, p.142).

In the phase of generating codes, I labelled the codes for assigning either descriptive or interpretative meaning. Once the data were analysed and codified thematically, I collated similar codes into clusters. In the phase of categorising the codes, I used the software Xmind to help me delete, add, and reshape the codes so that I generated 11 tentative categories out of 76 codes (see Figure 4.2).

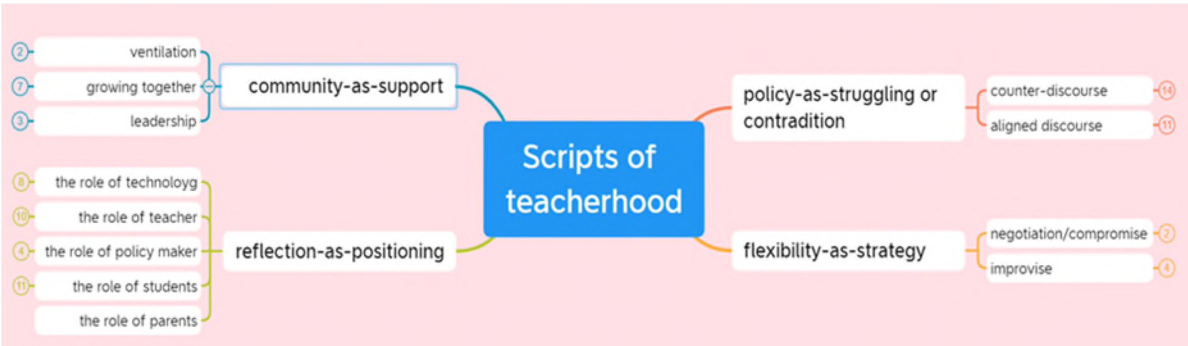


Figure 4.2 Tentative codification and categorisation of teachers' narrative

In constructing themes, the 11 categories were rearranged into four themes: reflection, community, flexibility, and struggle. In revising and defining themes and categorisation, I revised my RQ2 and refined the existing categories into three specific themes: reflexivity-as-positioning, community-as-support, and flexibility-as-strategy (see Section 6.2 in Chapter Six). In the final phase of producing the report, I made a table to summarise all the identified categories and themes (see Table 6.2 in Chapter Six) and made connections in the thematic mapping.

4.5.4.3 Classroom discourse analysis

Research questions	Data source	Analytical tools
3. How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their multilingual and multimodal classroom practices?	1. Observation 2. Video-recordings 3. Fieldnotes	1. Conversation analysis 2. Multimodal analysis 3. Positioning analysis

Due to the amount of classroom interaction data collected in four different classrooms, I decided to transcribe the relevant part of the data selectively to optimise the transcription process. Considering this was not a pure CA study, I followed CA transcription conventions selectively 'to focus, instead, on how that speech is functioning and how transcription can illustrate that function' (Rymes, 2016, p. 91). In other words, the onus is on researchers to design a contextualised transcription system to represent dynamics in interaction.

Instead of transcribing all the recorded videos, I watched the videos with a focus on teachers' code-switching behaviours in the phase of familiarising myself with the data. The reason I chose code-switching as the primary analytical focus in classroom discourse analysis was not only because this was the most prominent interactional feature in this data set. Equal important, code-switching was a window to observe how English teachers negotiated the institutional identity ascribed by *the 108 Curriculum* and *Bilingual Nation Policy*, imagined identities embedded in their narratives, and practised identities realised in their classroom interactions.

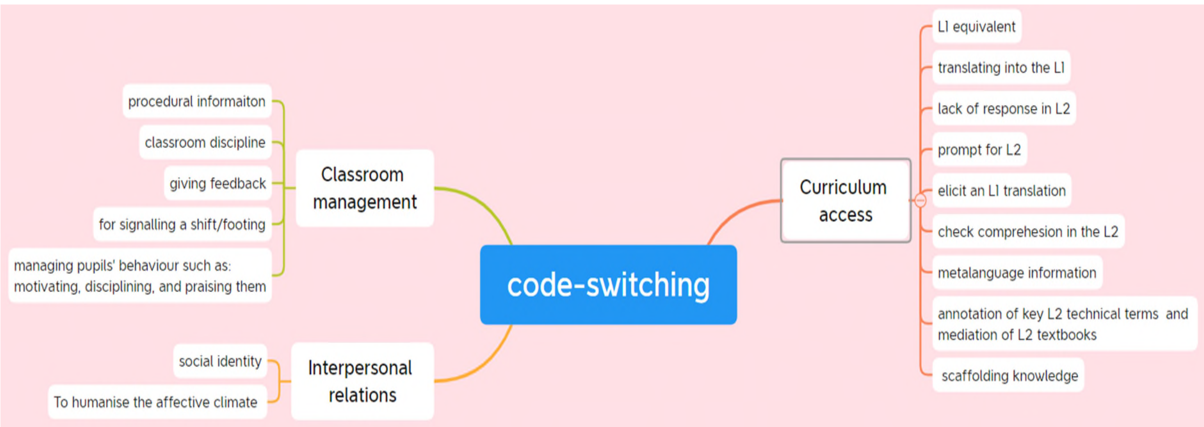


Figure 4.3 Tentative codification and categorisation of teachers' code-switching

In the phase of identifying code-switching interactional features, I noted the timestamps and labelled the extracts with my thoughts and interpretations in my research diary. In the next phase, I employed G. Ferguson's (2003, p.39) framework for analysing teachers' code-switching in L2 classrooms. As discussed in Chapter 3 Section 3.3.2, this framework can assist researchers further to explore the interplay between pedagogical functions and code-switching. With G. Ferguson's framework, I established three categories, namely code-switching for (1) curriculum access, (2) classroom management, and (3) interpersonal relations. Then, I collated the identified video extracts into three categories and arranged the functions of each extract more systematically. As a result, there were 16 tentative functions labelled (see Figure 4.3).

Extract 1 Cari_class_20181221_1 (Rudolph's story_34:10)

		Transcription	**Translation**
01	Cari:	the red nose. ((pointing at the image on	
02		the digital blackboard))	
03		so he got bullied by other reindeers.	
04	S1:	你說那個麋鹿哦?	you are talking about the reindeer in the song?
05	Cari:	yes. so one day. Santa Claus.	
06	SS:	((burst of laughter))	
07	Cari:	安靜. ((shh))	be quiet. ((Shh))

Picture 4.7 Sample of transcription and translation of teachers' code-switching

In the phase of revising and defining the functions and categories, I revised my RQ3 and refined 10 functions of code-switching in teachers' multimodal and multilingual teaching practices (see Appendix 6 for detailed examples of categories). Drawing on multimodal theories and an interactional positioning approach, I also identified 11 micro identities teachers demonstrated in the classroom interactions. Finally, in the last phase of producing the report, I transcribed and translated the extracts I analysed. For easier detection and comprehension, transcription on the left-hand column records the talk-in-interaction as it was, while translation on the right-hand column provides corresponding meaning in English (see Picture 4.7).

4.6 Ethical considerations

Research ethics is fundamental because it is not merely the principles 'embedded in the totality of scholarly practice' (Baarts, 2009; cited in Braun & Clarke, 2013, p. 62), but also it challenges researchers to reflect constantly on what is good and wrong morally and lawfully in a world where social media and technology exert significant influence on our social norms and practices (van Dijck, 2013). Recently, the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR), which came into force on 25 May 2018, mirrors the significance to regulate the use of personal data in the digital age (Livingstone, 2018).

In this section, the ethical discussion mainly concentrates on my research conduct in the fieldwork, including gaining informed consent, conducting interviews and observations, and privacy and confidentiality. Among various ethical guidance provided by relevant professional societies and university ethics committees, I found *Recommendations on Good Practice in Applied Linguistics* (BAAL, 2016) functions as a good starting point for me because it offers reflexive and stimulating points for methodological decision-making in the fieldwork.

With respect to institutional clearance, the ethical approval form was approved by the Graduate Progress Committee at Warwick University (Appendix 1). For the informed consent and information sheet, I adapted the templates provided by the HSSREC (Appendix 2 & 4 for the English version and Appendix 3 & 5 for the Chinese version). The two documents specified the research objectives, the possible consequences, the right to withdraw at any time, matters of confidentiality, and data security. The forms were administered to participant teachers and students. As for privacy and confidentiality issues, it is suggested that researchers follow the higher standards set by the GDPR. Therefore, in the information sheet, I explicitly stated what would happen to participants' data, including how data would be used at each stage, who would have access, how it would be managed, if it would be shared, and when it would be destroyed.

When researchers observe and interview real people in real situations, many unexpected problems can happen (Humphries & Gebhard, 2012). The methodological problems could be eliminated or improved through pilot studies, while the ethical problems should be solved through researchers' reflexivity in consultation with relevant literature and other research colleagues. Here, I present two ethical problems that I encountered in the fieldwork. First, in a non-participant observation setting, one of the case teachers invited me to participate in her class activities. In this case, though this behaviour would change to some extent the classroom interaction that I intended to investigate, I partly joined them out of the need to sustain a good relationship with my research participants. Second, the degree of familiarity between participants and researchers may influence the nature and trajectory of qualitative research (Richards, 2003). As discussed in Section 4.3.3, my participant teachers and I later became good friends. Up to now, we have been in touch with each other via Facebook. Aware of this positive relationship, I paid extra attention to its impact when analysing the data and discussing the results. Specifically, in writing Analysis and Discussion chapters, when I felt frustrated and sympathetic towards the difficulties my case teachers experienced in their contexts, I usually wrote emotional memos in my research diary to bracket my potential bias and fallacy.

4.7 Timeline of thesis completion

This section presents how the chronology of data collection and analysis unfolded in practice. As discussed previously, data analysis is often a 'back-and-forth' process (Mann, 2016). Therefore, to present the overall process in a linear way is challenging. Nevertheless, I attempt to summarise how I managed this multi-perspectival, multi-method study from Oct 2017 to Feb 2022. The overall research process can be divided into five phases (see Table 4.5 below).

Table 4.5 Timeline of thesis completion

Time	Focus	Actions
Phase 1 Oct, 2017 – Sep, 2018	• Literature review • Fieldwork preparation	1. Reading literature on digital teaching and CPD 2. Participating in the Language Policy Forum 2018 held by the BAAL Language Policy group 3. Designing initial research design 4. Formulating initial RQs
Phase 2 Oct 2018 – Mar 2019	• Fieldwork	1. Recruiting participant teachers 2. Collecting data through interviews and class observations
Phase 3 Apr 2019 – Jan 2020	• Initial analysis of collected data	1. Thematically analysing interview transcriptions 2. Analysing classroom discourse analysis
Phase 4 Feb 2020 – Jan 2021	• Refinements of research focus, design and RQs • 2nd round literature review	1. Redefining research focus: from digital teaching/CPD to LTA/LTI 2. Reformulating RQs and research design 3. Conducting literature review on LTA and LTI 4. Gaining participants' consent via an updated information sheet
Phase 5 Feb 2021 – Feb 2022	• Thesis writing	1. Conducting policy document analysis for RQ1 2. Conducting narrative analysis for RQ2 3. Conducting classroom discourse analysis for RQ3 4. Writing Discussion Chapter 5. Completing thesis draft

It is worth noting that Phase 4 is the turning point in the research trajectory. The research focus of this thesis shifted from digital teaching and CPD to language teacher identity and agency. Therefore, I reformulated the RQs accordingly. The comparison of the two sets of RQs is presented as follows.

- Initial RQs in Phase 1
    1. What is the nature of interactional patterns in the digitalised L2 classroom?
    2. How do the teachers perceive technological affordances and constraints in L2 classes?
    3. What are the possible impacts of technology on L2 classroom interactions?
- Refined RQs in Phase 4
    1. How are English teachers positioned by the educational language policies in multilingual and multimodal times?
    2. How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their accounts of multilingual and multimodal teaching experiences?
    3. How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their multilingual and multimodal classroom practices?

Particularly in RQ2, I decided to incorporate the four teachers' public reflective posts and products on social media (i.e., Facebook, Blog, and YouTube). Therefore, I prepared an updated consent form and an information sheet (Appendix 6 and 7) for the participant teachers. In Feb 2020, I flew back to Taiwan for Lunar New Year and took the opportunity to visit the four teachers. Because of my positive relations with them, my case teachers were willing to support my research. With the participant teachers' consent, I multimodally collected the ethnographic data of the four teachers, including their social media posts and products, lesson plans and teaching material, and the informal chats I had with them during the fieldwork.

In Phase 5 (i.e., thesis writing), I analysed the collected data in the sequence of RQ1, RQ2, and RQ3. Then, I integrated the findings from LPP discourse, narrative discourse, and classroom discourse into a coherent discussion on language teacher identity and agency in multilingual and multimodal times.

4.8 Chapter summary: A multi-faceted research design

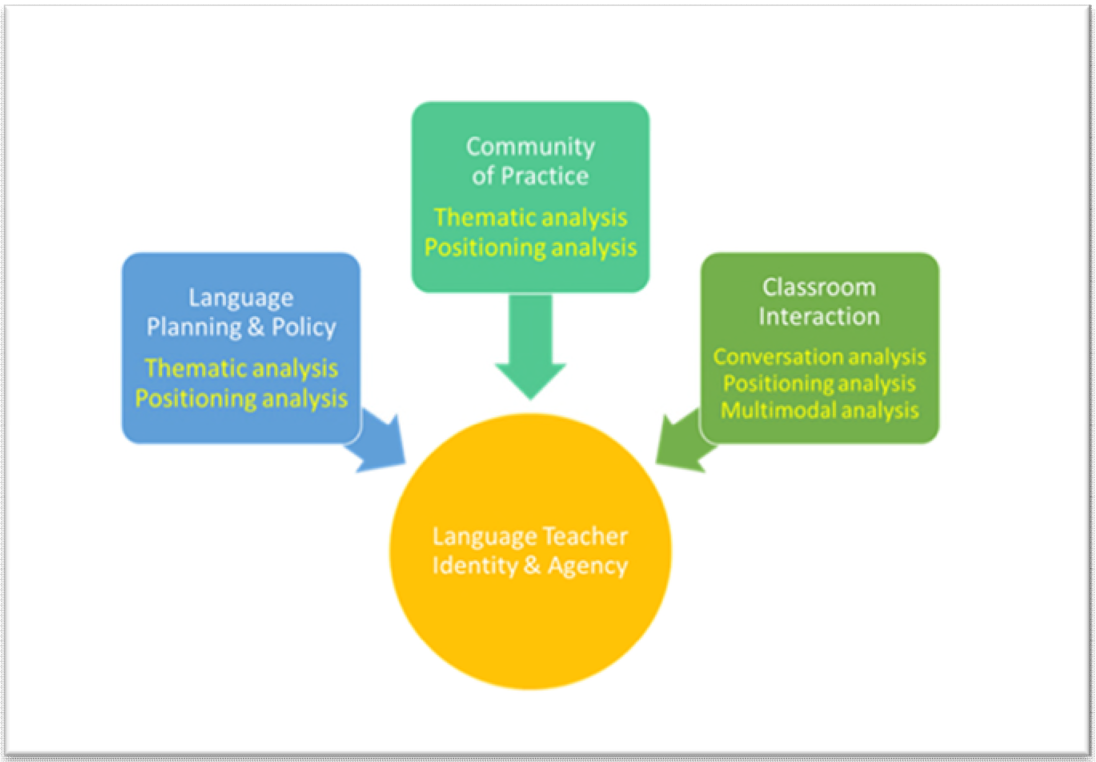


Figure 4.4 A multi-faceted research design

Following the three analytical themes established in Chapter 3, I built a multi-faceted research design (Figure 4.4) to investigate the complexity of language teacher identity and agency. To exhibit the quality of my qualitative research, I have explained the rationale of the major methodological decisions I made for this thesis. First, I adopted linguistic ethnography as an overall methodological framework because it provided a consistent and coherent paradigmatic stance among various discourse analysis tools I employed in this research. Second, I exhibited my paradigmatic awareness of the ontological and epistemological foundations of each interpretative method I used in this research. Third, I presented how themes and categories were identified in each data set. It is hoped that this multi-faceted linguistic ethnography study would yield a multi-faceted understanding of Taiwanese English language teachers' identity and agency in multilingual and multimodal times.

5 Chapter Five: Thematic Analysis of Four Educational Language Policy Documents

Before going further into the outcomes of the current chapter, I would like to provide a brief overview of the following three analysis chapters. The findings will be organised according to the three research questions discussed earlier. Chapter 5 responds to RQ1: *How are English teachers positioned by the educational language policy texts and what are the potential consequences for teacher agency of such positionings?*, aiming to dissect the governmental policy discourse of how English should be taught and how English teachers' identity and agency is constructed. Chapter 6 investigates RQ2: *How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their accounts of multilingual and multimodal teaching experiences?* This chapter presents analytical results of teachers' interview data and social media posts. Chapter 7 explores RQ3: *How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their multilingual and multimodal classroom practices?* By analysing classroom observation videos and fieldnotes, the interactional patterns between teachers and students provide evidence of teacher identity and agency construction.

Turning back to the present chapter, it aims to reveal the interplay between current educational contexts and the construction of English teachers' professional identity and agency in Taiwan. I analysed the four policy documents:

(1) *12-Year Basic Education Curriculum Guidelines* (Taiwan MOE, 2014; henceforth *108 Curriculum*)
(2) *Domain-Specific Curriculum: English Language* (Taiwan MOE, 2018a; henceforth *English Curriculum*)
(3) *Blueprint for Developing Taiwan into a Bilingual Nation by 2030* (National Development Council, 2018; henceforth *Bilingual Blueprint*)
(4) *MOE Proposal for Bilingual Nation Policy* (Taiwan MOE, 2018b; henceforth *Bilingual Proposal*)

To better understand language teacher identity and agency, it is argued in this thesis that LTA and LTI research should dialogically consider both structural and ethnographic factors. The purpose of the policy analysis is twofold. First, it highlights how policies construct English teachers' identity and agency in policy discourse. Second, it provides a contextualised backdrop for understanding how grassroots English teachers interpret, negotiate and appropriate LPP (Johnson, 2013) at the community and classroom levels. In what follows, a contextualised overview of the four LPP documents will be first presented, followed by three themes identified in this data set.

5.1 Contextualisation of the four policy documents

As discussed in Section 3.2.3, there is a pervasive emphasis on English language education in Asian educational institutions due to the challenges posed by globalisation and technology advancement. In this context, the four recent LPP documents in Taiwan strive to align themselves with the teaching principles and methods advocated by global and regional educational institutions. The *108 Curriculum* underscores the importance of 'core competency', which is defined as:

> the knowledge, ability, and attitude that a person should possess to equip him or her for daily life and for tackling future challenges. The concept of core competency emphasises that learning should not be limited to the knowledge and ability taught in school. Instead, learning should consider real-life scenarios and emphasise holistic development through action and self-development.
>
> (Taiwan MOE, 2014, p. 3)

This definition stresses that the objective of the new national curriculum is to cultivate competent and competitive citizens for real-life challenges. Turning to the *English Curriculum*, the opening paragraph pinpoints the critical role of the English language in the current global context:

> With the huge political and economic influence of English-speaking countries, English has gradually become a global lingua franca. In the 21st century, as the population of English speakers spreads around the world, English seems to pass into public and global ownership, allowing certain ambiguities and resulting in the so-called 'Global Englishes'. This wave has further allowed English to take root everywhere. Facing the challenges from other languages,

> English has not only stood still but has become increasingly important and universal in cross-national and cross-cultural communication.
>
> (Taiwan MOE, 2018a, p. 3)

The juxtaposition of the *108 Curriculum* and the *English Curriculum* reveals that one of the essential skills for future talents in the 21st century is English proficiency. English stands still from other languages and has become the global lingua franca. In a similar vein of emphasising English competency, the *Bilingual Blueprint* provides a rationale for why there are more efforts needed to improve citizens' 'English Power'.

> Facing the wave of globalisation and internationalisation, the ability of international communication and global perspectives is an important part of enhancing national competitiveness. At present, English is the most important common language for international communication, and it is spreading rapidly with the development of digital technology in the world. In this trend, *English Power* has become a necessary and critical ability to open the door to globalisation. How to improve national English power to increase international competitiveness has become an important common issue for non-English-speaking countries, and Taiwan cannot keep out of the affair.
>
> (National Development Council, 2018, p. 1; emphasis added)

This policy document further points out that the MOE would accordingly formulate a series of bilingual education (English and Chinese) policies, which is considered a consequential foundation for making English a second official language in Taiwan soon. Though the proposal of designating English as a second official language has been thwarted by a group of linguists and language teachers (Her, 2020), *Bilingual Nation* is still set as an established policy with considerable governmental budgets (£ 250 million for four years from 2021 to 2024) for relevant research and development (Central News Agency, 2021). Similar to what has been discussed in Section 3.2.3 that English language learning is linked to political and economic benefits in Asia, the Taiwanese government also assumes the equation of 'the earlier, the better' by teaching the English subject from the 3rd grade in primary schools (Wu & Lau, 2019). In this context, though Taiwan is not a member of ASEAN, there has been a heated debate about whether to add English as a second official language to build closer economic cooperation with its ASEAN counterparts. The concern about citizens' English Power is expressed in *Bilingual Blueprint* as follows:

> Take Singapore and India as examples. People from both countries have a good command of English, so many multinational companies have been settled in and offer many high-quality job opportunities for the locals. Based on Taiwan's advantages in the industrial chain, Taiwan should be built as a bilingual country. Bilingual Nation Policy can strengthen our country's competitiveness, provide younger generations with better development opportunities in their hometowns, and improving their overall income.
>
> (National Development Council, 2018, p. 3)

Put the *Bilingual Nation Policy* in the Asian context, and it can be noted that the Taiwanese government attempts to keep pace with their Asian neighbours in English language education to maintain its economic and industrial edge in the global economy. Another document *Bilingual Proposal* (Taiwan MOE, 2018b) details the short-term and long-term strategies to implement bilingual education across different education levels, including:

- teaching English in meaningful contexts
- expanding English-speaking talents for human resources
- exploiting technology for individualised learning
- internationalising the education system
- loosening regulations to establish flexible ELT mechanisms

The policies issued by National Development Council and MOE echo the discourse of globalisation education and accentuate the economic pragmatism of English language learning. Specifically, the policy documents highlight the role of technology in the English teaching and learning process, which I will further discuss in Section 5.3 in this chapter.

To a certain extent, the four LPP documents embody the characteristics of globalisation discourse (Block & Cameron, 2002; Blommaert, 2010; Kramsch, 2014). The ideological positioning shapes a top-down framework for local practitioners to interpret and appropriate the curriculum and policy. English language teachers in Taiwan are assigned various duties to fulfil their professional roles in this context. Analysing the duties and rights ascribed in LPP documents can demonstrate the assigned ideal positions on English teachers and the public expectations of being a professional English teacher in multilingual and multimodal times. I adopted the straightforward definition of duties as ‘My duties are what I must do for you or them’ (Harré, 2012, p. 7). This conceptualisation of duties foregrounds the relational characteristics of positioning (Kayi-Aydar, 2019b). The duties of English teachers are usually not explicitly stipulated in the policies. Rather, through the speech acts that describe students' desired competency, the discursive impetus in policy documents drives English teachers to do something for their students. In other words, teachers' positioning is relational because the policies position teachers in relation to their students.

In what follows, the thematic analysis of LPP documents starts with three themes identified in the data set, followed by an overarching theme as a summary of the governmental stakeholders' expectations of an ideal English teacher. With a bottom-up coding approach, I first identified the extracts which construct ideal positions for English teachers. I then analysed how the extracts allocate English teachers' duties and rights. After constructing candidate positions, I collated similar codes, reorganised positions, and formulated three themes and one overarching theme as follows:

- **Theme 1**: Duty to grow students as autonomous lifelong learners and responsible citizens
- **Theme 2**: Duty to align teaching with the proposed pedagogy in LPP documents
- **Theme 3**: Duty and right to grow professionally and become lifelong learners
- **Overarching theme**: English teachers have duties and rights to invest themselves and their students as lifelong learners.

5.2 Theme 1: Duty to grow students as autonomous lifelong learners and responsible citizens

In the data set of LPP documents, the first identified theme is that 'English teachers have a duty to develop students as autonomous lifelong learners and responsible citizens in the 21st century'. This theme is composed of two positions: (a) English teachers should help students master learning strategies, and (b) English teachers should promote students' awareness of social participation. As presented in the following extracts, the analysis illustrates how English teachers are positioned in relation to their students in the policies.

5.2.1 Position 1: English teachers should help students to master learning strategies.

This position is derived from prevalent codes, including ‘lifelong learner’, ‘motivated learner’, ‘updated knowledge’, ‘competency for future life’, ‘effective learning’, and ‘academic foundation’. Position 1 is embodied in several duties identified in different policy documents. One of the prevalent duties is expressed as follows:

> Extract 5.1
>
> The goal aims to assist students in identifying methods for effective learning. In addition, the goal is to develop students' ability and willingness to engage in lifelong learning, inspire their motivation to enhance innovation for the future, and develop the foundation for academic and professional tasks.
>
> (No. 27/No. 29, 108 Curriculum, 2014)

Here ‘the goal’ is expressed somewhat neutrally without an overt actor involved to fulfil the goal, yet the latent positioning of teachers is noticeable. To cultivate students as lifelong motivational learners with social responsibilities, English teachers are positioned as the ones who assist students to master learning strategies. The importance of learning strategies can also be found in the *English Curriculum* as follows:

> Extract 5.2
>
> In addition to learning language knowledge, skills, and culture of other countries, the teaching content should also cover learning methods and strategies to develop students’ self-learning ability and lay the foundation for future lifelong learning.
>
> (No. 69, English Curriculum, 2018)

There are repeated speech acts as such in the *English Curriculum*, emphasising the importance of learning strategies for lifelong English learners. In a table titled *Learning Methods and Strategies*, specific English language learning strategies are listed, including using non-verbal messages, encouraging metacognition, using digital resources (e.g., online dictionary), and reflecting on the process. These precise descriptions of learning strategies situate English teachers with the duties to help students to master the learning strategies to become lifelong learners.

To position students as competent and competitive global citizens for the future, the curriculum policies tacitly position English teachers as the ones who create the learning environment for students to become active and lifelong learners. For example,

> Extract 5.3
>
> The English language teaching materials should cover various topics, including family, schools, food, animals and plants, and cultural activities, developing students' communicative skills. The materials also need to develop students' core competencies and internalise the concept of social participation and global citizenship for the future.
>
> (No. 82, English Curriculum, 2018)

In this extract, though English teachers are not explicitly mentioned, it is clear that English teachers are positioned with a duty to incorporate daily life, cultural, and global elements in their teaching practice by specifying the teaching materials. It also stresses that English teachers are expected to design approachable and engaging materials to cultivate students' awareness of global citizenship. A similar positioning of English teachers is also articulated in the *108 Curriculum*, including the duty to develop students' competency of 'taking the initiative, engaging in interaction, and seeking the common good to encourage students to become spontaneous and motivated learners' and 'learners develop a willing and active attitude to explore and learn'. These similar duties of English teachers suggest that the goal of the new national curriculum is to elicit students' learning motivation, encouraging them to engage in social participation and become lifelong active learners for the future—a position I will turn to in the following section.

5.2.2 Position 2: English teachers should promote students' awareness of social participation at both global and local levels.

This position is constructed by several repeated codes, including 'global co-opetition', 'multicultural awareness', 'social responsibility', and 'English for social and economic benefits'. Position 2 is formed by several similar duties, which can be categorised into social participation at the local level and the global level. Similar to what has been analysed in Position 1, Position 2 also manifests how the LPP discourse positions English teachers in relation to the students' intended performance. As analysed in Position 1, the goal of the new national curriculum is to develop students as competent and competitive citizens for the future. Aligning with the core principle, relevant LPP texts underscore the significant role the English language plays in the wave of globalisation. The following analysis demonstrates how the policy documents position of 'English teachers should promote students' awareness of social participation at both global and local level' is constructed in various policies.

The *108 Curriculum* emphasises the importance of equipping students with the competency for global competition. The following extract contextualises the future scenario students may face and highlights the importance of students' global awareness.

> Extract 5.4
>
> The concept of career development is introduced to develop students' courage, knowledge, and ability to face career challenges and global co-opetition, allowing them to adapt to social changes and global trends as well as cultivate the courage to take the initiative.
>
> (No. 30, 108 Curriculum, 2014)

It is worth noting that the notion of 'co-opetition' (i.e., 國際競合 in original text) is alluded to briefly in the *108 Curriculum*. Co-opetition is employed to play out against a global backdrop of current geopolitics. The term was coined by cooperation and competition, defined as 'simultaneously combining collaboration to create value and competition to capture a higher share of the value jointly created' (Fernandez et al., 2019, p.37). Since its inception in the 90s', co-opetition has evolved as a new paradigm of analysing political and economic activities, aiming to achieve a win-win innovation among different interest parties. By referring to the concept of co-opetition, the *108 Curriculum* positions students with the capability to adapt to global cooperation and competition. In this sense, English language teachers are positioned with the duty to raise students' social participation in the global context. Therefore, English teachers have a duty to design courses that can assist students to compete and cooperate with their global counterparts. It is in this context that the significance of the English language in the *Bilingual Nation Policy* is emphasised. The following extract illustrates the rationale and short-term/long-term goal for bilingual nation planning and policy.

Extract 5.5

> Dean of Executive Yuan, Lai, announced in 2018 that he would officially promote bilingual education, hoping to make Taiwan more internationally competitive through the Bilingual Nation Policy. Based on the investigation of the Ministry of Education on promoting English as the official language, Lai instructed that to promote Taiwan's economic development, the government would adopt *bilingual nation* as the policy goal in the short term, and gradually move towards the long-term goal of *English as the official language*.

(No. 108, Bilingual Blueprint, 2018; emphasis in original)

The *Bilingual Nation Policy* constantly collocates with phrases such as ‘internationally competitive’, ‘economic development’, and ‘the goal of English as the official language’. For students’ future economic benefits, both general teachers and English language teachers are tacitly positioned with a duty to translate the bilingual policy into their classroom teaching practice. The same discursive example can also be found in the *English Curriculum* as follows:

Extract 5.6

> Taking students’ needs as the starting point, considering the characteristics of English language knowledge, and using language as a tool to increase social and economic effectiveness, the primary principles of the English language curriculum include enhancing students’ multicultural literacy and using English as a tool to further innovation and social transformation.

(No. 73, English Curriculum, 2018)

Framed as a tool to increase social and economic effectiveness, the English language is what students need for their multicultural literacy and future career development. English is not just a subject to learn but also a means for intercultural understanding. Accordingly, students can learn to respect cultural diversity and seek global co-opetition via the medium of English. In this sense, English teachers are positioned with a duty to consider students’ future career needs and global employability, adopt appropriate teaching methods, and design appropriate materials to enhance students’ English learning.

As for social participation at a local level, several similar duties are identified in the data set, highlighting the importance of applying the knowledge students learn to facilitate the common good for society and nature. For example, there is a section devoted to civic responsibility in the *108 Curriculum*. The following is the selected extract:

> Extract 5.7
>
> This goal aims to enrich students' democratic literacy, legal awareness, human rights, morality and courage, social and tribal consciousness, international understanding and national identity, and self-responsibility.
>
> (No. 31/32/33, 108 Curriculum, 2014)

This extract indicates that students' civic responsibility covers two areas. One is international participation, which has been analysed previously. The other one is social participation at a local level, including pursuing social justice, appreciating nature, ensuring ecological sustainability, and striving for the common good. The sociocultural-oriented curriculum design is echoed in the *English Curriculum* as follows:

> Extract 5.8
>
> When planning the course, English teachers should integrate various (e.g., gender equality, human rights, environment, marine education, morality, life, law, technology, information, energy, safety, disaster prevention, family education, career planning, multiculturalism, reading literacy, outdoor education, international education, aboriginal education) to enrich the context of English learning and even guide them to change the status quo and create a better society.
>
> (No. 107, English Curriculum, 2018)

Both Extract 5.7 and 5.8 demonstrate that apart from the linguistic knowledge of English, students are expected to employ English as a tool for social communication and even social transformation. Accordingly, English teachers are positioned with a duty to integrate various social issues into their teaching content to raise students' awareness of the common social good.

In summary, these duties of English language teachers show that the *108 Curriculum* and the *Bilingual Nation Policy* underline the relationship between English competency, lifelong learning, and social participation. Moreover, this relationship is recursively emphasised in policy documents, positioning English teachers with the duty to grow students as autonomous lifelong learners and responsible citizens.

5.2.3 Critical evaluation

As presented in Position 1 and 2, there is a pervasive emphasis on English language teachers' duties to develop and support students as autonomous lifelong learners and responsible citizens. In this section, a critical evaluation of the potential consequences for teacher agency of such positionings is discussed. It can be noted that English language teachers are expected not just transmit and teach language competence to students; they are also required to agentively promote global citizenship and social justice in their teaching practices. Phrases such as 'global co-opetition', 'multicultural awareness', 'social responsibility', and 'English for social and economic benefits' are prevalent in the four policy texts, which reinforces notions that global citizenship and social justice are significant pedagogic goals for English language teachers in multilingual and multimodal times. However, to implement these goals into their practice is challenging for English language teachers in the Taiwanese context, as they might experience discrepancy between the requirement to educate students about social justice, on the one hand, and the kind of linguistic and academic performance expected from the parents and students, on the other hand. Given the limited teaching time, a wide achievement gap in some classes, conflicting belief systems between teachers, students, and parents, and little support in integrating social and global issues into teaching, it is important to offer English language teachers alternative models of teacher agency for social and global issues. For example, a model of teacher agency for social issues proposed by Pantić (2015) underscores the importance of sense of purpose, competence, autonomy, and reflexivity to develop teachers as agents of social change within the constraints of the structural, cultural, and institutional settings. Following the same vein, critical issues are raised in Section 8.2.2.2 that it is important for teachers themselves to have awareness of how their agency is ideologically interrelated with larger social structures and how they can challenge and transform the structures. It will be questionable how lofty ideals ascribed in the policy texts (i.e., to teach students to be agents for global and social justice) can be translated into daily teaching if teacher agency relating to social and global issues is not well-supported at the institutional and societal levels.

5.3 Theme 2: Duty to align teaching with the pedagogies proposed in LPP documents

One of the communicative goals of the LPP documents is to promote certain pedagogy for learning and teaching in the process of policy implementation. Therefore, the second theme constructed is that 'English teachers have a duty to align their teaching with the pedagogies proposed in LPP documents'. Within this theme, there are three composing positions, which are: (a) English teachers should teach English communicatively, (b) English teachers should incorporate digital technology to enhance teaching, and (c) English teachers should maximise students' success with differentiated teaching via digital technology. Unlike Theme 1 in which English teachers are positioned in relation to their students, Theme 2 illustrates how English teachers are positioned concerning the suggested pedagogies in the LPP discourse.

5.3.1 Position 3: English teachers should teach English communicatively.

This position is constructed by several repeated codes, including 'pragmatics and appropriateness', 'teach grammar in context', 'teach vocabulary in context', 'discourse awareness', and 'language skills over language knowledge'. English language education in Taiwan has witnessed several reforms since 1994, yet Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) remains the fundamental pedagogy inscribed in relevant policies over the past decades (Huang, 2016). Though not explicitly mentioned in the current *English Curriculum*, the traces of CLT can be identified in the following extracts.

> Extract 5.9
>
> The teaching materials should not only introduce the sentence structures but also emphasise pragmatics so that students understand how to communicate appropriately. In addition to the basic language components of phonetics, vocabulary, phrases, and grammatical sentence structures, students also need to learn the text structure of dialogues, paragraphs, essays, letters, and even stories. This is the so-called discourse, which is 'conversation' (referring to spoken language) and 'text' (referring to text or written language).
>
> (No. 87/89, English Curriculum, 2018)

The extract highlights that English teachers are expected to cultivate students' communicative proficiency and teach grammar meaningfully. It is worth noting that this is the first time the notion of 'discourse' appears in the English language curriculum history in Taiwan. By connecting *pragmatics* to *discourse structure*, it indicates how to teach pragmatics. English teachers should teach dialogues and texts as a whole to raise students' holistic discourse awareness and communicative competencies. As for the *Bilingual Nation Policy*, the term Communicative Language Teaching is not explicitly mentioned, yet it is manifested by emphasising communicative abilities. For example,

Extract 5.10

> …, aiming to raise citizens' English proficiency and enable them to readily open their mouths and speak English whenever they need to. With emphasis laid on building English environments, the substance of the Bilingual Nation Policy will enhance citizens' English listening, speaking, reading and writing communication abilities.
>
> (No. 135, Bilingual Blueprint, 2018)

This extract suggests that the *Bilingual Nation Policy* aims to develop citizens' communicative proficiency so that everyone can fluently express themselves in English without hindrance. In this sense, English teachers are positioned with the duty to cultivate students' communicative competencies.

As stated in the *Bilingual Nation Policy*, to develop students' English communicative proficiency and global vision, it is crucial to building a comprehensively Englishised learning environment. In the following extract, specific pedagogies are explicitly promoted to implement at different levels of education.

Extract 5.11

> Implementing the TEIE (Teaching English in English) policy in primary and secondary education, promoting CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) in designated primary and secondary learning domains or subjects, and promoting ESP (English for Specific Purposes) teaching and learning for vocational schools.
>
> (No. 122 / 125 / 126, Bilingual Proposal, 2018)

To build an Englishised environment for students to learn English in meaningful contexts, 'Teaching English in English' is mainly suggested for primary and secondary English teachers, CLIL for subject teachers in primary and secondary schools, and ESP for English teachers in vocational schools. English teachers are positioned as the role of adopting specified pedagogies with a focus on students' communicative proficiency and daily English use.

5.3.2 Position 4: English teachers should incorporate digital technology to enhance teaching.

This position is constructed by three prevalent codes, including 'digital literacy', 'technology as teaching resources', and 'technology to narrow the achievement gap'. Recent advancements in educational technology afford English teachers to liberate themselves from the routine of repetition and drills in their everyday classroom life and for English learners to engage in a more interactive and authentic environment. Such perspectives are also promoted in the four LPP documents, underpinning the notion of integrating digital technology in English classrooms. For example,

> Extract 5.12
>
> English teachers should combine various teaching audio-visual media and online resources to build a rich language-learning environment, so that students can achieve their expected goals in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In addition to textbooks, the following resources should be used as much as possible to enrich students' learning content. Various computer-assisted teaching resources, such as interactive CD-ROMs, relevant English language online learning (communication) platforms, etc. A variety of authentic language materials for teaching, such as menus, timetables, schedules, maps, signs, newspapers and magazines.
>
> (No. 105, English Curriculum, 2018)

Here, English teachers are positioned as actors to implement what is desired in the policy. This extract indexes that English teachers have a duty to employ technology and online resources as supplementary materials to facilitate students' contextualised English learning. Though the term 'multimodal teaching' is not explicitly expressed in the policy documents, this extract reveals that English language teaching is expected to have multimodal elements with audio-visual modes involved in the pedagogy. Similarly, students are also encouraged to use digital devices to learn pronunciation by themselves. For example,

> Extract 5.13
>
> When students are faced with unfamiliar words and cannot rely on the phonics rules to assist their pronunciation, they can use digital devices to pronounce the words.
>
> (No. 85, English Curriculum, 2018)

This extract shows that the new national curriculum requires both teachers and learners to have a certain level of digital literacy. In this sense, English teachers fulfil a dual role. For one thing, English teachers should keep themselves informed of educational technology advancements and make the best out of technology to facilitate students' learning. For another thing, teachers also have a duty to develop students' digital literacy in English classes.

As in the *Bilingual Nation Policy*, technology is not only regarded as a tool to facilitate English teaching and learning but also a strategy to narrow the gap between the rural and urban areas. The extract below features one of the examples that technology is considered a means to narrow the achievement gap.

> Extract 5.14
>
> In the past, it was difficult for the government to implement a one-size-fits-all bilingual policy across the country due to the constraints of funding and teacher recruitment. Now, emerging technologies and digital learning platforms can bridge the gap between urban and rural areas, so that children in remote areas can also enjoy the same online learning resources.
>
> (No. 108, Bilingual Blueprint, 2018)

By providing English learning platforms and media resources, the *Bilingual Nation Policy* positions English teachers in rural areas as the ones who are capable of executing bilingual policy and offering quality education for their students with the aid of technology. Furthermore, English teachers are expected to facilitate students' individualised learning and differentiated learning. Further analysis will be provided in the following position.

5.3.3 Position 5: English teachers should maximise students' success with individualised teaching via digital technology.

As discussed in Position 4, digital technology is an essential supplement to English teaching, such as providing authentic content and pronunciation instructions. Technology is also described as an effective means to narrow students' English proficiency gap between rural and urban areas. In this present position of 'English teachers should maximise students' success with differentiated and individualised teaching', technology is further employed to conduct differentiated teaching. Prominent codes within this position include: 'teaching based on individual aptitude and proficiency', 'adaptive teaching', 'student-centred teaching', and 'multiple assessment'. The extract below is one of the examples that teachers are encouraged to employ technology to provide individualised learning for students.

Extract 5.15

> making effective use of digital technology and promoting individualised learning…using emerging technologies such as AR and AI, distance digital learning, digital learning partnership, online learning platforms, English cloud platforms, and other technology tools, to close the gap between schools and create learning opportunities.

(No. 118, Bilingual Blueprint, 2018)

This extract positions English teachers as the ones who should facilitate individualised and student-centred teaching by integrating various technologies to maximise students' learning opportunities. Apart from the aid of technology, multiple assessment is also a proposed method for English teachers to enhance differentiated teaching. For example,

Extract 5.16

> Teachers should adopt multiple assessment and consider both formative and summative evaluation. Teachers should make good use of formative assessment, understand the starting point of students' learning and individual progress, and conduct differentiated teaching.

(No. 106, English Curriculum, 2018)

In addition to the paper-and-pencil test, there are different proposed methods, such as oral speaking, listening test, written report, and portfolio assessment. It also suggests that the assessment of listening and speaking should be based on oral exercises, role-playing, pairing, and group. Portfolio assessment can be presented in multiple ways, such as paper folders of works, text files, audio-visual files, and online platforms to record students' performance in various learning activities. This extract foregrounds that learning assessments are collections of evidence-based data, and the data should be utilised appropriately and adequately. The assessment results can serve as a reference for teachers to improve their teaching methods and students' learning outcomes and for schools to improve their curricula. English language teachers are positioned to analyse students' learning based on their assessment results, adjust their teaching methods and materials accordingly, and provide tutoring. For students who fall behind, teachers should adjust their teaching methods and conduct remedial teaching; for fast-learning students, the teaching progress should be accelerated, and course content should be enriched and broadened.

In summary, the duties within the theme 'English teachers have a duty to align their teaching with the proposed pedagogies in LPP documents' illustrates that English teachers are positioned in relation to the pedagogies and technology they should employ in their teaching practices. Specifically, the discourse-based English teaching methods (Richards & Rodgers, 2014), such as TEIE, CLIL, and ESP, are explicitly stated in the policy documents, suggesting that English teachers are expected to teach about real-world content through English.

5.3.4 Critical evaluation

As shown in Position 3, 4, and 5, English language teachers are assigned the duties to employ digital technology and adopt imported pedagogies (e.g., teach English in English, CLIL and ESP) in the context of educational reforms and curricular changes. For teachers living in shifting curricula, such positionings mean that they may feel threatened, or at least experience discomfort or dissonance, in relation to these new pedagogical practices and new standards of teaching performance, which makes agency crucial to 'recognize language teachers as reflexive and reflective agents' (Gao, 2019, p. 164). Consequently, it is important for teachers themselves to be aware of and hopefully reflective about their agentive possibilities and the implementational space they have in the structural constraints and affordances (Hornberger, 2005). In addition, it is important to examine how teachers renew, reposition, and re-agent their professional identity within a given pedagogical context. For example, as will be shown in Chapter Six and Seven, the four case teachers aligned their teaching selectively with the pedagogies proposed in LPP documents and at the same time, they also agentively responded to the policy by creatively appropriating the structural provision to realise their localised LPP agency. Therefore, imported pedagogies ascribed in the policy texts are not necessarily negative to teacher agency. Rather, such positionings in LPP discourse may bring about momentum for teachers to exercise their professional agency in their community and classroom practices.

5.4 Theme 3: Duty and right to grow professionally and become lifelong learners

The last theme identified in the LPP data set is that 'English teachers have a duty and right to grow professionally and become lifelong learners'. This theme can be regarded as a response to the issue of how English teachers are being prepared and supported in CPD activities in multilingual and multimodal times. Relevant extracts within this theme are further categorised into three positions: (a) English teachers have a right to seek professional resources, (b) English teachers should participate in CPD activities, and (c) English teachers should engage in public dialogues with relevant stakeholders. It is worth noting that so far, the extracts have indicated English teachers' duties in the four LPP documents. However, as discussed in the literature review Section 3.2, macro-level LPP is not exclusively the source of constraints and impositions; it can also provide affordances and enablements for the local agency. If creatively appropriated by teachers, the 'implementational space' (Hornberger, 2005, p. 606) afforded by the LPP can offer structural agency for local teachers. As shown in the subsequent analysis, there is a certain discursive space for English teachers to claim their rights and agency from the policies.

5.4.1 Position 6: English teachers have a right to seek professional assistance and resources.

According to the Positioning Theory, ‘rights are expressed as anticipatory or retrospective justifications for the propriety of demands or requests for action by someone else’ (Harré & Slocum, 2003, p.125). In this sense, duties and rights are interdependent and complementary. As shown in the previous analysis, the duties assigned to English language teachers are numerous. Nevertheless, there is also space discursively constructed for teachers’ rights — English teachers have a right to seek professional assistance and resources. For example,

Extract 5.17

> Governments should provide budgets for teachers to develop diverse and appropriate teaching resources. The central and local governments should offer related education funds to implement the school-based curriculum plan.
>
> (No. 45, 108 Curriculum, 2014)

To encourage teachers to design school-based courses to make ELT materials more locally relevant for their students, governments must financially support teachers’ innovative teaching. The extract below specifically mentions that teachers have the right to seek external assistance to develop their professional development.

Extract 5.18

> Off-campus professional resources can be utilised to facilitate teacher reflections and professional dialogues among communities to guide the reform and innovation of school curricula and teaching methods.
>
> (No. 41, 108 Curriculum, 2014)

This extract suggests that as autonomous agents in their teaching, teachers are encouraged to conduct professional dialogues and reflections in a supportive environment, with their community peers or with external experts and scholars. Here, teachers are positioned as entitled to seek internal and external professional assistance. Another extract exemplifies how school administration and organisations should facilitate teachers’ professional development.

Extract 5.19

> Schools should provide adequate assistance and incentives to teachers who strive to develop (and have shown achievements in) curriculum design, teaching materials, teaching strategies, learning assessment, and tutoring measures.

(No. 56, 108 Curriculum, 2014)

This extract mentions not only assistance but also 'incentives' for teachers to conduct innovative teachings. This is the only extract in the data set that refers to teachers' motivation in the process of CPD, that is, the incentives to make a change in their professional life. Here, teachers are positioned as agents who need tangible assistance and motivational encouragement.

5.4.2 Position 7: English teachers should participate in CPD activities.

To stay informed and updated with the advancement in the knowledge-base of English language teaching is fundamental for English teachers who consider themselves professionals (Murray & Christison, 2019). Therefore, the concept of lifelong learning is promoted not only for students but also for teachers. Position 7 is constructed by several prevalent codes, including 'teaching professionalism', 'professional learning community', 'CPD', and 'school-based curriculum'. In the four LPP documents, several extracts focus on English language teachers' duty to participate in CPD activities. For example,

Extract 5.20

> Teachers are professionals who must continue their professional development to support students' learning. Teacher professional development involves cultivating disciplinary and content knowledge, improving pedagogical ability, and developing passionate attitude toward educational profession. Teachers should form professional learning communities to jointly explore and share teaching experiences, actively participate in on-campus and off-campus learning and training to receive latest information on educational developments, and make full use of social resources to improve their curriculum designs, teaching strategies, and learning assessments in order to improve students' learning outcomes.

(No. 51/52, 108 Curriculum, 2014)

This extract highlights that English teachers have a duty to engage in various CPD activities to consolidate their knowledge base to help students learn better. It also mentions that English teachers have a duty to join the community of practice to reflect on their teaching, learn from their professional peers, and gain insights into their pedagogical designs. The extract below further illustrates how professional communities can facilitate suitable school-based curricula for students.

> Extract 5.21
>
> The school-based curriculum should be the result of teachers' long-term professional development activities in the communities. After continuous training, development, clear and reasonable planning, the curriculum helps students to clarify the learning direction and improve learning effectiveness. And teachers' continuous dialogue and cooperation in the professional community can also help improve the curriculum.
>
> (No. 74, English Curriculum, 2018)

Extract 5.20 and 5.21 both suggest that English teachers learn about updated professional knowledge and develop a better understanding of the entire ELT enterprise by learning with their professional peers within the communities. This mode of CPD advocates a sociocultural-oriented knowledge base building. Teachers are positioned to 'theorise what they practice and practice what they theorise' (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 213) in their contexts and develop a school-based curriculum. Relevant extracts also promote the notion that the knowledge base for English language teachers is not top-down, not static, not packaged by experts. Instead, it is a socio-professional practice (Freeman et al., 2019). These extracts all position English teachers with a duty to collaborate with professional peers for lifelong career learning.

5.4.3 Position 8: English teachers should engage in public dialogues with relevant stakeholders.

The preceding analysis has shown that teaching is conceptualised in the LPP discourse as a socio-professional practice. The key stakeholders involved in this enterprise are not just teachers and their students but also teachers' professional peers and students' parents. This section will illustrate how the policies position English teachers with a duty to engage in public dialogues with relevant stakeholders. For example,

> Extract 5.22
>
> To improve teaching quality and students' learning outcomes, culture of peer-learning should be fostered among teachers. Both school principals and teachers should give at least one public teaching demonstration per year and welcome the participation of members in the community. Accordingly, the principal and teachers can receive feedback from their teaching colleagues as well as students' parents.
>
> (No. 55, 108 Curriculum, 2014)

Teachers' professional development can be embodied in one public teaching demonstration. With the participation of key stakeholders, including school principals, colleagues, and parents, teachers have a duty to communicate their teaching ideas (i.e., professional ability, subject matter knowledge, and students' learning effectiveness), receive feedback, and improve their teaching iteratively. The extract below foregrounds the role parents play in teachers' professional development.

> Extract 5.23
>
> Schools should encourage parent associations to establish parent learning communities or parent-teacher co-learning communities to improve educational knowledge among parents, strengthen collaboration between parents and teachers, and support students' effective learning and adaptive development.
>
> (No. 63, 108 Curriculum, 2014)

This extract indicates that parents are also essential agents in teachers' learning community. It positions teachers and parents as educational partners who should collaborate to facilitate students' learning and lifelong development. This is another example to demonstrate that in socio-professional teaching practice, teachers are positioned with a duty to have a positive communication channel among students, parents, administrative staff, and professional peers to establish a co-learning community.

5.4.4 Critical evaluation

As presented in Position 6, 7, and 8, English teachers are positioned with the duty and right to grow professionally and become lifelong learners. The analysis in Section 5.4 indicates that the macro-level LPP offers a certain discursive space for English teachers to exercise their agency by joining CPD activities in local communities. However, the view of English language teachers as lifelong learners is, to some extent, problematic in the sense that the LPP discursively assumes that teacher agency is something neutral and spontaneous (Miller, 2016) in the process of implementing desired educational goals. As will be shown in Chapter Six and Seven, there is apparent distinction between how language teacher agency is conceptualised in LPP discourse and how localised agency is enacted in certain ways at the ground level—what I term as structure-in-agency and agency-in-structure. The purpose of making these comparisons is to demonstrate that the implied neoliberal positioning 'teachers as lifelong learners' is far more implicated than what is portrayed in LPP texts. The dialogical complexity of structure and agency reveals that English teachers are not only passive recipients of policy. Rather, their language teacher agency needs to be examined from broader social structures and ethnographic accounts. This is what the following two analysis chapters aim to do—to examine how English teachers agentively co-construct their professional identities in their community and classroom practices.

5.5 Chapter summary

So far, the thematic analysis has revealed that the four LPP texts recursively position English teachers in relation to the proposed pedagogies and relevant stakeholders, including students, professional communities, parents, research institutes, and local governments. Based on the three themes relating to the duties and rights ascribed in policy documents, an overarching theme in this data set is formulated: English teachers have duties and rights to invest themselves and their students as lifelong learners. In this section, I will revisit relevant positions that construct this overarching theme and conclude this chapter with a summary.

As analysed in Themes 1 and 2, English teachers are expected to cultivate their students as lifelong learners. The positions foreground that English teachers should invest students in having an active mindset, mastering learning strategies, and cultivating social responsibility. These qualities, which are perceived by policymakers as the most relevant capacity for students' future competitiveness, imply that English teachers have duties to integrate the notion of lifelong learning into students' learning journeys. To achieve the goal of cultivating lifelong learners, it requires English teachers to invest themselves in lifelong learning and continuous professional development. As shown in Themes 3 and 4, English teachers are expected to stay current with the knowledge base development that underpins their professional identity and agency. A total of three themes and eight positions identified in the LPP documents reveals how the policies discursively construct English teachers' *positional identity*, *invested identity* and *structural agency*.

For *positional identity*, the policies position English teachers in relation to their students (Harré, 2012; Kayi-Aydar, 2019b). To grow students as lifelong learners for the future society, teachers themselves are required to be lifelong learners as well. The policies also position English teachers in relation to their community partners, including professional peers, external experts, and parents. English teaching is conceptualised in the LPP as a socio-professional practice (Freeman et al., 2019). English teachers' professional identity is co-constructed via community members' 'joint enterprise, mutual engagement, and shared repertoire' (Wenger, 1999, p. 73). This also embodies what recent LPP researchers maintain — to integrate multiple LPP actors into the multi-layered LPP contexts to remove the micro-macro dichotomy (Johnson, 2013; Liddicoat, 2019). Thirdly, the policies position English teachers in relation to the pedagogies they conduct in classroom practices. Specifically, the employment of educational technology, teaching English in English, EMI and CLIL are promoted to enhance students' English communicative proficiency. In this sense, English teachers are positioned as policy and curriculum implementors.

For *invested identity*, the findings show that the policies position English teachers themselves at the centre of their professional development. This positioning can invest teachers to be the agents of change. Instead of being a knowledge consumer from the research field of language teacher education, English teachers are assigned duties and rights to generate the situated teaching theory and practice. Through constant engagement in CPD activities, English teachers are invested in building their professional identity, making sense of their teaching experience, interacting with various stakeholders, and constructing their knowledge base. In addition, English teachers are positioned with duties to attend to students' individual needs and to design differentiated learning activities via digital technology. Given the affordances of educational technology, both teachers and students can employ technology as a new form of capital and invest in their identities as lifelong learners. This also echoes what Darvin and Norton (2017) emphasise that language learner investment is co-constructed by language teacher investment.

As for language teacher agency, the LPP documents discursively position English teachers as material curators who bring authentic English to their classrooms, as decision-makers who understand the complexity of their contexts, as facilitators who maximise students' success, as bridge-makers who narrow students' English proficiency gaps between the rural and urban areas. Such positionings shift English teachers from the role of traditional knowledge transmitters in the state-controlled curriculum to the role of understanding their students' needs in their teaching contexts. In this agentive process, teachers have more leverage to make English teaching locally appropriate for their students. This could be considered as *structural agency* offered by LPP discourse.

A total of eight positions are identified in this data set, seven of which are duty-based. In other words, there is only one position dedicated to the right of teachers—English teachers have a right to seek professional assistance and resources. On the one hand, if the *a priori* claim of 'For every duty there is a right and for every right a duty' (Harré, 2012, p.10) is reasonable, it could be argued that the duties and rights of being a professional English teacher are asymmetric. The duties include considering students' present and future learning needs, raising students' local and global awareness, conducting communicative language teaching, incorporating technology in classroom teaching, and engaging in public dialogues with relevant stakeholders. English teachers are positioned as multi-tasking educators to perform the duties in their teaching practices with limited resources provided. On the other hand, it is arguable that 'paradoxically, by understanding our lack of agency, we have more agency' (Rymes, 2016, p. 91). When English teachers are aware of the structural constraints, in every decision and action they make to overcome the constraints, they paradoxically renew their professional agency and therefore construct their multiple identities as a teacher in multilingual and multimodal times. This is what the following two analysis chapters aim to do—to examine how English teachers agentively interpret and implement the policies in their community and classroom practices.

In summary, this chapter has aimed to address RQ1: *How are English teachers positioned by the educational language policy texts and what are the potential consequences for teacher agency of such positionings?* The findings have shown that the purposes of the LPP discourse are to promote communication between relevant education entities, facilitate flexibility in school curriculum development, support teaching and learning activities, integrate online teaching resources, ensure students' right to learn and enhance teachers' professionalism and responsibilities, and eventually develop teachers and their students as lifelong learners. It is in the discursive space that English teachers' duties and rights are mandated in the policies. In the attempt to understand how English teachers are positioned in LPP discourse, it is vital to acknowledge the complexity of each teaching context. The policies provide general guidelines for teaching and learning English at a macro level, and the teachers at the classroom level have interpretative agency to implement the policies. Having identified three themes that the policies construct English teachers' agency and identity, the next chapter will investigate the four case teachers' self-narrative concerning their multilingual and multimodal teaching experiences.

6 Chapter Six: Four Narratives of English Teachers and Their Contexts

In the previous chapter, I have analysed four LPP documents and identified three themes of how educational language policy discursively positions English language teachers in terms of their professional duties and rights. This chapter will work on RQ 2: *How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their accounts of multilingual and multimodal teaching experiences?* This data set is composed of three parts. One data source is the interview transcripts, another is fieldwork notes, and the other is the teachers' public posts and products on social media (i.e., Facebook and personal blogs). As discussed in Section 4.4.3, the Internet is also an important site for ethnographers to collect data, given that online and offline worlds are so intertwined for contemporary social actors (Rogers, 2010). Teachers' reflective posts in the online communities can be conceived as 'small stories' (Barkhuizen, 2014) constructed locally through their everyday actions and reflections. Such small stories shared among community members can be employed by researchers as an ethnographic lens to investigate how teachers embody their identity and agency in their mundane contexts. As argued in Chapter 1 and 3, the stance of this thesis is that LTI and LTA research should examine how local teachers mediate the structural LPP in their communities. By analysing teachers' reflective writing, the data presented in this chapter will examine evidence for the dialogic relationship between teacher identity, agency, and policy. This chapter will briefly introduce the four case teachers' professional backgrounds and relevant contextual information. Then, three themes identified in this data set will be presented. These themes illustrate how the four teachers discursively construct their professional identity and agency concerning educational language policy and their community of practice.

6.1 Four case teachers' professional background and teaching context

This section will briefly introduce the four case teachers' professional backgrounds and teaching contexts. In particular, I foreground their small stories based on their experiences and perspectives revolving around their multilingual and multimodal teaching practices. Led by RQ2: *How do English teachers position themselves and construct identities and agency in* *their accounts of multilingual and multimodal teaching experiences?*, I conducted a pre-observation interview, aiming to establish a positive rapport with my research participants and better understand the background of the teachers and students. The interview was taken in a semi-structural way for around one hour. The general questions were as below:

- Please share your teaching background and experience.
- What about students' learning background and performance?
- What is your motivation to integrate technology into your teaching?
- What are the pros and cons of technology in language classrooms?
- Does technology have any impact on classroom interaction?
- What are the constraints and difficulties of using technology so far? What can the administrative staff and MOE provide to support your teaching?
- What is your opinion about the *108 Curriculum*?
- What is your opinion about the *Bilingual Nation Policy*?

Apart from the pre-established questions, I also had informal chats with my teacher participants before and after my class observations. The topics ranged from lesson plans, teaching reflection, class anecdotes, and emotional remarks. Complemented by the information I received from the ethnographic chats, the interview data presents four different stories of how English language teachers narrated their confidence and doubts, joys and pains, love and hate toward multilingual and multimodal teaching. Table 6.1 below summarises the four case teachers' backgrounds and teaching contexts.

Table 6.1 Four case teachers' professional backgrounds and teaching context

	Case 1	**Case 2**	**Case 3**	**Case 4**
Name	Ruth	Sherry	Cari	Wendy
Educational background	MA in TESOL (Taiwan)	MA in TESOL (US)	MA in TESOL (UK)	MA in TESOL (Taiwan)
Teaching experience	28 years	14 years	5 years	18 years

Digital teaching started in	Year 2005	Year 2017	Year 2015	Year 2017
Teaching context	Girls high school (aged 15~18), located in Taipei	Vocational high school (aged 15~18), located in Tainan	Junior high school (aged 12~15), located in Changhua	Senior high school (aged 15~18), located in Taipei
Frequently used hardware/software	Chromebook / Google Classroom	Google Classroom	Acer tablets / Interactive blackboard / Epic Digital Library	iPad / Google Classroom /
Special comments	Moderator of an online community with around 6000 teachers.	The first teacher who introduced Google Classroom at her school.	A frequent speaker on digital teaching.	Apple Distinguished Educator, Top 100 Ed Tech Elite in 2019, Innovative Teacher in 2020.

6.1.1 Case One

At first, I approached a candidate case teacher, Alex (pseudonym), and he told me that his classes were not available for collecting data during my fieldwork timeline. So I asked if he could recommend any teachers that would be suitable cases for my research. Alex responded '(.) I think Ruth will be an ideal case for your study'. He proposed that I attend the Google Edu @Tainan Conference organised by his school the following month and network with Ruth, who was also one of the keynote speakers. So I went to the conference and joined Ruth's workshop on integrating Google Classroom into English language teaching. During break time, I had a chance to talk to Ruth and was delighted to know that she was interested in participating in my research.

Ruth (pseudonym) was a senior high school teacher teaching English for over twenty-eight years. Her digital teaching practice started in 2005. When asked about her early digital teaching experience, she shared the following anecdote:

> There was a platform called *I Will*, where students could submit their assignments and teachers could design online materials. At that time, we didn't have WIFI, only wired networks were available in computer classrooms. I once asked students to finish the practice on *I Will* as homework. Students came back complaining that they didn't have wired networks at home. So I gave up the idea of encouraging students to learn English online at home.

Ruth used this example to emphasise the importance of the network infrastructure in the classrooms. She went further on the point that for teachers interested in digital teaching, necessary hardware and software infrastructure was one of the significant reasons for teachers' sustained motivation to employ technology in their teaching. Apart from the issue of infrastructure, she thought that teachers themselves should have the right mindset to better conduct digital teaching by setting a realistic lesson plan, adding '(.) yesterday I just had a seminar with a group of high school teachers (.) and I found most of them had an overly high level of expectation as well as anxiety towards digital teaching'. She felt that 'the right mindset' was not about possessing excellent digital skills or a high level of technology expertise but doing digital practices with experimental attitudes to see what works in their teaching context. She expressed the notion of 'the right mindset' in the following terms:

> I am as bold as brass. For example, the first time I tried collaborative editing on Google Docs in class, students reported that the WIFI speed was so slow that they couldn't even open any tab on their Chromebook. I was like 'All right. We can try it later or next time. Don't worry'. No matter what happens, I just keep calm and carry on.

In addition, Ruth mentioned that the design of digital teaching should not be tedious just because teachers found certain APPs worked well and then stuck to them without further variation. Especially for senior high school students, if the digital learning activities were not intellectually challenging, they would get bored quickly. Ruth explained that most students were positive towards digital learning—unless the APPs or digital materials were too tedious to engage in or too complicated to manage for students.

Classroom interaction with technology is a hyper-dynamic process, which requires English teachers to observe if learning occurs through digital activities attentively. Ruth realised that in either traditional classrooms or digitalised ones, Teacher-Student and Student-Student interactions were all facilitated by well-designed teaching plans. If designed well, traditional classes could also provide interactive space for students to participate; if ill-designed, digital classes could be monotonous and teacher-dominated. Therefore, she felt that for a complete (before-during-after) digital activity, teachers had to iteratively revise, reflect on, and recycle the activity because, for both teachers and students, digital learning was a relatively new practice. Both teachers and students in the digitalised classrooms need time and space to experience the digital trial and error. Ruth shared her tips on how to manage digital classroom interactions:

> Setting a realistic goal for each class is an important factor underlying positive classroom interactions. You can lead your students step by step, one class after one class, make them feel assured in digital activities, and provide successful learning opportunities for them. Once they are confident, Student-Student interactions will increase greatly.

Ruth provided an example of using Google Classroom to enhance Student-Student interaction, '(.) I asked them to write down their group discussion on Google Docs and submit it to Google Classroom (.) so that the whole class can co-edit and comment on each group's work'. She believed that the essence of digital teaching was not about being paperless but being interactive.

Ruth also mentioned another advantage of using educational technology in classrooms: to provide diversified learning materials for students to engage in. Traditionally, English teachers used to provide textbook listening exercises that were not authentic, and students might not be interested in those activities, but '(.) now with online resources, students can choose intriguing materials from the list I provided (.) to a certain extent. students are given space for individualised learning'. On the other hand, Ruth continued, teachers had to accept that there was a gap between what teachers intended to do and what students did with the digital devices. For instance, her students often used Google Translate for English words and phrases. Even though she had taught them how to use online dictionaries and corpus to learn vocabulary and collocation in contexts, most of the time, students still used Google Translate as a quick fix. By tacit negotiation, Ruth finally reached a consensus with her students. She said '(.) you can't control the way students use the technology (.) as long as they complete the tasks (.) then I don't interfere with every step they take in the process'.

As for the ‘teaching English in English’ policy, Ruth held a relatively positive attitude towards building an encouraging Englishised learning environment. In fact, long before the *Bilingual Nation Policy*, Ruth had used English as the primary medium of instruction and Chinese was used only when necessary. She believed that by learning English in English, students would have more exposure to English and enhance their listening and speaking proficiency. Ruth mentioned that she had had a chance to observe English classes in a non-English speaking country. She noticed that the English classes were all conducted in English, and there was little resistance from the teachers and students. The reason behind this, she believed, was the consensus among key stakeholders, including policymakers, parents, teachers, and students.

Nevertheless, in Taiwan, people tend to consider those who speak English in classrooms or in daily life were ‘showing off their English proficiency’. Take her experience as an example. Some of the students and parents were not favouring her teaching English in English. She found that there were clashing views on how to teach and learn English better. On the one hand, most students and parents agreed that English proficiency was fundamental. On the other hand, some did not appreciate using English as the instructional medium in English classes. She thought it was a pity that the *Bilingual Nation Policy* did not aim to provide a friendly English-speaking environment and that most of the English teachers and parents around her were against this well-intended policy. To make the *Bilingual Nation Policy* successful, she believed that:

> Instead of mandating English teachers to use English as the medium of instruction, we need to create an encouraging social climate for English learning and teaching. Of course, this includes debunking the myths about English and providing incentives to use English in daily life. I think this is the key.

She emphasised that English teachers would be more willing to teach English in English if well supported by society. The success of the *Bilingual Nation Policy* was not merely built on the governmental enforcement and English teachers but on every citizen in the society.

6.1.2 Case Two

The candidate case teacher, Alex, could not participate in my research, so he recommended two teachers instead. One was Ruth, and the other was Sherry (pseudonym), an English teacher at a vocational high school. Alex told me that Sherry had tried to integrate Google Classroom and relevant technology into her classes for one year. Alex was invited by Sherry to conduct a peer classroom observation and provided feedback on her digital teaching practices. Alex suggested that Sherry, as a newcomer to 'digital English teaching', could offer fresh insights into my study. When I contacted Sherry and told her that Alex recommended her as my research participant and that Ruth was my first case study teacher, Sherry enthusiastically replied, '(.) it's my honour to join this research'. Later, I coincidentally found that Sherry had previously attended Ruth's seminar about Google Classroom in English language teaching two years before. Sherry added '(.) both Ruth and Alex have taken this journey for so long (.) they are far far away from me (.) I'm just a newbie', indicating that she was still exploring how to employ technology in her class.

Sherry taught at a vocational high school in Tainan City. This was the only city in Taiwan where the English language was promoted as a second official language by the city council. Tainan City, the 'cultural capital of Taiwan', attracted many foreign tourists to visit its Taiwanese historic sites. Therefore, the *Bilingual Nation Policy* was regarded as an accelerator to internationalise the citizens. Most political figures in Tainan City welcomed pedagogies such as EMI and CLIL (Chen et al., 2020). When asked about her opinion regarding the *Bilingual Nation Policy*, Sherry commented, '(.) what the policy promises is nothing but a castle in the air'. She explained that most of the students in her classes had little English proficiency, and what her students needed was step-by-step guidance to build a solid foundation for their English proficiency. She also shared her observations when she travelled in Europe. Most Europeans could code-switching fluently among various languages, but they never learned English through textbooks but through real-life interactions. She pointed out that in Taiwan, most English teachers and their students lacked real-life English communication like this, '(.) let alone learning English or subject content in English'.

Sherry had been teaching English at various vocational high schools for fourteen years. The current vocational high school she was based in was commercially oriented, so her students were from different departments, such as accounting, tourism, international trade, and applied business English. This was her second year of integrating technological tools into her teaching. When asked about her motivation for employing technology in class, she stated:

> I want to bring authenticity to my English classes. I think students are more motivated when they learn through authentic English materials. Dull and dreary textbooks make them sleepy. Technology can help me to stimulate their English learning so that they don't feel bored.

Despite her enthusiasm for educational technology, she acknowledged that she did not introduce technology to all her classes. At the moment, only students from applied business English had the opportunity to experience her digital teaching. Sherry had several reasons. For one thing, students from other departments generally do not have a high level of English proficiency. It would pose a cognitive burden for the students to learn English and handle technology simultaneously. For another thing, Sherry felt that the tight schedule left little margin for her to design tailor-made digital activities for her classes. She said that preparing for a digital class was highly time-consuming. As a self-taught learner of digital teaching herself, she spent a tremendous amount of time learning the new APPs and software, exploring the possibilities of different digital tools, and looking for 'the sweet spot of compromise': students' willingness to accept digital learning tasks, teachers' negotiation with students, and the affordances and constraints of technology.

In terms of students' willingness to accept digital learning tasks, she said that it took her some time to convince students that her digital teaching would not waste their time but enhance their English proficiency in the long run. She said:

> At first, students were like, 'What is this? Why bother?' because they thought this was not helpful for their English learning. In addition, I was the first teacher in this school who employed technology in class, so they were like, 'Why don't we have the same learning way like others?' To be honest, I felt very frustrated because of the clash of interests between my good intention and their preference. So, I promised them I would balance well between traditional textbooks and digital learning. Later, I found that once get started,

> students were very skilful at using technology to complete the tasks I designed.

For example, Sherry designed a vocabulary chart on Google Docs and asked each group to work collaboratively to fill in the blank. Students could co-edit the chart and share their work with the whole class, and Sherry could also provide online comments immediately. She told her students '(.) this is a collaborative note produced by everyone (.) if necessary, you can print them out for your exam preparation'. Sherry found that linking educational technology to students' exam results was a convincing way to move students from traditional learning to digital learning. With regard to teachers' negotiation with students, Sherry gave me another instance:

> At first, I asked them to do the vocabulary activity on another APP, but they complained the APP was irrelevant to their learning. So, I revised the activity a little bit and moved the activity to Google Docs. Interestingly enough, students felt it was a good way to learn vocabulary, so they were quite active in this activity.

After the negotiation, both students and Sherry felt satisfied with the way of learning vocabulary on Google Docs. It illustrates that Sherry was willing to respect students' voices, and at the same time, she managed to strike a balance between students' needs and her teaching goals.

As for the affordances and constraints of technology, Sherry gave a bittersweet testimony to her digital teaching. The sweet part of it, she said, was that technology afforded students more opportunities for authentic and interactive exposure to English. Technology also transformed classroom interactions from a static Teacher-Student position to a dynamic Teacher-Student and Student-Student interactions. In this sense, technology was a key parameter to reshape the classroom where learning behaviour occurred. The bitter part was, among other things, that she was left to manage the technology-related business by herself. Though digital teaching was promoted in the LPP discourse, she received little support from her administrative colleagues. For instance, there were no iPads or Chromebooks provided by her school, so students in her class had to use their own smartphones to complete the tasks. For instance, the WIFI was not stable in the classroom, so she had to share her mobile traffic to make everyone online. Sherry also mentioned that more professional activities relating to digital teaching should be provided so that teachers interested in educational technology could have a sustained motivation to do more for their students.

6.1.3 Case Three

After I closed Case Two, one of my acquaintances introduced me to a junior high school teacher, mentioning that '(.) Cari is very good at using technology (.) we just invited her to give a talk on her digital teaching last week'. When I contacted Cari (pseudonym), she gave me a positive reply about taking part in my research and later, we organised an interview meeting at her school. Cari had just finished her Master's degree in ELT at a UK-based university two years earlier, so she could relate to my situation and be willing to help. As she also planned to pursue her PhD in the future, she would like to discuss further the issues relating to my PhD study. Cari had been a junior high school English teacher for five years. Before this, Cari spent six months completing her teaching practicum with an experienced teacher after she graduated from the department of English Language and Literature. She mentioned that her teaching mentor played an essential role in her career development, '(.) I learned a lot from him (.) including my digital teaching (.) this is also inspired by him'.

Cari's school, located in the central part of Taiwan, had 12 classes. She had four classes to teach, two for seven graders and two for ninth graders. There were around 30 students in each class. When it came to her motivation to employ technology in class, she explained that teachers nowadays should be capable of transforming real-world knowledge into comprehensible and doable teaching activities for their students. She believed that technology could help her achieve this teaching goal better. Cari continued sharing her positive experiences of conducting digital practices in class. For example, she employed Google Maps to bring cultural substance into her class. She said:

> I pinpointed on Google Maps the site of the World's 20 most popular museums. Next, I asked them: What do you observe? Students would answer: Most of them are located in Europe and America. Then I summarised their comments and discussed the geographical and cultural context.

She visualised her teaching content with the aid of Google Maps, expanding a language classroom into an engaging learning site where students could obtain contextualised and cultural substance along with English learning. She said, ‘(.) so that I can package vocabulary and grammar in various digital activities to motivate these teenagers’. Cari mentioned several times how digital hardware and software, including Word Cloud, Epic Digital Library, and Google APPs, could improve her teaching efficiency to teach more in class.

Despite the diversity and efficiency educational technology can afford, Cari expressed her frustrations at the time wasted when technical glitches happened in class. She said:

> You can access lots of eBooks on this website. But stable WIFI is a prerequisite for successful digital pedagogy. Other than that, the quality of tablets is also a key aspect. Sometimes I have to spend the whole class tackling unexpected glitches. That’s why sometimes I delay my teaching schedule, which makes me feel frustrated.

Therefore, she usually had backup plans or otherwise improvised alternative tasks in class. She complained that in one of her classes last week, most students had problems accessing the eBooks because of the WIFI glitches. Instead of sticking to her intended plan, Cari asked students to use the physical picture books to accomplish the tasks. This highlights the importance of being flexible about digital teaching plans. When glitches happened, she had to make swift decisions to save time. Also, she expressed that there were only 18 tablets available for the whole school, so they had to share one tablet among two or three students. Because of this, she had to abandon some digital activities that were designed to be individually based.

Concerning students’ response to classroom digital learning, Cari said that students at this age (12 ~ 15 years old) were skilful at using different APPs and online resources. Most of her students were engaged in the digital activities she designed, which made her feel rewarded. Nevertheless, she also acknowledged that she did not provide much space for learner autonomy in her digital designs. She observed that junior high school students lacked self-control, so she had to give students explicit and step-by-step guidance in the process. In this sense, students were not allowed to have much time and space for digital trial and error. She said, ‘(.) so when I prepare a lesson, I usually have a very detailed plan for every step (.) in this way I can maximise the digital learning effect’. Although designing and conducting digital teaching was a strenuous mental and physical exercise for her, Cari believed that she had a duty to filter out inappropriate online content and delimit her students' range of digital choices. When asked about parents' attitudes towards educational technology in English classes, Cari said she had experiences negotiating with parents:

> For some of the assignments, students had to accomplish them online. Some parents didn't allow them to access the internet at home, even though their kids told them this was the homework assigned by Cari. I usually made phone calls and communicated with the parents. I would explain why students need to do their homework online and ask them to allocate time for their children to use the computer or smartphones.

This example illustrates that Cari not only spent time preparing and giving digital classes but spent time negotiating with the parents. Ideally, her pedagogy aimed to align with the mainstream LPP discourse, such as 'to incorporate digital technology to enhance teaching'. However, in practice, her professionalism and voice were sometimes struggling to be acknowledged by parents.

6.1.4 Case Four

In the process of looking for suitable cases for my research, I came across a Facebook article posted by my friend who worked as a junior high English teacher. In the post, my friend talked about her notes and reflections on a seminar relating to educational technology. Her post intrigued me to find out who the lecturer was. With the lecturer's name, Wendy (pseudonym), I found her blog. After reading some articles about her digital practices, I decided to invite Wendy to take part in my research. So I contacted Wendy via Facebook messenger. She told me that she was surprised to know her digital practices caught a researcher like me to investigate her digital classroom interaction and that she felt honoured to participate in my research. So we arranged a meeting at her school. Before the meeting, I read through all the articles on her blog to know her better. By doing so, it helped me to have a better interaction during the interview as if I had known her very well about her digital teaching.

Wendy had been an English language teacher for eighteen years. At first, she taught at a junior high school for two years. Then, after acquiring her Master's degree, she taught at senior high schools for sixteen years. Her school was located in Taipei City, with around 1000 students. She had three classes to teach, and her total teaching time was twenty-one hours per week.

There were around 40 students in each class, and all students were in their last year of high school study. The devices she used in class were iPads. She was a certified iPad Ed Teacher and was often invited to share her experience of integrating technology into English teaching. Wendy narrated her motivation for integrating iPads into her teaching as follows:

> Several years ago, I started to feel that chalk and textbooks could not satisfy my teaching needs anymore. And traditional teaching cannot effectively arouse digital natives' learning motivation. In one of the CPD activities I attended, I got to know iPad digital teaching. At that time, I thought it just moved my paper task-based activities to digital versions. So why not give it a try? It was not easy at first, of course. But the more I try, the more familiar I am with technology, the more I am willing to try new stuff. There is no way of turning back.

This was the chief reason for driving Wendy to conduct digital teaching. It was surprising to note that it had been just one and a half years since Wendy's first digital trial last year. I wondered how she could overcome the obstacles, balance traditional and digital practices, and even be invited as a keynote speaker within such a short time. She said that it was probably because her school provided sufficient support in terms of hardware infrastructure. In her exchange with teachers from other schools, Wendy realised that not every teacher interested in digital teaching could have stable WIFI and adequate iPads in their classrooms. She said that hardware and software infrastructure was a significant factor underlying teachers' sustained motivation to employ technology in teaching, '(.) I am lucky to have administrative support (.) so I can totally engage myself in digital teaching design and classroom interaction'.

Concerning the advantages of educational technology, she suggested that technology could efficiently liberate teachers from repetitive drills and easily offer students contextualised English materials. However, on the other side of the coin, she also acknowledged that she had experienced different levels of pressure and frustration because of the mismatch between what she intended and students' actual classroom performance.

> Initially, I expected students to complete the task within 30 minutes, but they spent more than 1 hour. The reasons may be that students are not engaged in this task, that students are not familiar with the given software, or that the

> task is too challenging for them. Nevertheless, I can take this as an experiment and optimise the plan for future use.

It suggests that the mismatch could be derived from factors such as students' attitudes, students' familiarity with digital tools, technical problems, task complexity, and teachers' flexibility. To some extent, technology could leverage teaching and learning time so that more activities could be introduced in class. However, on the other hand, technology also places extra cognitive and emotional burdens on teachers and students. Both teachers and students were busy juggling multiple tasks and shuttling between physical and digital worlds in a short time. She added:

> Sometimes students cannot get what you want them to do in the task or they don't know how to operate the APPs. So I usually talk among different groups to monitor the task completion. This is also why I use L1, not English, to give instructions. For students, to get to know a new APP and to learn English through English at the same time would pose a heavy cognitive loading for them.

When asked about her opinion relating to the *Bilingual Nation policy*, such as CLIL and EMI pedagogy, she said that in general, she approved of the strategic directions of enhancing citizens' English proficiency. However, it was also important for policymakers to consider classroom teachers' contexts and their individual needs. For instance, in her digital practice, she used L1 constantly to check if students understood her instructions. Though she was willing to maximise students' English exposure by teaching English in English, '(.) using English as a medium of instruction is not realistic in my context'.

Wendy appeared to be quite time-sensitive, not just because of the reasons discussed so far but also because of the imposition of the testing system. She said:

> I used to take my students to Computer Laboratory, so everyone had to move and change classrooms[1]. However, later, I found that using iPads in my classroom was more convenient. Especially given that my students are expecting their Joint College Entrance Examination (JCEE), I don't integrate

[1] In Taiwan, there are commonly 40 students in one class in high schools. Each class is given a fixed classroom. Students usually have their classes, such as English, math, and social sciences, in the same classroom.

> too much digital stuff in class. If I do, I have to make the best use of the time spent on technology so that everything can run efficiently.

It suggests Wendy's implicit pedagogical conflict when considering integrating technology in teaching. On the one hand, she knew that using technology appropriately could save her time. However, on the other hand, digital pedagogy seemed not to serve students' urgent needs—to get higher grades on their college entrance exams. Therefore, when technology had a role to play in class, she had to justify that her employment of technology could positively impact students' learning. Otherwise, teachers might be accused of wasting students' learning time. She shared her experience of negotiating with her students:

> By the end of the first semester, I received feedback from students about my digital teaching. They told me 'textbooks first, digital tasks second'. Of course, I understand students have been cramming for various subjects and exams all day long. When teachers cannot guarantee students what they have done in class would gain better JECC performance, when students are faced with challenging tasks instead of easy multiple-choice drills, it is understandable that students feel anxious, upset, tired and frustrated. And this is what I am trying hard for. Try to make them trust me emotionally and make them learn better cognitively. Learning takes time. When they look back in the future, maybe they will see the meaning of my teaching. I hope time will stand by my side in the end.

Her narrative suggests that both teachers and students were involved in an emotional tug of war over the time spent on exam preparation and digital tasks. Wendy believed that her digital pedagogy would stand the test of time in the long run. When confronted with students' complaints, she needed to motivate, convince, and negotiate with her students so that students would be willing to participate in the digital tasks.

6.2 Three themes of the community of practice

As demonstrated in Section 4.5.4.2, the codification and categorisation of the four teachers' self-representational stories in online communities were analysed simultaneously by thematic analysis (Clarke & Braun, 2013) and biographically-oriented positioning analysis (Barkhuizen, 2015). In this section, teachers' narratives about their reflections, classroom practices, CPD activities, and community engagement were categorised thematically into three themes: reflexivity-as-positioning, community-as-support, and flexibility-as-strategy

(Table 6.2). Firstly, reflexivity-as-positioning is concerned with how teachers reflected on the dialectical interplay among teachers, students, and technology in their classrooms. Secondly, community-as-support demonstrates how the teachers sought technical advice and sympathetic support from their professional communities. Thirdly, flexibility-as-strategy illustrates how teachers dealt with uncertainty in their multimodal and multilingual teaching practices.

Table 6.2 Themes and categories

Themes	Categories
Reflexivity-as-positioning	The upsides and downsides of educational technology; being traditional or digital; love and hate of technology; teaching English or teaching technology.
Community-as-support	• Giver in the community: sharing and taking initiatives; bridge-maker between teachers and policy. • Taker in the community: learning from community peers; feeling emotionally supported.
Flexibility-as-strategy	Improvisation in class; negotiation with students; reconciliation policy with classroom complexities.

Before diving into the detailed analysis, I would like to point out that I coin the term 'the scripts of teacherhood' to describe the four teachers' self-representation of professional identity and agency in public online spaces. When it comes to how to be a mother/father, nurturing books usually use the words such as mothering/motherhood, fathering/fatherhood, parenting/parenthood to describe the act of caring for and protecting children. For instance, 'The belief that poor *parenting* caused autism meant that no meaningful research was done for fifty years after it was described' (Solomon, 2012, p. 363; emphasis added), or '*Mothering* duties become even more intense when these families pursue a Garden School – approved organic lifestyle that discourages the use of commercial products' (Lan, 2020, p. 71; emphasis added). Such words in discourse imply that one has various duties to embody a certain identity. I was curious if there were words like *teachering* or *teacherhood* to describe how teachers fulfil the semantic content and pragmatic function of the given words. I did informal research on two online free corpora (i.e., Linggle and SKELL) and found that *teachering* and *teacherhood* did not exist in the corpus as common words to describe the actions of being a teacher. Therefore, by analysing how the four teachers narrated their community of practice, I attempt to capture 'the scripts of teacherhood', a notion inspired by the Bakhtinian approach to agency (see Section 3.1.1.3).

6.2.1 Reflexivity-as-positioning

What is value? Value is what we will continue doing even if there is no ceremony, no award, and no title! (Case Four teacher, Wendy)

Mann and Walsh (2017, p.19) point out that in reflective practice, the dual role of writing is not only to record the reflection but also to facilitate reflection through writing. Reflective writing 'distils, clarifies or even reframes an experience, situation or event and increases awareness'. Following the same vein, I analysed the four teachers' social media posts as their ongoing reflections on the dynamic interplay among teachers, students, and digital teaching practices in the classrooms. Their reflective posts could serve as a window to understand how the four teachers reflexively monitored their digital practices, synthesised their love and hate of technology, and constantly reframed and repositioned their identity as English teachers in multilingual and multimodal times. For instance, Sherry and Cari shared several reflective posts on the role of educational technology in the classrooms — technology was not all sweet and promising. Meanwhile, Ruth tended to delineate her smooth movements among various software and hardware. The following extracts illustrate distinctive perceptions and positionings of the four teachers' teaching practices.

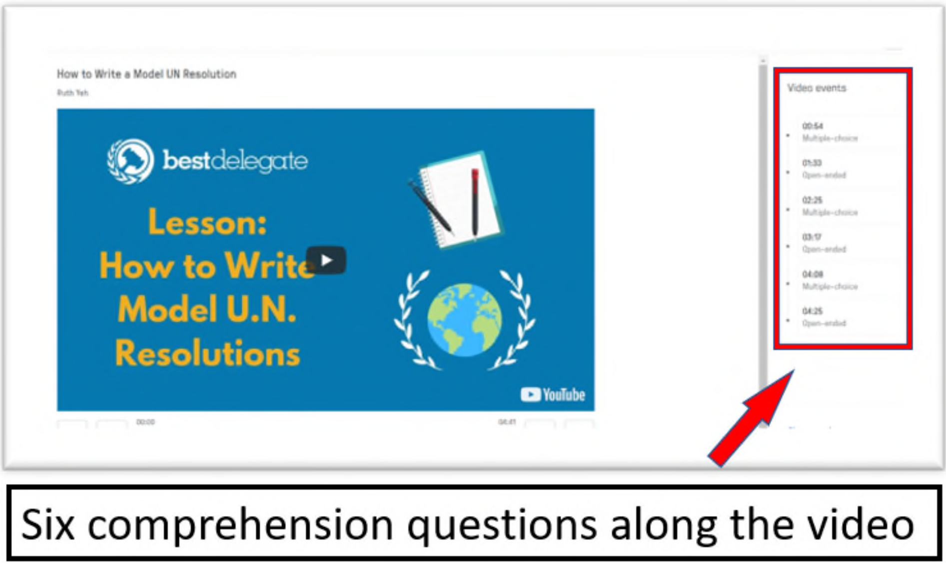
Among the four cases, Ruth (Case One) was relatively productive not only in terms of her digital teaching but also in her reflective writing. She established a Facebook club dedicated to sharing educational technology resources for English teachers. With around six thousand teachers in this group, this was an online professional community where they could exchange information and seek help from other teachers. The abridged extract below presents a typical post that Ruth would share in the group, exemplifying her design thinking of a given APP.

Extract 6.1

After looking for some information, I decided to use the APP ‘Edpuzzle’, so that students can learn effectively with the help of videos instead of listening to me in class. So I took a four-minute video I found and edited it in Edpuzzle. Six comprehension questions were given along the video so that the students could watch the video, pause anytime, anywhere, and understand the content before writing their meeting document.

In fact, Edpuzzle is not difficult to employ, as long as you don’t think too much! This was not the first time I tried Edpuzzle for students to learn through videos, but I did feel something about it this time! Because from this task, students realised that ‘English is only the medium, knowledge is the main body’. Moreover, ‘learning transfer' occurred when learners applied what they learned in the video and wrote their meeting documents. It really made me feel like doing ‘half-flip’ learning in class!

From the answer records of Edpuzzle, it showed that students worked hard



Picture 6.1 Ruth’s Edpuzzle design

to answer those questions and performed well! In fact, there were not many questions, but it can help learners absorb difficult content more quickly in this way. I hope it helps 😁. The link attached below will take you to the Edpuzzle homework I designed.

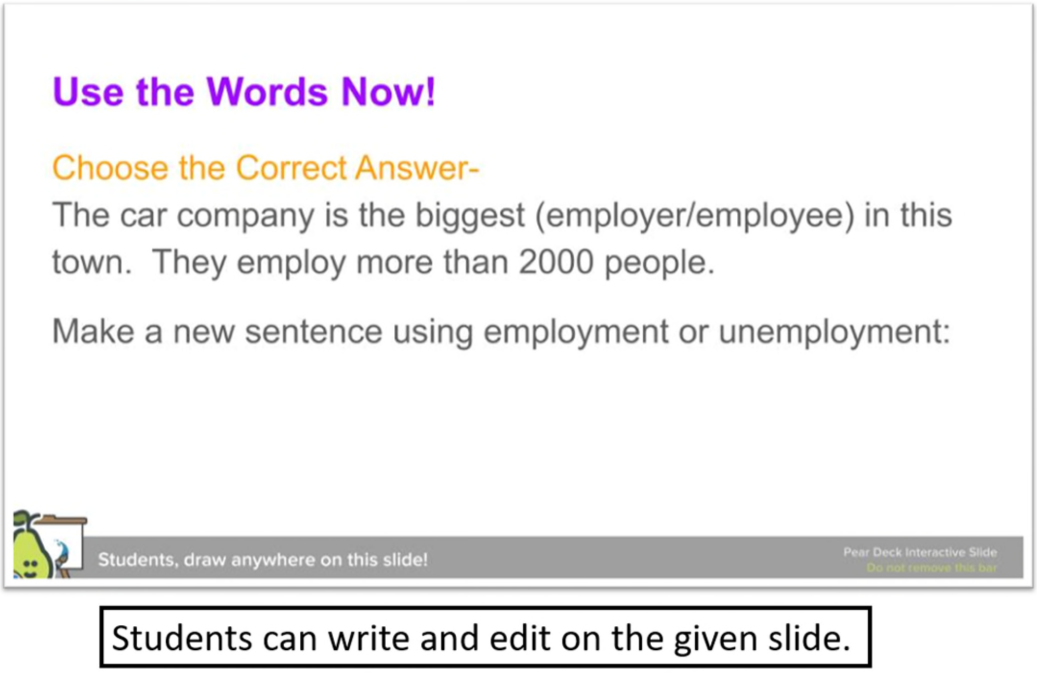
(Ruth, 2019.10.03)

In this reflexive episode, Ruth first described that the teaching goal of this class was to teach learners how to write a formal meeting document in English. Then, she continued sharing her design thinking behind the whole task. The extract concluded with her reflection on the overall task design and students' learning. Specifically, she explained how the platform facilitated individualised learning by offering various comprehension checks along the video timeline (see Picture 6.1). Also, she provided her observation of how students transferred what they learned in the video to their actual document writing. She stated that the data provided by the platform had shown that students did learn in this digital task. The overall digital design rendered the classroom interactional pattern a 'flipped classroom'. The highlight of her post was not relating to how fancy or how advanced it was to employ technology in language teaching but how technology transformed the classroom interaction dynamics. In another similar extract, Ruth shared her experience using the APP 'Pear Deck' (see Picture 6.2) and how it created an interesting classroom interaction between herself and the students.

> Extract 6.2
>
> What's more interesting, while I was commenting on the students' sentences, students could continue editing their sentences simultaneously. So when I talked, the sentence started to modify itself on the interactive screen. It's so fun! I found this was the very moment when they cared about what they wrote the most. So I took this 'now or never' moment to give instant feedback for their practice. Pear Deck is a good tool that you can use whatever you want! Coupled with the picture-taking function of the large interactive screen, it is even more powerful to use! Share the little things with you guys! 😘
>
> (Ruth, 2019.09.05)

Unlike the traditional IRF sequence in the classroom, here it appears that a new model of classroom discourse is needed to describe the digitally interactional patterns. In the next chapter, I will demonstrate how the IRF sequence unfolds in this setting. Extracts 6.1 and 6.2 illustrate that Ruth positively narrated her digital classroom interactions. By providing a step-by-step lesson plan, Ruth showcased to her professional peers that if designed well, a digital learning task could make classroom interaction more interactive, more collaborative, and more engaging. It could be a win-win-win interplay among teachers, students, and technologies. Her posts exemplified her agentive role in employing technology to enhance students' learning. It is worth noting that at the end of her posts, Ruth usually placed an emoji (e.g., 😍😘😁) with non-threatening phrases such as 'Share the little things with you guys!'

or 'Hope it helps'. By doing so, Ruth managed to deliver the message that she was genuinely sharing her experience and inviting her peers to join her.



Picture 6.2 Ruth's Pear Deck design

Similarly depicted in Ruth's extracts, Wendy (Case Four) also frequently shared her reflexive posts on her personal Facebook and Blog. It is worth pointing out that after my fieldwork, Wendy continued developing her teaching expertise in educational technology and was awarded as 'Apple Distinguished Educator', 'Top 100 Ed Tech Elite in 2019', and 'Innovative Teacher in 2020'. With the awards and titles, she seemed more motivated and obligated to share her digital teaching experience and reflections in the communities. The extract below was taken from her blog, sketching her overall teaching activity with the APP 'Canva'.

Extract 6.3

The impact of educational technology should not be underestimated! iPad can always catch the students' eye easily. Last time, my students had tried to adapt the reading texts into comics on the iPad. This time, I taught the story 'Taj Mahal' and brought iPads, students' favourite, to my class again. The APP used this time was 'Canva'. After reading the text, I planned to guide students to make the text into something like an infographic. However, time was so limited that students could not organise the text properly and present the text with images. Yet, my students still had a great time in class. Some boys were very naughty and sold the Taj Mahal as real estate. Some students put cranes and tortoises in their works, which really echoed Mumtaz Mahal.

(Wendy, 2018.06.22)

Students' creative works on 'Canva'.

Picture 6.3 Wendy's Canva design

This piece of Wendy's post echoed what she mentioned in the interview. That is, she believed that integrating technology in classrooms could enhance students' learning motivation as well as provide students with more written and oral expression opportunities. Though time was limited that students could not complete the task thoroughly, both Wendy and her students still enjoyed the activity. Like Ruth, when Wendy shared her digital teaching, she would provide detailed lesson plans, demonstration videos or screenshots (see Picture 6.3), and her overall reflection based on the digital task.

So far, I have analysed how the four teachers reflexively articulated their positive digital practices in classrooms. Though only Ruth's and Wendy's extracts are presented here, it is worth noting that the four teachers, including Sherry and Cari, frequently took Facebook and Blog posts as their virtual venue to have dialogues and learn among professional peers. In their voluntary reflective posts, it was evidenced that the four teachers were willing to experiment with various software and hardware and consider technology as an interaction booster if the digital task was designed well. Despite the ethos of the affordance of technology in English teaching and learning, their reflective posts, at the same time, expressed their critical evaluation of the role of technology. For instance, Sherry (Case Two) was identified as the one who critically publicised her reflective opinions of educational technology.

Extract 6.4

> Although there is no prescriptive English teaching method, I am worried that under the current technological trend in Taiwan, English teaching in the classroom will be turned upside down... Are students learning technology or English in English class? Maybe teachers need a yardstick in their hearts... Too many gimmicks sometimes really fail the teaching—for example, Plickers. Sorry if there is any teacher who loves using Plickers, but I just can't appreciate it. Even though I can use technology to assist students' learning, I still think that the teacher's management of classroom discourse (i.e., IRE sequence) is the most critical factor for my classroom teaching.
>
> (Sherry, 2019.06.07)

Sherry was aware of technology becoming a faddish buzzword, a teaching method by default, a popular practice without critical assessment. She was concerned that the dominant ethos of using technology in classrooms might distract the focus of learning. She even specified an APP, 'Plickers', as an example to support her observation that 'too many gimmicks sometimes really fail the teaching'. She seemed to imply that if educational technology became another must-to-have or prescriptive method in English classrooms, it was likely for practitioners to package various gadgets just to be techy. Sherry also expressed her awareness of the IRE sequence in classroom interactions, arguing that a teacher's successful classroom discourse management was the essence of successful learning for students. Like what she argued in another post, she believed that 'it is quite weird if the role of technology overpowers the language acquisition in language classes!', emphasising 'the purpose of English lessons is to practice the language. Always remember that technology is just an aid. Lesson design and student learning are the very core of teaching!'. Furthermore, her antithesis of educational technology highlights a critical reminder for the practitioner: Are students learning technology or English in English class? In paraphrase, her question is: Are teachers teaching technology or English in English class? Is it our duty to teach technology in English class?

For this question, the answer provided in LPP documents is that English teachers should incorporate digital technology to facilitate contextualised, individualised, and differentiated learning. To a certain extent, this implies that teachers have the duty to guide students to make the best out of technology and offer opportunities for students to maximise their learning through educational technology. The following extract provides an example of how Cari positioned herself with the duty to teach English and digital literacy simultaneously.

> Extract 6.5
>
> After integrating technology into teaching, I found that nowadays, children are really inadequate in digital literacy. They only passively accept digital information but do not know how to filter it and make the most of it. Some of them even have problems typing and switching between Chinese and English. No problem! I can help develop their digital literacy in English classes.
>
> (Cari, 2019.01.07)

Contrary to the assumption that as digital natives, learners are technologically savvy and capable of co-constructing the activities in partnership with their teachers (Dudeney et al., 2013), the extract suggests that the interactional patterns in digitalised classrooms were quite similar to what Walsh (2006, p.3) found in traditional classrooms. That is, teachers are the orchestrator of classroom discourse development (see Chapter 7 for further classroom discourse analysis). Cari's reflective post highlights that even digital natives still needed appropriate guidance from teachers to receive the benefits of educational technology. Cari concluded this extract with, 'No problem! I can help develop their digital literacy in English classes', demonstrating her agentive intervention to tackle students' low level of digital proficiency. Another teacher, Sherry, also expressed a similar concern about whether students have the basic competence to keep up with the digital learning pace. Sherry mentioned in one post that it was difficult for her students to adapt to the new model of digital teaching, stating 'I'm afraid they just give up and don't wanna give it a try. Some of my students even have difficulty submitting their assignments through Google Classroom'. Sherry explained that she had demonstrated several times how to use Google Classroom to receive learning materials and submit homework. However, some students needed more step-by-step guidance to familiarise themselves with the digital platform. Both Cari's and Sherry's posts reveal that technology is not always a natural thing for students. Digital natives are not always tech-savvy in terms of educational technology. To a certain level, teachers still play a leading role in scaffolding students' digital learning.

So far, I have presented how the four teachers critically evaluated the strengths and weaknesses of employing technology in English classrooms. In the remainder of this section, I will present how the four teachers went beyond the scope of advantages and disadvantages of educational technology and dialectically reframed and repositioned their identity and agency.

When it comes to being paper or digital, Ruth wrote in one post to demonstrate how she identified her role in digital teaching. She wrote:

> Extract 6.6
>
> The choice between paper and technology is actually determined by the effectiveness of the presentation of the learning material. We can achieve the teaching goals we desire with appropriate teaching guidance and methods. So, not every class of mine is high-tech! Ultra-low technology also exists in my classroom. Whether students' learning takes place is my primary concern.
>
> (Ruth, 2019.10.08)

Ruth explained that from her observation, good digital teaching should afford more opportunities for students to engage with the activities, showcase their work, and interact with each other. Her post conveyed to her peer teachers that they should not become fixated on digital practices, rejecting other possible means to achieve the desired goals. Ruth viewed herself as an agentive professional capable of making appropriate decisions based on students' needs and reflexively assess the rationale for her digital teaching design.

Interestingly, the four teachers tended to use rhetorical questions to reflexively articulate how they resolved conflicting values inherent in educational technology and constructed a consistent narrative of their digital teacherhood. For instance, in one post relating to her being awarded 'Top 100 Ed Tech Elite in 2019', Wendy posed a question: What is the value of being a teacher? Then she continued, 'Well, I think the value is what we will continue doing even if there is no ceremony, no award, and no title!'. Wendy emphasised that a teachers' value did not lie in external approval but in the internal belief that every effort a teacher made for their students is valuable. Wendy acknowledged that she was also afraid of failure, yet she asked herself, 'what is failure?'. She wrote, 'The true failure is not I've tried but failed, but I have never tried in the first place because I think it is impossible'. Similarly, Cari asked herself the same question: Why bother to do so much even when I feel so frustrated, even when students' learning motivation is really low? Then she wrote:

> Extract 6.7
>
> Some students escape from studying because of the problems such as unprivileged social and economic backgrounds. Teachers have more duties to provide them with different stimulations and methods, so that they can experience and enjoy the importance of learning. The purpose of a teacher has never been only for the 'elite'. If your class is no different from a robot class, then your students will give you robot-like feedback.
>
> (Cari, 2018.11.03)

Cari acknowledged that incorporating technology into teaching was highly labour-intensive. Though the process of digital trial and error sometimes resulted in burnout and exhaustion, she positioned herself as an essential source for unprivileged students to expand their horizons, receive intellectual enjoyment, and feel like human beings. Both Cari's and Wendy's extracts demonstrate that apart from discussion and dialogue with professional peers, teachers can also engage with reflection through 'talking to yourself', which is perhaps one of the most sustainable ways to construct their professional identity reflexively.

As a form of positioning, the identified theme 'reflexivity-as-positioning' highlights how teachers mediated local experiences and structural policies. On the one hand, they were active members of the professional communities, striving to align their teaching with the proposed pedagogies (i.e., multimodal and multilingual teaching practices) and enthusiastically sharing their experiences. On the other hand, the four teachers reflexively monitored their classroom and community practices by writing reflective posts on social media. The instances presented in this section demonstrate the teachers' dialectical awareness of the upsides and downsides of educational technology. In their reflective writing, they discursively constructed their professional identity and agency, synthesising conflicting beliefs about multimodal and multilingual practices, including love and hate towards educational technology, affordances and constraints within institutional provision, and commitment and resistance to policy implementation. The reflexivity identified in the four teachers' self-narrative shows that they constantly reframed and renewed their positional identities within local experiences and structural policies.

In this section, I have presented how the four teachers reflexively evaluated the upsides and downsides of educational technology. Their scripts of teacherhood not only reflected how they exercised their professional agency in their contexts but also synthesised conflicting experiences to construct a consistent identity in their teaching practices.

6.2.2 Community-as-support

108 heroes are not enough for 108 Curriculum, so let's help each other! (Case One teacher, Ruth)

Mann and Walsh (2013) provide a critical perspective on reflective practice, arguing that traditional models of reflective practice fall short of foregrounding collaboration in a community of practice. In addition, Mann and Walsh (2017) anticipate that interactive platforms are likely to make visible how reflective practice can be scaffolded among peers and enhance collaboration in a community. In this section, I will present how the four teachers utilised their online community as a supporting force (Wenger, 1999). Specifically, the analysis demonstrates how the four teachers learned from other peers, took the initiative, and bridged various resources for their digital teaching. Apart from traditional, face-to-face CPD activities held by institutions and governmental organisations, the teachers also participated in various grassroots CPD events online. Faced with multiple duties assigned by educational language policies, the four teachers expressed that it was vital to feel understood and supported by their professional peers. As Ruth wrote in her Facebook group, '108 heroes are not enough for 108 Curriculum, so let's help each other!', the subsequent analysis demonstrates how the four teachers positioned themselves in their learning communities as a ‘taker’ who received support from the community members, and a ‘giver’ who took the leadership to solve the problems revolving digital teaching.

6.2.2.1 Giver in the community

The coding categories of ‘taker’ and ‘giver’ were inspired by Wendy. In one of her reflective posts, she wrote, ‘Before taking something from others, we shall be a giver first!’. Wendy highlighted that as a community member, one should be accustomed to give-and-take reciprocity. In this positioning ‘giver in the community’, the analysis focus will be on two aspects: how teachers positioned themselves as community leaders who shared and took initiatives for digital teaching, and how teachers positioned themselves as bridge-makers who connected the dots between teachers and policy.

In this data set, there is substantial evidence that the three case teachers (Ruth, Cari, and Wendy) fulfilled the role of community leaders. For instance, Ruth organised a series of online workshops to assist teachers interested in Google Workspace for Education to obtain their Google Classroom Educator (GCE) certificates. She collaborated with several local GCE seeding teachers to make tutorial videos and held Zoom meetings to guide teachers to familiarise themselves with the various functions of Google Workspace. In one of her posts, she wrote:

> Extract 6.8
>
> Thank you for joining this workshop on educational technology! In the beginning, I mentioned that having the courage to learn and to challenge yourself is a great first step! In fact, there are nearly 5,000 members in this Facebook group, but so far, fewer than 200 teachers have completed GCE Level 1 & Level 2 courses. So we want to encourage more teachers to join us! 😍🥰
>
> (Ruth, 2020.02.23)

Ruth emphasised that the purpose of this workshop was to help community members have a more comprehensive understanding of Google Classroom. Whether the teachers had had the GCE certificates, they would have something to take home. Apart from the online workshops, Ruth also took various initiatives to engage teachers in community events, such as networking online or in-person with local community teachers.

Extract 6.9

> Tomorrow's live streaming is also very exciting! Leaders from various school communities will share how they work together with schoolteachers in their community to level up teachers' technological competence! Their process was not smooth. It was full of touching stories and reflexivity. Welcome to chat with our amazing community leaders tomorrow! 😍
>
> (Ruth, 2019.04.17)

This illustrates that Ruth, as a community leader, not only strived to connect teachers and technology but also teachers and teachers from various places and various institutions. Her endeavour embodies what is termed 'distributed leadership' in that everyone in the community is the collaborative and autonomous agent who facilitates and sustains their professional development.

Likewise, Wendy voluntarily built a learning community for digital teaching in her school, hoping to meet up with her colleagues on a regular basis and accompany them to incorporate technology smoothly. Positioning herself as a community leader, she wrote in her reflective post that she could relate to those teachers who were new to digital teaching. The purpose of the school-based learning community was dedicated to providing sustained professional support so that teachers would not give up digital teaching so quickly. In one reflective post, she expressed her true feelings, 'Like what I felt two years ago when I started to integrate iPads into my teaching. This time, establishing this community also makes me anxious and fearful'. Her honest revelation implies that everyone, including herself, was afraid of unknowns and uncertainties when faced with a new world. On the other hand, she wrote, 'But compared to my previous sharing experience with teachers from other schools, now I feel like home and relaxed because of the familiar faces and environment'. This implies that Wendy felt reassured to take professional initiative among her familiar colleagues in her school.

As for Cari, she was also constantly invited as a speaker by several local professional communities. She usually posted her reflective comments after the meetups. A recurrent theme in such posts is that she liked to take the opportunity to review and reflect on her digital practices. By sharing and exchanging experiences with teachers from other communities, she could constructively improve her practice. She wrote, 'it's because I have to share on the stage, so there is an unpredictable upgrade to my existing practice. I can only say that I am so lucky!' She shared similar reflective comments about her interaction with other teachers in another post:

> Extract 6.10
>
> Thank Ms Lin Xiangyi, for the invitation, so that I have the opportunity to organise my teaching thoughts and practice! I cherish this opportunity very, very much! In fact, whenever I share, I can see the beauty and flaws in my teaching. I know what I can do better in the future, and students will grow further because of my growth.
>
> (Cari, 2020.12.24)

This suggests that Cari took the opportunity to conduct her reflective practice as a speaker. Sharing her digital teaching in the community drove her to reflexively and systematically review her practices. Phrases such as 'an unpredictable upgrade to my existing practice', 'I can see the beauty and flaws in my teaching', and 'students will grow further because of my growth' imply that this type of sharing juxtaposes her two positions in the professional community. One position is as a giver who offered assistance to community members, and the other is as a taker who benefited from the professional exchanges within the community practitioners. Such reciprocity among community members verifies an old saying, 'it is more blessed to give than to receive'.

The case teachers also positioned themselves as bridge-makers who connected the dots between teachers and policies. As analysed in Chapter 5, multiple duties are assigned to teachers from the educational language policies. Faced with new policies, new curricula, new duties, and new technology, most teachers might feel overwhelmed and even helpless. In the following section, I will analyse how the four teachers strived to appropriate the policies and help community members to manage their digital teaching. For example, the *108 Curriculum* positions teachers with a duty to hold at least one public teaching demonstration every academic year. This is considered an essential element for teachers' professional development to communicate their teaching ideas, receive feedback, and improve their teaching iteratively. In one of Wendy's reflective posts, she wrote in detail about her experience of having a public teaching demonstration.

> Extract 6.11
>
> It is a great pleasure to share my teaching with a group of students from the English Department of Normal University. I was impressed by the questions asked by the students. Thank you, Professor Zeng and Professor Cheng, for their arrangements. It is not easy to take public teaching demonstrations lightly. For me, it has never been a simple matter. Why do we need to have public teaching demonstrations? I think it's because we hope to improve and grow professionally through class observation activities. Before taking something from others, we shall be a giver first!
>
> (Wendy, 2019.12.16)

This extract conveys that Wendy herself was a teacher who practised what she preached. Apart from the teaching demonstration prescribed in the curriculum, Wendy went further to take extra teaching demonstrations for a group of teachers-to-be. For one thing, she could take the opportunity to receive feedback from the professor and the student teachers, as she wrote that the purpose of teaching demonstration is 'to improve and grow professionally'. For another thing, she could visualise the policy 'public teaching demonstration' for the student teachers. Specifically, given the impact of education technology in the classrooms, it is helpful for student teachers to observe how an experienced teacher translates the policy and integrate technology into classroom teaching.

This section 'giver in the community' has presented how the four teachers positioned themselves as community leaders who took initiatives for digital teaching and how they positioned themselves as bridge-makers who connected the dots between teachers and policy. The following section will turn on their positionings as 'takers in the community'.

6.2.2.2 Taker in the community

In this positioning 'taker in the community', the analysis focuses on how teachers invested skills and knowledge of digital teaching in the community and how teachers felt mentally recharged in the CPD communities. Among the four teachers, Wendy and Cari frequently shared their learning experiences with the community members. The extract below presents a typical post that Cari would share in the online community.

> Extract 6.12
>
> I found this software ‘Google Jamboard’ because I wanted to find an online whiteboard collaboration platform that could allow the whole class to type at the same time. So after watching Ruth’s demo video, I tried the platform several times at home. I really feel that it is super easy to use in my class!
>
> (Cari, 2020.01.07)

This was taken from one of Cari’s posts about how she integrated Google Jamboard to teach dialogue. Before introducing the functions of this platform, Cari first mentioned that she found this software because Ruth shared it in the Facebook group. I did not notice that Cari was also one of Ruth's Facebook group members until Cari mentioned this. This extract reveals that Cari (a junior high school teacher with five years of experience based in the central part of Taiwan) identified an issue in her context and learned how to solve technical problems from Ruth (a senior high school teacher with twenty-eight years of experience based in the northern part of Taiwan). It highlights the nature of the online learning community. More than just to access the skills and knowledge of digital teaching, the online learning community also affords greater inclusiveness beyond the limit of time and space, the boundary among primary, secondary, and tertiary schools, and the gap between experienced and inexperienced teachers.

Apart from the online community of practice, the four teachers also participated in various offline CPD events. For instance, Wendy invited a teacher from another school to give a workshop on digital teaching to her school-based community. Wendy wrote a reflective post about her experience of learning from professional peers.

> Extract 6.13
>
> In an era when the advancement of technology is faster than a blink of an eye and when everyone can google everything online, teaching yourself to learn anything is not as difficult as it used to be. But what if there was a good teacher giving you guidance and directions? Then learning would be like

> 'originally you stumble over rocks, and then suddenly someone is holding your hands steadily forward.'
>
> This is the feeling that Shuyu gave me when she came to our school today to share her digital teaching experience. As a seed teacher who has been through a similar experience, I myself know how hard-working Shuyu is. I can't help but admire her digital practice.
>
> Although I've heard some of the APPs she mentioned today, I haven't actually tried them. I just vaguely knew the existence of these APPs but don't know the detailed operation.
>
> I found the spirit of 'workmanship' in the design of every teaching activity of Shuyu. Through Shuyu's explanation and guidance, I feel that I should be more humble in front of professional peers and the ever-changing technology.
>
> (Wendy, 2019.11.08)

I have several observations about this extract. First, it demonstrates that Wendy, as an experienced digital teacher as well as a leading figure in her school community, could still benefit from taking part in various CPD events. She stated, 'someone is holding your hands steadily forward', showing that her continuing professional development was sustained by the vibrant sharing culture in her community. Second, the phrase 'I should be humbler' highlights her positive mindset of learning from her professional peers. Instead of positioning herself as 'deficient', she reminded herself to be 'humbler' because a vast unknown was awaiting her to explore. Third, it reveals her engagement with reflection through grassroots CPD activities and her implicit invitation to those teachers who were afraid of digital teaching. By making her reflective process visible in her post, Wendy genuinely articulated her awareness of her limited knowledge about digital teaching and her willingness to learn from anyone. This could encourage less experienced colleagues to do the same even if there were uncertain and unknown areas to explore.

Apart from investing skills and knowledge of digital teaching in the community, three of the four teachers (i.e., Sherry, Cari, and Wendy) mentioned how they felt mentally recharged in the CPD communities. For example, Wendy posted her reflective post after a meeting with a group of iPad seeding teachers.

Extract 6.14

> I have also accumulated a lot of frustrations that my digital teaching is not ideal as expected. In today's meeting, no one intended to solve any problems. We just listened to each other. The voluntary sharing of digital experience has made everyone feel that the teaching pressure has been reduced a lot. Perhaps the most important thing we should remind ourselves is 'Be nice to ourselves. Don't be so critical.'

(Wendy, 2020.01.12)

This echoes what Wendy mentioned in the interview that she constantly felt an emotional tug of war over her digital teaching. The intense emotion was derived from that 'my digital teaching is not ideal as expected'. This reveals the gap between 'task-as-workplan' and 'task-in-process' in digitalised classrooms. The two terms were coined by Seedhouse (2004, p. 9), who problematised the taken-for-granted notion that the predetermined lesson plan could be translated into classroom practice as it is intended. Seedhouse argued that in actual classroom practices, the workplan is intervened by participants' interaction, thus yielding discrepancy between the planned and actual teaching. According to this data set, this mismatch is notoriously embodied in technology-mediated classes due to the characteristics of technology bears and teachers' and students' varied expectations about digital teaching. Furthermore, 'No one intended to solve any problems. We just listened to each other' also suggests that this type of non-judgemental feedback and exchange among peers made Wendy feel understood and emotionally relieved. The cooperative partnership within the community also summons Wendy's professional self as a teacher willing to take up the challenges of digital teaching. This extract ends with a mantra 'Be nice to ourselves. Don't be so critical', implying that Wendy might be too harsh on herself. By talking about her frustrations and pressure with community peers, she was reminded that imperfection in digital teaching is common, and she should have a more positive evaluation of her teaching practice.

6.2.3 Flexibility-as-strategy

Be flexible! Only when you are open-minded, you will be willing to take uncertainty and risks. (Case Four teacher, Wendy)

Research has shown that teaching is a moment-by-moment decision-making process that requires teachers to be aware of the transient dynamics and respond flexibly to align with planned pedagogical goals (Sert, 2019; Walsh & Li, 2016). Compared to traditional teaching, digital teaching bears more uncertainty derived from technical glitches, and teachers' and students' varied digital competency and beliefs. Because of this characteristic of technology, digital teaching requires teachers to be more flexible and open-minded. This section will explore further how the four teachers exercised their professional agency through the theme 'flexibility-as-strategy in their scripts of teacherhood. Specifically, how the teachers identified and addressed the unexpected incidents in digital teaching in their contexts will be presented.

One way of performing 'flexibility-as-strategy' for the four teachers is to improvise. For instance, the most common problem in digital teaching is the failure of the Internet. Each case teacher mentioned this kind of technical glitches in their interviews and posts. For example, Cari shared her improvision in one post:

> Extract 6.15
>
> Originally, I wanted the students to scan the QR code linked to *Geography Kids*, so that they can read articles about trivia knowledge of animals and then follow the instructions on the worksheet to complete the sentences to describe the characteristics of the animals. However, the Internet didn't work, so I changed the plan. I drew the animals on the blackboard and provided oral prompts. Students had to guess the animals. So, I drew an elephant spontaneously. (Thanks to my drawing talent, hahaha). The effect was also very good. When doing similar activities in the future, I think I will print out the articles in advance to avoid network connection problems.
>
> (Cari, 2017.11.03)

This extract indicates that when conducting digital teaching, teachers were exposed to a range of unexpected events that they usually adopted improvisation as a strategy to react spontaneously. Such a strategy was not devised through sophisticated calculation or rational analysis but through recombination of the resources at hand. The descriptions of 'I drew the animals on the blackboard and provided oral prompts' and 'Thanks to my drawing talent, hahaha' show that Cari managed to reconstruct the resources she had to solve the issues arising in the classrooms. Although classroom interaction was not evidenced here, Cari's evaluation of 'the effect was also very good' suggests that she identified the problem immediately in the micro context and swiftly reallocated the resources to turn the unexpected into a successful improvisation. Apart from the online decision-making process, this extract also demonstrates her forward-looking decision making in the sense that 'when doing similar activities in the future, I think I will print out the articles in advance to avoid network connection problems'. This shows that Cari adopted an iterative method for her digital teaching.

In addition to improvisation, negotiating with students is also one form of performing 'flexibility-as-strategy'. For instance, Sherry mentioned in her interview how she negotiated with her students:

> Extract 6.16
>
> Traditional-minded students would feel that the digital activities you design in class are irrelevant to their exams. Whenever they complain, I have to communicate with them. Some students told me, 'I just want the cramming teaching'. They don't understand the value of this thing. They only value the exams in front of them and can't see further for their future. In the end, I told them that I would strike a balance between the textbooks and the extra digital tasks.
>
> (Sherry, 2019.11.04)

From the above extracts, it is evident that there is a mismatch between teachers' intentions and students' preferences. Sherry believed that technology could be a helpful tool that made students more motivated. 'They don't understand the value of this thing' highlights that she had noticed the benefits of teaching and learning through digital technology. Nevertheless, her students just 'value the exams in front of them', not appreciating her efforts. Sherry said, '(.) you can't use technology too much at once. otherwise they will reject it. if you take it slowly. they will become more and more engaged'. In the end, Sherry reached an agreement with her students, promising that she would 'will strike a balance between the textbooks and the extra digital tasks'.

In the same vein, Wendy also mentioned how she negotiated with her students regarding the proportion of digital tasks in class. When her students could not link their exam results with the digital activities, they complained to her ‘textbooks first, digital tasks second’. Wendy first showed her empathy to her students, negotiated with them, and then tried to make them trust her and make them learn better.

Extract 6.17

> Especially given that my students are expecting their Joint College Entrance Examination (JCEE), I don’t integrate too much digital stuff in class. But, if I do, I would guarantee that I make the best use of the time spent on technology so that everything can run efficiently and everyone can learn something valuable from my digital pedagogy.
>
> (Wendy, 2018.11.02)

Both Wendy’s and Sherry’s experiences of negotiating with students indicate that contrary to popular belief that students’ learning motivation would be triggered by digital teaching, it is likely that at the beginning of integrating technology into teaching, teachers might encounter resistance and rejection from students. In theory, teachers would attempt to align their pedagogy with the mainstream LPP discourse—to prepare students with digital literacy. However, in practice, their professional decisions were in a struggle for being acknowledged by their students. The struggles seem to arise from the imposition of ‘teaching to the test’. That is, digital teaching does not serve students’ urgent needs—get higher grades on their exams. This echoes what Jewitt (2006) identified in her study. Despite that digital literacy has been promoted within educational institutions, students’ multimodal literacies were reduced to the results of written assessment. Therefore, when technology has a role in class, teachers must justify and negotiate that their employment of technology could positively impact students' learning. Otherwise, they may be accused of wasting students’ learning time.

Apart from negotiating with their students, the teachers also attempted to reconcile the policy discourse with the complexities of classroom reality as one way of performing flexibility-as-strategy. Criticism of researchers and policymakers for overlooking the socio-cultural, institutional, interpersonal and emotional constraints that teachers have to deal with has been well documented in the literature (Bouchard & Glasgow, 2019; Clarke, 1994; Kayi-Aydar et al., 2019; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Shohamy, 2004), underscoring the gap between the idealised teaching models by theorists/policymakers and the complexities of classroom reality experienced by practitioners. Such a gap is often widened in the setting of digital teaching because of the varying degrees of availability of resources in various contexts. As Sherry wrote, 'Do the policymakers really know how much time it takes to prepare a digital class under the new curriculum?'. Teachers are left with the problem of reconciling their teaching reality with the dysfunctional policy. In what follows, how teachers reconciled the discrepancy and motivated themselves to keep going will be presented.

Extract 6.18

> From online communities, I often read how English teachers conduct their digital teaching (iPad App, international education, letter writing marathon for human rights... and other language activities). I am very envious of the resources they have. When other schools have smart whiteboards, we still use traditional blackboards; when everyone starts to talk about innovative teaching and reading comprehension, we still teach English in a very prescriptive way.
>
> BUT! This is a very important BUT! My students from deprived areas are not as competitive as those in metropolitan areas. Most families are dysfunctional and under-resourced. If educators only care about students' academic performance without considering other factors, it will not only damage teachers' enthusiasm and health but also sacrifice children from unprivileged backgrounds.
>
> When the whole world is talking about the *108 Curriculum* and literacy-oriented teaching, policymakers in governmental offices are busy doing superficial public relations. They never go to the frontline to lead teachers in the classrooms. I can only employ my existing weapons and limited time to maximise my teaching! I will hang in there for the quality of teaching, and I will definitely and never be compromised by this harsh environment! ! !
>
> (Cari, 2019.12.02)

In this extract, Cari provided a counter-discourse of how the policy was realised in her classroom. Even though English teachers are encouraged to incorporate digital technology to enhance teaching, the available technological resources for frontline teachers are insufficient. 'I am very envious of the resources they have' shows that she was discontented with the situation that the resources were not distributed evenly among schools. Then, Cari described the socioeconomic backgrounds of her students, pointing out that the cost of underestimating these underlying factors in the classrooms would jeopardise both teachers' and students' well-being. Cari criticised, 'they never go to the frontline to lead teachers in the classrooms', implying that policy and research made in a social vacuum did not consider the socioeconomic, institutional, and emotional constraints teachers experienced at the frontline. Cari concluded her counter-discourse by 'I will hang in there for the quality of teaching, and I will definitely never compromise with this harsh environment'. This shows that though she was discontented with the insufficient support provided by the institutions, she would maximise what was available at hand and provide quality English learning for her students. The reconciliation process was challenging in her context, but at the same time, the process was her way of performing 'flexibility-as-strategy' in her daily teaching. Likewise, Sherry revealed a similar process of reconciliation when she encountered the discrepancy between policy and reality.

Extract 6.19

> English is not a subject that can be improved by leaps and bounds in just six months or a year. English learning requires motivation and the foundation laid down from every little step. Self-righteous educators are losing their purpose for education. What is the purpose for? For subsidy? Reputation? Performance?
>
> Do the policymakers really know how much time it takes to prepare a digital class under the new curriculum? It is straightforward to only use textbooks and teach grammar monotonously. The real difficulty in teaching English lies in making students feel meaningful and engaged and appreciate the English language culture. It cannot be improved if the teaching time and resources are so limited.
>
> Maybe not every school has sufficient resources or digital technology, but as long as we continue to learn and try, everything will be worthwhile. When teachers are preparing students for the future, teachers are at the same time changing their professional future.
>
> (Sherry, 2020.12.02)

As Sherry mentioned in the interview, '(.) what the policy promises is nothing but a castle in the air', her comments in this reflective post echoed her frustration over the lack of sufficient resources. With the high expectations ascribed to the new curriculum, Sherry felt that those who formulated the policies did not understand the variables that characterised her classes.

In this reflective post, she mentioned the institutional constraints (i.e., the limited teaching time and resources) and methodological problems (i.e., the real difficulty in teaching English lies in making students feel meaningful and engaged and appreciate the English language culture). Faced with the discrepancy, Sherry wrote, 'but as long as we continue to learn and try, everything will be worthy', indicating her ongoing reconciliation over the conflicting components in her digital teaching.

This section has analysed how the four teachers adopted 'flexibility-as-strategy' to improvise, negotiate and reconcile in their digital teaching process. The analysis stresses that when incorporating technology into teaching, teachers might need to develop a repertoire of flexible strategies to manage unexpected incidents arising in the classrooms. The next chapter will analyse how the four teachers demonstrated their strategic responses in their actual classroom interactions.

6.3 Chapter summary

This chapter has aimed to address RQ 2: *How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their accounts of multilingual and multimodal teaching experiences?* I have introduced the four case teachers' professional backgrounds and teaching contexts and analysed how they identified, situated, and reflected on their community of practice. This data set was composed of two types of narratives: teachers' small stories in the interviews and teachers' self-representation in public online spaces. The aim is to capture the four teachers' scripts of teacherhood: how they wrote for themselves and how they constructed their professional identities and agency through reflexivity-as-positioning, community-as-support, and flexibility-as-strategy. Though their scripts of teacherhood sometimes appear inconsistent, the four teachers had strived to transcend the fixed identities as a giver, taker, leader, follower, teacher, learner, moderator, mediator, improviser, negotiator, and reconciliator, to dialectically constitute their professionalised teacherhood.

On the side of *positional identity*, the analysis exemplifies that English teachers' multiple identities (Barkhuizen, 2017) are discursively constructed in relation to policy contexts, key stakeholders, and community engagement (Kayi-Aydar, 2019b). Specifically, the four teachers shared their teaching practices and reflections on social media and projected their desired professional identities in public online spaces. Teachers' scripts of teacherhood serve as a window to see how English teachers understand their professional selves and the ways they position themselves. On the side of *invested identity*, the analysis points out that to teach in multimodal and multilingual times, English language teachers need to invest time and energy to stay informed of the latest technology development and educational theories; they also need to invest to network within the community to gain necessary assistance. Therefore, investment in CPD activities and community of practice can consolidate their professional identity as competent English teachers.

Though socio-structural and institutional constraints placed on teachers sometimes disempowered certain professional agency, the four teachers had strived to resolve the discrepancy with empowering tools–reflexivity, community, and flexibility. For instance, teachers shared their experiences of negotiating with students when there were mismatched expectations between teachers and students. Especially in the 'teaching to the test' culture (Shohamy, 2004), in which students' multimodal literacy is hardly evaluated in the assessment system (Jewitt, 2006), teachers tended to exercise their agency to negotiate the tasks with students and tried every means to gain recognition from the students and parents. For example, Cari mentioned that she even made phone calls and communicated with the parents for some assignments. This shows that teachers' pragmatic flexibility plays an important role to make the wheel turn among various stakeholders. Furthermore, the four teachers also exercised their agency in their 'temporally constructed engagement with different structural environments' (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998, p. 970). Their agency was achieved in light of daily narratives along the timeline spanning their experience, present adaptation and future vision. For example, Cari wrote on her Facebook, 'No problem! I can help develop their digital literacy in English classes', demonstrating her agentive vision to tackle students' low level of digital proficiency. By spelling out their past, present, and future actions in public reflective posts, their agency is achieved through each mundane instance in their daily teaching, leading to sustained transformation for their students and themselves (Staker et al., 2019).

Having identified three constructing pillars for their narrated teacherhood, the next chapter will examine the classroom interaction data to investigate how the four teachers responded to the ‘teaching English in English’ policy, especially the relationship between code-switching behaviours and English teacher identity and agency.

7 Chapter Seven: Classroom Discourse Analysis of English Teachers' Code-Switching Patterns

In the previous chapter, I have analysed the four teachers' narratives and identified three themes of how they positioned themselves and constructed their professional identities and agency in their accounts of the community of practice. This chapter aims to address RQ3: *How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their multilingual and multimodal classroom practices?* This chapter employs classroom discourse analysis to examine how the four teachers enacted their scripts of multilingual and multimodal teaching practices in the classrooms. Specifically, this chapter aims to explore the teachers' code-switching behaviours on how they mediated policy, institutional enablements and constraints, personal narratives, and their classroom talk-in-interaction. This data set draws on two types of data. One is fieldwork notes, including my class observation notes and ad hoc records of informal chats with the case teachers after class observations. The other is classroom video transcripts. The video data set consists of 30 classroom hours (50 minutes each) collected over five months in 2018.

Before I delve into classroom interaction analysis, it is interesting to note one anecdote about my access to classroom observations. Three of the four teachers (i.e., Sherry, Cari, and Wendy) responded similarly when asked if I could collect research data in their classrooms. 'There is nothing special in my class, it is just my mundane teaching', they said. I knew they were not meant to turn me down, neither were they confident about their teaching practices. By downplaying the significance of their teaching, they could mitigate the high expectation of a researcher and prefaced that their everyday practices were derived from authentic teaching needs. One of their teaching needs was to use learners' L1 as a resource to fulfil the pedagogical and sociocultural goals. It should be clarified that the concept of 'code-switching', or similar derivatives 'use of L1' 'multilingual resources', has been defined by various researchers from various paradigms, ranging from SLA, bilingual education, and sociolinguistics (see Section 3.3.2). In this chapter, I mainly use the term 'code-switching' to investigate its relation to teachers' professional identity and agency–an issue further complicated by technology-mediated classroom interaction, multi-layered pedagogical goals, and bilingual interactional orientations.

The stance adopted in this thesis is that there is a dialogic process of teacher identity and agency construction and policy implementation. The data presented in this chapter articulates the reflexive relationship between 'teach English in English' policy and teachers' language choice in the classroom. In this data set, I aim to analyse how the four English teachers' code-switching behaviours afforded various pedagogical agendas and constructed their professional identity and agency. Various frameworks have been proposed to understand language classroom discourse (Rymes, 2016; Seedhouse, 2004; Sert & Walsh, 2013; Sert, 2015; Walsh, 2006; Waring, 2016). Some of the frameworks consider code-switching as one of the interactional resources, yet their models do not consider code-switching having a pivotal role in classroom discourse analysis. In this chapter, teachers' code-switching is considered a vital dimension to explore not only because it manifests how teachers appropriated, negotiated, and implemented the *108 Curriculum* and the *Bilingual Nation Policy* analysed in Chapter 5, but, of equal importance, code-switching is considered as one of the multimodal resources employed by English teachers to demonstrate multiple and shifting identities (Hall & Nilep, 2015).

Therefore, I adopted G. Ferguson's (2003, p.39) framework, whose analytical focus is to investigate classroom code-switching in the following aspects: (1) curriculum access, (2) classroom management, and (3) interpersonal relations. This chapter will conclude with an overarching theme: codes-switching-as-resource (see Appendix 6 for category generation).

7.1 Teachers' code-switching for curriculum access

According to G. Ferguson (2003, p.41), the significance of *code-switching for curriculum access* lies 'in providing access to English medium text and in scaffolding knowledge construction for pupils with limited English language resources'. Following this vein, the analysis in this section illustrates the relationship between scaffolding knowledge construction and teachers' language choice in L2 classrooms. The following episode took place in a general English class in a junior high school. The class (7^{th} grade) had just finished singing a Christmas song

Santa Claus is coming to town on YouTube. Then the teacher, Cari, was introducing another song *Rudolph, the red-nosed reindeer*. Cari started the sequence by asking students if they had heard about Rudolph's story. For easier detection and comprehension, transcription on the left-hand column records the talk-in-interaction as it was, while translation on the right-hand column provides corresponding meaning in English.

Extract 7.1 Cari_class_20181221_1 (Rudolph's story_34:10)

	Transcription	Translation
Cari:	the red nose. ((pointing at the image on	
	the digital blackboard))	
	so he got bullied by other reindeers.	
S1:	你說那個麋鹿哦?	you are talking about the reindeer in the song?
Cari:	yes. so one day. Santa Claus.	
SS:	((burst of laughter))	
Cari:	安靜. ((shh))	be quiet. ((Shh))
	so one day Santa Claus is coming	
	to see the reindeer. the red-nosed	
	reindeer Rudolph. ((pointing at the	
	image of Rudolph))	
	and he is asking him for a favour. he asks	
	him. if if you can help me give out all the	
	gifts to the children. so the red-nosed	
	reindeer. you know. being a good helper	
	for Santa Claus.	
	好所以聽得懂我講什麼嗎? 聽得懂嗎	OK, do you understand me? understand?
	((learning forward to wait for SS	
	response))	
S2:	一點點.	a little bit.
Cari:	一點點? 好沒關係. 就聽. 所以他其實	a little bit? OK no problem. just listen. so
	當初被霸凌. 因為他的鼻孔紅紅的.	he was bullied cos of his red nose.
	但是因為他的鼻子.	but because of his nose.
	he has a special magic about the nose. it can.	
	it's very shining red. ((touching her nose))	
	閃閃亮亮的紅紅的. 所有他有點像什麼.	shining and red. like what?
	(1.0)	

28	Cari:	lights. light. (0.5) light. light ((pointing at the	
29		light on the ceiling))	
30	S3:	燈.	light.
31	S4:	喔. 燈喔.	oh. it's light.
32	Cari:	yes shining light.	yes shining light.

In Lines 01 to 03, Cari first mentioned Rudolph's nose in English, emphasising the red nose by pointing at the image shown on the digital blackboard. In Line 04, S1 asked, 'you are talking about the reindeer in the song?' with a rising tone in Chinese, seeking clarification about the reference to the reindeer. Despite S1's switching to Chinese, Cari sustained her language choice of English, responding 'yes' and continued her storytelling in Line 05. Cari's turn was interrupted by a burst of laughter from students in Line 06. However, my camera did not capture the source of the laughter, so the possible meaning of the laughter cannot be inferred here. In Line 07, Cari raised her volume and switched to Chinese intentionally for immediate discipline management. In this turn, Cari's intention for using Chinese will be further analysed in 7.2 (i.e., teachers' code-switching for classroom management). In Lines 08 to 16, Cari switched back to English, telling the whole story of Rudolph with the aid of the picture on the digital blackboard. After the storytelling sequence in English, Cari checked students' understanding via 'OK, do you understand me? understand?' in Chinese, with her body leaning forward to wait for the students' response. In Line 20, S2 responded 'a little bit' in Chinese, signalling that S2 might need more scaffolding. S2's reaction in Line 20 does not align with Waring's study (2016). She found that 'the learners persist in their orientation to the understanding-check questions as preferring *no-problem* both at activity boundaries and after teacher explanations or instructions' (Waring, 2016, p.100). S2's willingness to show her claims of insufficient knowledge (Sert & Walsh, 2013) might index that Cari had established a rapport with her students so that everyone felt secure to claim their insufficient knowledge openly.

In Lines 21 to 33, the second half of the sequence illustrates how Cari managed students' insufficient knowledge and furthered students' participation via the employment of available resources. One of the resources was students' L1. In Line 21, with the preface 'a little bit? Ok no problem. just listen' in Chinese, Cari retold the story in Chinese. During her explanation, she switched to English to describe Rudolph's red nose, moved her finger to her nose, and thus embodied the red nose. This embodied gesture was sequenced by another understanding-check question in Chinese ‘shining and red. like what?’ in Line 26. A noticeable pause followed this question in Line 27, so Cari oriented to students’ silence by repeating the word ‘light’ and pointing at the light on the ceiling in Lines 28 and 29. The response from S3 and S4 can be regarded as a second-pair part to Cari’s first-pair part in Line 26. This delayed adjacency pair shows that Cari successfully employed verbal and nonverbal resources to move students ‘from a state of not knowing the answer, to a state of displaying understanding’ (Sert, 2015, p.59). Especially in Line 31, S4 displayed his understanding with a high-pitched ‘Oh’, showing his engagement in this learning opportunity. Cari’s emphatic stress ‘yes. shining light’ in Line 33 was a positive assessment, thus confirming the answer from S3 and S4. This extract shows that in the process of guided knowledge construction, Cari devised various resources available for students to address students’ insufficient knowledge. Her code-switching to L1 with the integration of body gestures constitutes her identity and agency as a resourceful teacher who attended to students’ learning issues on a moment-by-moment basis.

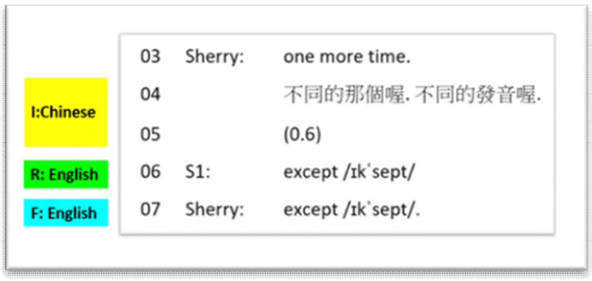
A similar situation of guided knowledge construction occurred in Extract 7.2, taken from an applied business English class for 12th graders in a vocational high school. After students had completed a vocabulary task on the Google Form, the teacher, Sherry, was asking students to take turns pronouncing the new words on the vocabulary list.

Extract 7.2 Sherry_class_20181108 (Pronunciation activity_15:07)

		Transcription	Translation
01	Sherry:	ok. next one. ((gazing at S1))	
02	S1:	except /ˈek-sept/	
03	Sherry:	one more time.	
04		不同的那個喔. 不同的發音喔.	different. different pronunciation.
05		(0.6)	
06	S1:	except /ɪkˈsept/	
07	Sherry:	except /ɪkˈsept/.	
08		然後名詞.	and then as a noun.
09	S1:	exception /ɪkˈsep.ʃən/	

10	Sherry:	exception /ɪkˈsep.ʃən/	
11		形容詞.	adjective.
12	S1:	exceptional /ɪkˈsep.ʃən.əl/	
13	Sherry:	exceptional /ɪkˈsep.ʃən.əl/	
14		副詞.	adverbial.
15	S1:	exceptionally /ɪkˈsep.ʃən.əl.i/	
16	Sherry:	exceptionally /ɪkˈsep.ʃən.əl.i/	
17		ok good. next one.	

In this extract, Sherry set the pedagogical goal as a 'form-and-accuracy' context (Seedhouse, 2004), asking students to pronounce the new words they had just practised on Google Forms. In Line 01, Sherry allocated the next turn to S1 with her gaze directed at S1. In Line 02, S1 pronounced the word 'except' in a non-target like form /ˈek-sept/, which constituted a repairable item for unfolding the following interaction. In Line 03, Sherry gently nudged S1 to take another try by saying 'one more time'. With rising intonation, she then switched to Chinese to make S1 aware of the placing of the syllable stress. Following a 0.6-second pause, in Line 06, S1 made a successful attempt in pronouncing /ɪkˈsept/. In Line 07, Sherry provided neither a positive nor negative assessment of S1's pronunciation. Instead, she just repeated after the student's pronunciation /ɪkˈsept/. Here, S1 seemed to take Sherry's response as a positive evaluation. This could be inferred from the following two turns. In Lines 08 and 09, Sherry prompted S1 to pronounce the word as a noun, and then S1 co-constructively



Picture 7.2 First round of IRF

Picture 7.1 Following rounds of IRF

pronounced the noun /ɪkˈsep.ʃən/. Lines 08 and 09 evidenced that Sherry's turn in Line 07 was a positive evaluation. Put otherwise, S1 could have treated Sherry's response in Line 07 as an implicit correction of his mispronunciation and could have pronounced a different sound. What S1 performed in Line 09 was another successful attempt at the pronunciation.

So far, a tacit IRF sequence had been co-constructed by Sherry and S1 (see Picture 7.1). The teacher initiated in Chinese, the student responded in English, and then the teacher repeated what the student pronounced as positive feedback. From this moment onwards, this sequence of Chinese-English-English code-switching IRF was recycled three times until S1 finished the pronunciation practice (see Picture 7.2). This illustrates a collaborative achievement for Sherry and S1, especially in the way they oriented to achieving mutual understanding. In the process of guided knowledge construction, Sherry sustained her language choice of Chinese. The reason could be that code-switching to L1 was deployed as a strategy to heighten students' noticing of syllable stress pronunciation. Sherry's identity as an authoritative figure was evoked by her code-switching IRF device. This device positioned the student with little linguistic knowledge of pronunciation while Sherry herself was a knowledge construction guide.

Apart from noticing pronunciation, code-switching into students' L1 also functions as a resource to facilitate L2 grammar acquisition. The following extract is taken from a general English class in a prestigious senior high school in Taipei. Because of students' higher level of academic performance and English proficiency, the amount of L1 use in this classroom was the least among the four cases. This lengthy extract is composed of two episodes. In the first episode, the teacher, Ruth, exclusively held the floor from Lines 01 to 19; in the second episode, some turns were taken by students to display their understanding of linguistic knowledge. The whole extract illustrates how Ruth switched to Chinese to explain the linguistic form of the sentence pattern 'It is time that someone did something…'. The sequence took place after the class had finished a vocabulary task on Chromebooks and shifted to another pedagogical activity (i.e., sentence pattern).

Extract 7.3 Ruth_class_20181029 (Sentence pattern_59:30)

Episode 1

		Transcription	Translation
01	Ruth:	ok. so hopefully you have done some	
02		vocabulary review. and now we're going	
03		to take a look at the sentence pattern.	
04		so page 110.	
05		((walking to her laptop near the	
06		blackboard and checking if the laptop	
07		screen is projected on the digital screen))	
08		ok. so page 110. *It is time that someone*	
09		*did something* or *that someone was…*	
10		um. 這個的話. 其實是一個比較.	actually. this type of sentence pattern is…in the form of spoken language. it is preferred to use '*It is time for someone to do something'*. so if you prefer the form '*It is time that someone did something…*'. for one. it is more formal. for another. it is more emphatic in tone. otherwise you can just *say 'It is time for her to go there'*. when you say *'It is time that she…*'. you have to use past tense in that clause.
11		因為其實他們現在在口語上面	
12		比較會講的是.	
13		*It is time for someone to do something*	
14		那所以呢. 如果你後面一定要用個子句	
15		的話呢. 第一個它比較正式. 第二個的話.	
16		你比較有一個強烈. 更強烈一點的口	
17		氣. 要不然的話. 你說 it is time for her to	
18		go there 就好啦. 你也不用一定要講說.	
19		it is time that she…然後還要用過去式.	

Episode 2

20	Ruth:	ok just take a quick look at the exercise. so number one…	
21		((ClassDojo is projected on the screen))	
22	SS:	((raising hands to bid for their turn))	
23	Ruth:	((reading aloud the exercise stem))	
24		*Alan / take / smelly garbage out*. so the sentence would be	
25		*It is time that Alan TOOK the smelly garbage out.*	
26		((looking over the whole class))	
27		ok. so. Jenny?	
28	SS:	((putting down their hands))	
29	S1:	*It is time that Cari learned to spend time wisely.*	
30	Ruth:	hmmm. *It is time that Cari LEARNED to spend time wisely*.	
31		((award points to Jenny via ClassDojo))	
32		ok. next one?	

33	SS:	((raising hands to bid for their turn))
34	Ruth:	ok. Xuan?
35	S2:	*It is time that Tiffany understood the importance of promptness.*
36	Ruth:	hmmm. *It is time that Tiffany understood. UNDERSTOOD. the importance of promptness.*
37		((award points to Xuan via ClassDojo))

Episodes of code-switching to explain linguistic knowledge are prevalent throughout this data set. In form-and-accuracy contexts, the teachers guided students step-by-step to accurately perform linguistic items (i.e., pronunciation, lexis, grammar, and sentence pattern). In the first episode, the organisation of the sequence is that Ruth held the whole turn from Lines 01 to 19. She first summarised what students had done in the previous class and shifted the pedagogical focus from vocabulary to sentence pattern in Line 03. Then, Ruth walked to her laptop and examined if her screen image was correctly projected on the screen. From Lines 10 to 19, Ruth switched to students' L1 to explain the pragmatic nuance between 'It is time *that* someone did something…' and 'It is time *for* someone to do something…'. Note that

Picture 7.3 Students bidding for turns

without signals of insufficient knowledge claimed by students, Ruth still automatically switched to Chinese here. The reason may be to 'help the learner observe or notice the L2 more accurately, ensure quicker and more carefully formulated hypotheses about the L2, and so aid acquisition' (Lewis, 1997, p.52). There is usually little contribution from students to achieve the pedagogical goal of being accurate and efficient in teaching L2 grammar (Seedhouse, 2004).

In the second episode, the organisation of the sequence is slightly different from the first episode, even though they were both in form-and-accuracy contexts. There were some turns yielded to students for them to display their understanding of the linguistic knowledge. In Line 22, students raised their hands to compete for Ruth's turn allocation (see Picture 7.3). Students' bidding for the turns was cued by Line 20 utterance 'ok just take a quick look at the exercise' and also by Line 21 Ruth's movement to project the image of the APP ClassDojo[2] on the projector screen. The verbal and nonverbal forms of communication in Lines 20 and 21 can be considered a 'contextualisation cue' (Gumperz, 1982) that had been previously established between Ruth and the students. As students were familiar with the interactional routines, they reacted eagerly to these cues automatically without further instructions (i.e., raising hands to bid for their turn). In Lines 23 to 25, Ruth did not allocate the turn immediately despite students' eagerness to display their knowledge. Instead, Ruth demonstrated one example of the target sentence pattern. In Lines 26 to 29, Ruth nominated S1, Jenny, to read aloud her answer. In Lines 30 and 31, instead of giving evaluative remarks, Ruth repeated Jenny's answer with emphatic stress on the keyword 'learned' and digitally awarded points to Jenny on ClassDojo. Then, a new round of IRF was initiated by Ruth from Lines 34 to 37 (see Picture 7.4). In Line 36, Ruth repeated S2's answer with a stress on the word 'UNDERSTOOD' to reiterate this sentence's key point: to use past tense in the clause.

What are the detailed observations telling us about Ruth's code-switching behaviours? First, this long extract is composed of two sequential episodes that illustrate that both Ruth and her students could smoothly accommodate the policy of 'teaching English in English', as evidenced in lines 20 to 37. Nevertheless, when concerned with grammar knowledge construction, Ruth still chose Chinese as her medium of instruction. Second, with the integration of the APP ClassDojo, a new type of IRF was identified in this extract (see Picture

[2] ClassDojo is an interactive platform where teachers, students, and parents can register for a free account.

7.4). At first glance, it seems that there was a frequent absence of the teacher's positive feedback. However, the Feedback turn was actually performed by Ruth's employment of (1) verbally repeating students' production with a positive discourse marker 'hmmm', and (2) nonverbally awarding points on ClassDojo. The two contextualisation cues were reciprocally

I: English	27		ok. so. Jenny?
	28	SS:	((putting down their hands))
R: English	29	S1:	*It is time that Cari learned to spend time wisely.*
F: English	30	Ruth:	hmmm. *It is time that Cari LEARNED to spend time wisely.*
	31		((award points to Jenny via ClassDojo))
I: English	34	Ruth:	ok. Xuan?
R: English	35	S2:	*It is time that Tiffany understood the importance of promptness.*
F: English	36	Ruth:	hmmm. *It is time that Tiffany understood. UNDERSTOOD. the importance of promptness*
	37		((award points to Xuan via ClassDojo))

Picture 7.4 IRF pattern with ClassDojo

understood by students and thus propelled the sequence of interaction. In sum, this extract demonstrates Ruth's identity as a resourceful teacher who skillfully employed multimodal resources to enhance students' engagement and an authoritative teacher who guided students to construct linguistic knowledge step by step.

Apart from noticing the form and accuracy of linguistic knowledge, code-switching into students' L1 also functions as a resource to deal with the lack of response in English. Extract 7.4 is taken from an extracurricular setting, where English was not treated as a subject matter related to students' academic performance. In this extracurricular English class, Wendy adopted the Problem-based language learning (PBLT) approach, designing different tasks that students could work with team members to learn English in the process of solving problems. The following sequence occurred when students were invited to present their invention designed to solve a specific problem they identified on campus.

Extract 7.4 Wendy_class_20190102 (Introducing your invention_01:14:45)

		Transcription	Translation
01	Wendy:	so are you ready? shall we start?	
02	S1:	ok.	
03	Wendy:	ok. here we go.	
04	S1:	**喔**. 這是我們設計的那個手環.	well. this is the bracelet we designed.
05	Wendy:	in English.	
06	S1:	(1.0) ok. so our solution is. use thisssss	
07		(1.0) ((pointing to their poster))	
08	Wendy:	bracelet.	
09	S1:	oh. bracelet. yes.	
10		and this bracelet can. to give a little (1.0)	
11	S2:	((indecipherable words))	
12	S1:	oh. electric shock to user.	
13		to wake them up.	
14	Wendy:	uh-huh.	
15	S1:	but surely. this way have to be inventing	
16		by someone. then after that. we can use	
17		this bracelet. ok.	
18	Wendy:	so when can we use the invention?	
19	S1:	umm (2.0)	
20	Wendy:	what kind of people need this invention?	
21	S2:	student.	
22	S1:	((pointing at one student who is sleeping))	
((10 lines omitted))			
23	Wendy:	oh. see? you know how it works?	
24		同學**你們知道這怎麼操作嗎?** (0.5)	you know how the invention functions?
25	S3:	不知道.	have no idea.
26		就是它是一個手環. **每當你睡著的時候**.	it is a bracelet when you fall asleep.
27		your heartbeat will slow down. yeah. Will	
28		slow down. it will give some electric shock.	
29		then you will wake up.	
30		就是給**你電擊**. 因為發現**你的心跳變慢**	because it can detect your slow heartbeat. it will give you electric shock. so you will be awakened.
31		的時候. 它就把**你電擊醒過來**.	
32		ok. it’s great. it’s really wonderful.	

33 thank you. ((clapping hands))

According to Wendy, originally students were meant to accomplish their tasks on iPads. Nevertheless, the iPads were under maintenance at that time, so she contingently transformed the digital task into a paper task. In this class, Wendy provided each team with a poster, not an iPad, as a medium to display the result of their task (see Picture 7.5). From Line 01 to 03, the language choice purposely designed by Wendy was English. The pedagogical goal was to provide English speaking opportunities in a meaning-and-fluency context. It appears that both students and Wendy established a mutual agreement that students should use the target language, English, to present their task outcome. However, in Line 04, S1's turn was accomplished in Chinese, signalling S1's temporary misalignment with the pedagogical goal. A noticeable silence for 1 second followed Wendy's immediate reminder 'in English' in

Picture 7.5 Students presenting their invention

Line 05. In Line 06, S1's attempt to switch to English was foiled by a keyword he could not pronounce successfully. Instead of explicitly expressing 'I don't know how to say the word', S1 employed the following two cues to signal his insufficient knowledge: (1) an elongating 'thisssss' suggests he could not utter the subsequent word, (2) a marked pause for 1 second with his finger pointing at the invention they drew on the poster. In Line 08, Wendy provided the word ‘bracelet’ sequenced by S1’s ‘oh. bracelet. yes’. In Lines 09 to 10, S1’s turn was foiled again by another keyword ‘electric shock’. This time it was S2, his team member, provided the prompt in Line 11. In Line 12 to 17, S1 managed to introduce their invention with some pauses and grammatical errors. S1’s ‘ok’ in Line 17 implies the closing of his demonstration.

So far, S1 had accomplished the group presentation. Compared to the language-centred and teacher-controlled exchanges in Extract 7.2 and 7.3, the first half of this extract indicates that more interactional space allowed students to express and develop their ideas. In the second half of this extract, the unfolding of the interaction exhibits more teacher’s control over the turn-taking organisation in this meaning-and-fluency context. In Line 18, Wendy asked a referential question ‘so when can we use this invention’, aiming to elicit an elaborate explanation from the group members. S1’s hesitation ‘umm’ for 2 seconds indexes that he might not know how to elaborate his idea. So Wendy re-initiated the question with a more specific focus on ‘what kind of people need this invention’. Another group member S2 provided a very concise answer ‘student’, with S1 nonverbally pointing at one student who was sleeping. It demonstrates that S2 and S1 employed available resources collaboratively to make themselves understood. To make the analysis shorter, here I have omitted ten lines of the adjacency pairs derived from Wendy’s referential questions. Notice Wendy’s use of the change of information state token ‘oh. see’ (Heritage, 1984) in Line 23. It shows her understanding of the group’s invention, so Wendy turned to the whole class and asked ‘you guys know how it works’ in English and then in Chinese translation again. Wendy’s question in Lines 23 and 24 aimed to bring the rest of the class into the discussion. After a 0.5 silence, S3 said, ‘have no idea’. To deal with the lack of response in English, in Lines 24 to 31, Wendy switched to Chinese to explain and intermittently switched back to English to highlight the English keywords in the presentation.

Wendy’s code-switching in this meaning-and-fluency context has expressed her footing changes (Goffman, 1981) and multiple identities at a micro-moment scale. For one thing, Wendy positioned herself as the one who guided and regulated students’ choice of language. As she displayed in Lines 01 to 05, she successfully oriented students’ production to the pedagogical goal— to communicate ideas in English. For another thing, she enacted her micro identity as an encouraging teacher interested in students' inventions. What she demonstrated in Lines 06 to 17 was to engage in students' presentations without correcting any grammatical errors. For the other thing, she shifted the identity from a language choice monitor to a code-switcher who dealt with the lack of students' responses in English, as shown in Lines 23 to 31. This extract captures the reflexive relationship between the teacher's code-switching decisions and the micro contexts.

I have analysed the four teachers' code-switching for curriculum access in various micro contexts. As summarised in Table 7.1, there were four functions identified in this category: (1) check understanding, (2) pronunciation correction, (3) grammar acquisition, (4) elicit responses. In language-centred interactions, new types of IRF patterns were identified in the technology-mediated classrooms. In content-centred interactions, referential questions and adjacency pairs were prominent features. The detailed investigation reveals that the four English teachers were highly resourceful. They employed multimodal resources (i.e., gesture, gaze, intonation, technology, and poster) and L1 resources to scaffold students' knowledge construction on English linguistic and communicative competence. The code-switching interactions between the teachers and students evoked multiple identities of English teachers as resourceful teachers, knowledge construction guides, and classroom sequential designers.

Table 7.1 Code-switching for curriculum access

Category	Function	Interactional features	Positional identities
Curriculum assess	(1) Check understanding (2) Pronunciation correction (3) Grammar acquisition (4) Elicit responses	(A) In language-centred interactions: - New types of IRF patterns are identified in the technology-mediated classrooms (see Picture 7.1 & 7.2 & 7.4). - Chinese was employed to guide students to notice the L2 more carefully and efficiently. - There was usually little contribution from students.	• a resourceful teacher • a knowledge construction guide • a classroom sequential designer

		(B) In content-centred interactions: - more interactional space was allowed for students to express and develop their ideas. - Referential questions and adjacency pairs were prominent features. - Though English is the target language choice, code-switching into Chinese was employed to deal with the lack of response in English.	

7.2 Teachers' code-switching for classroom management

In G. Ferguson's framework, code-switching behaviours that fall into the category of *classroom management* function as an 'attention-focusing device' (2003, p.42). Teachers employ code-switching to maintain classroom discipline, redirect students' attention, and negotiate tasks with students. In this section, similar pedagogical functions of code-switching are identified, one of which is to discipline students. The example below is abridged from Extract 7.1, whose contextual details have been provided previously. Here, only the turns relevant to classroom discipline are presented in Extract 7.5.

Extract 7.5 Cari_class_20181221_1 (Classroom discipline_34:10)

		Transcription	Translation
01	Cari:	the red nose. ((pointing at the image on	
02		the digital blackboard))	
03		so he got bullied by other reindeers.	
04	S1:	你說那個麋鹿哦?	you are talking about the reindeer in the song?
05	Cari:	yes. so one day. Santa Claus.	

06	SS:	((laughing))	
07	Cari:	安靜. ((shh))	be quiet. ((Shh))

In Line 01, Cari initiated the sequence in English. Despite S1's question in Chinese in Line 04, it is evident that Cari managed to conduct her storytelling in English. In Line 06, there was a burst of laughter among students, yet the reason for it cannot be inferred in the video recording. Cari raised her volume and switched to Chinese intentionally to redirect students' attention for immediate discipline management. It signals her shift from materials mode to managerial mode (Walsh, 2006). Her switching back to Chinese 'be quiet' with an exclamation 'shh' evoked one of her micro identities. Cari positioned herself as the one who orchestrated the progression of the course. This disciplinary episode was contingently solved by her prompt code-switching to regain students' attention.

Apart from disciplinary management, code-switching to students' L1 is often employed to explain procedural information of digital software and hardware. As Wendy mentioned in the interview, she agreed with the policy such as EMI and the' teaching English in English' policy. Nevertheless, considering her students' varied English proficiency levels, she used Chinese from time to time to provide procedural information for her students to operate the digital software and hardware. The following example of a switch from English to Chinese occurred when Wendy instructed group members to read an article in the textbook and complete a summary on iPads.

Extract 7.6 Wendy_class_20181227_1 (Writing a summary_00:15)

01	Wendy:	you're going to use your textbook.	you're going to use your textbook. finish the task before the end of the class. pay attention to the time. please check if there is this image in the photo gallery. if not I can send it to you later via Airdrop. ((Wendy points at the digital blackboard, SS fiddle with iPads)) ok so make sure you have this image. we'll use the three images to read Lesson 9. It's about books. ok whether you like it or not. ok. we're going to do something about this topic.
02		下課前完成. 注意**你們的時間**. 請先檢查	
03		photo gallery. 有沒有這一張.沒有的我等一下	
04		會 Airdrop 給**你**. ((Wendy points at the digital	
05		blackboard, SS fiddle with iPads))	
06		ok. so make sure you have this image.	
07		好. 等一下我們會用這三張來讀第九課的課	
08		文.所以第九課是關於書籍. 好那	
09		whether you like it or not. ok.	

10		we’re going to do something about this topic.	
11	S1:	我們沒有平板裡沒有圖片. ((S1 raises his	we don’t have the images in the iPad. ((S1 raises his head))
12		head))	
13	Wendy:	沒有我等一下傳給**你們**. ok	ok I’ll send it to you later.

This sequence occurred at the beginning of the class. Shifting into Chinese here functions as an explanation for the procedural operation of the activity. In Line 01, Wendy started the sequence in English, setting the pedagogical agenda of the task. Then in Line 02, she switched to Chinese to remind her students to finish the task by the end of the class. In Lines 03 to 04, she continued using Chinese to check if there were photos shown on students’ iPads. As she referred to the image on the digital blackboard, simultaneously, students were fiddling with their iPads to check the images. In Line 06, Wendy switched back to English ‘ok so make sure you have this image’ to reiterate what she had just said in Chinese in the previous turn. Notice how this explanation was packaged: giving the procedural information first in Chinese and then in English. This type of ‘double-checking strategy’ (Seedhouse, 2004, p.136) is frequently found in this dataset for teachers to check students’ understanding of the given digital activity procedure. In Lines 07 to 08, Wendy used Chinese to refer students to their textbooks and introduced the topic of this lesson. In Lines 09 to 10, Wendy employed the double-checking strategy again, roughly translating what she had just said in the previous turn into English. At the transition relevance place in Line 10, Wendy’s procedural monologue was jointly sequenced by S1’s Chinese turn in Line 11, ‘we don’t have the images in the iPad’. S1’s turn can be regarded as a dispreferred response relevant to Wendy’s turn ‘make sure you have this image’ in Lines 02 to 07. Then, Wendy closed this sequence with an additional Chinese turn ‘I’ll send it to you later’ with a discourse marker *OK*.

In this code-switching procedural context, most of the interactional features embodied in this extract correspond to what Walsh identified in a ‘managerial mode’ (2006, p.68) and what Seedhouse identified in a ‘procedural context’ (2004, p.133). Teachers tended to

(1) sustain a long turn in explaining the procedure with little contribution from students. Especially in a technology-mediated classroom, when teachers introduce new digital

software or hardware, they tend to have an elaborate turn to establish new procedural routines that students do not encounter in previous class sessions.

(2) use confirmation checks constantly. Especially in a technology-mediated classroom, confirmation checks are frequently conducted in the sequence of one turn in English and another turn in Chinese. For example, the turn 'if there is this image in the photo gallery' was first delivered in Chinese and then was reiterated in English 'so make sure you have this image'.

In one of the informal chats I had with Wendy after a class observation, she stated the reason for code-switching to students' L1.

Extract 7.7 Wendy_fieldnote_20181226_2

> Sometimes it is about the task content. Even with the assistance of a whiteboard, students sometimes still can't get the main point of my explanation, so I usually repeat it in Chinese. In addition, sometimes it is students' first time using the software or website. I usually explain this part in Chinese. If students need to use technology and at the same time understand the task content, the information loading will be too heavy for them. So whenever I introduce a new App, I usually design a digital task that is not too complicated. I mainly hope that students can operate the basic functions of the App and produce simple works. Step by step.

In this case, it reveals that these code-switching behaviours tended to evoke Wendy's professional identity as a teacher who contingently attended to students' needs and flexibly executed the 'teaching English in English' policy in her classroom.

In the category of classroom management, it is identified that teachers often conducted code-switching into Chinese to negotiate digital tasks with students. The following example is taken from Ruth's class. At first, Ruth introduced two websites that provide stories of civil right fighters. Then, she asked students to read the stories, make a three-page presentation to introduce one of the fighters, and record a presentation video on their Chromebooks. The extract below captures the negotiation process between Ruth and her students when Ruth asked them to generate captions for their presentation videos.

Extract 7.8 Ruth_class_20181029 (Making caption for videos_01:15:45)

		Transcription	Translation
01	Ruth:	ok when you make the video. be sure to turn	
02		on the caption.	
03		同學我們要來做一下配字幕的工作.	we are gonna make a caption for the video presentation.
04	SS:	蛤? 什麼? ((a groan of resistance and dismay))	WHAT? ((a groan of surprise and dismay))
05	Ruth:	配字幕很簡單啊. 我絕對不會叫你做困難	it's very easy to generate captions. there's no rocket science involved in my class.
06		的事情啊.	
07	SS:	((a groan of resistance and dismay))	
08	Ruth:	let me show you. ok. when you do the	
09		presentation. you just click on 'present'	
10		and you click here 'caption'.	
11		((pointing how it works on the screen))	
12		so let's see what will happen.	
13		*Our hero is Nelson Mandela from South*	
14		*Africa.* ((leaning forward to the microphone	
15		on the laptop and the caption is	
16		automatically generated))	
17	SS:	wow. oh…	
18	S1:	前提是. 你的發音是對的.	the premise is that your pronunciation is correct.
19	Ruth:	yes so just try to speak clearly and that's it.	
20		you just talk. you don't have to type.	
21		我什麼時候叫你們做過那種.	never in my class have I designed harsh tasks. everything I teach in my class is easy and useful.
22		我教你們的都是簡單好用的東西.	
		((in a teasing tone))	
23	SS:	((a burst of laughter))	
24	Ruth:	我自己都不想那樣打字了. 我幹嘛叫你們	I don't want to type word by word either. so I would not impose on you what I myself don't desire.
25		這樣打啊.	
26		ok so please get started.	

As mentioned earlier, students in Ruth's class were comparatively competent English learners, so English as a medium of instruction was the norm in Ruth's class. The following turn-by-turn analysis reveals how Ruth's code-switching into Chinese was understood and attended to by her students. In Lines 01 and 02, Ruth told students to turn on the 'caption' function when they made presentation videos on Google Slides. This turn was accomplished in the English language, sequenced by another turn in Chinese translation. Note students' response in Line 04. Students did not display their understanding until the Chinese translation for the key word 'caption' was uttered in Line 03. Or, put it more precisely, Ruth's code-switching in Line 03 provided an immediate contextual frame for students' subsequent utterances in Line 04. Students' groan of resistance and dismay here was a vital contextualisation cue for Ruth. It can be inferred that at first, students did not understand Ruth's English instruction in Lines 01 and 02. Then, in Lines 05 and 06, Ruth sustained her language choice of Chinese and reassured students that there was no rocket science involved in generating captions. Her switch to Chinese was employed as a means to dispel students' doubt and resistance to the digital task. In Line 07, students again displayed their doubt, indicating their interpretation that the given task was challenging for them.

So far, Lines 01 to 07 constituted a 'sequential environment' (Auer, 2007, p. 124) in which the teacher's code-switching was required to steer the course smoothly. Then, in the sequence from Line 08 to 16, Ruth switched back to English and held the floor for several turns to demonstrate how to generate captions automatically on Google Slides. Ruth employed multimodal resources to make herself understood by students, including pointing at the projector screen to show how captions worked and leaning forward to the microphone so that Google Slides could recognise her voice. Students displayed their understanding with a high-pitched 'wow. oh' in Line 17 when the captions immediately appeared on the screen. S1's Chinese comment 'the premise is that your pronunciation is correct' in Line 18 highlights her precise understanding of Ruth's preceding demonstration. S1's observation was heightened by Ruth's turn in Lines 19 to 20. Ruth took S1's comment as another opportunity to explicate how to make the voice recognised by the computer. Then, Ruth switched to Chinese in a teasing tone in Lines 21 to 25 'never in my class have I designed harsh tasks. everything I teach in my class is easy and useful', sequenced by a burst of laughter from students. Ruth's intention for using Chinese here will be further analysed in Section 7.3 (i.e., teachers' code-switching for interpersonal relations).

In summary, this section has illustrated how the four English teachers' code-switching functioned as a resource for classroom management in different micro contexts. As summarised in Table 7.2, there were three functions identified in this category: (1) disciplinary management, (2) digital operation, (3) negotiating digital tasks with students. In discipline-centred interactions, teachers tended to conduct their management in Chinese for the immediate and effective purposes. In procedure-centred interactions, teachers tended to adopt Chinese with multimodal resources (i.e., videos, audios, and body gestures) to check if students understood how to accomplish the digital tasks. Also, switching to students' L1 can help teachers deal with students' resistance and doubts to digital tasks and realign students' attention with intended pedagogical goals. In this category of code-switching for classroom management, the English teachers' multiple identities were evoked, including attention redirectors, conductors who forwarded course progression, flexible implementers of the *Bilingual Nation Policy*, and moderators who negotiated between students and pedagogical goals.

Table 7.2 Code-switching for classroom management

Category	Function	Interactional features	Positional identities
Classroom management	(1) Disciplinary management (2) Digital operation (3) Negotiate digital tasks with students	(A) In discipline-centred interactions: - Chinese was used for immediate and effective classroom management. (B) In procedure-centred interactions: - Chinese with multimodal resources (i.e., videos, audios, body gestures, and double-checking strategy) was used. - Teachers tended to have an elaborate and elongated turn to introduce new websites or APPs and establish new procedural routines that students do not	• an attention redirector • a conductor who forwarded course progression • a flexible implementer of *Bilingual Nation Policy* • a moderator who negotiated between students and pedagogical goal

		encounter in previous class sessions.	

7.3 Teachers' code-switching for interpersonal relations

Like other frameworks that attempt to categorise complex social realities, the three categories proposed in G. Ferguson's code-switching framework (2003) also have fuzzy boundary lines. However, despite the slightly overlapping characteristics among them, the third category of *code-switching for interpersonal relations* foregrounds human elements in the classrooms. Unlike a technocratic perspective that conceptualises a language teacher as a mere knowledge transmitter (Freeman, 2016; Kumaravadivelu, 2006) or policy implementer (Johnson, 2013), this category highlights how teachers affectively engage in the process of negotiating their identities in relation to students. In this category, the four English teachers' code-switching was identified as acknowledging students' anxiety, revealing personal thoughts and stories, and building rapport with students. The extract below is an illustrative instance of a code-switch to Chinese to reduce students' anxiety and encourage greater participation. This example is taken from Extract 7.8, whose contextual details have been provided in the previous section. Here, only the turns relevant to interpersonal relations are presented in Extract 7.9.

Extract 7.9 Ruth_class_20181029 (Making caption for videos_01:15:45)

19	Ruth:	我什麼時候叫**你們做過那種**.	never in my class have I designed harsh tasks. everything I teach in my class is easy and useful.
20		我教**你們的都是簡單好用的東西**.	
21	SS:	((a burst of laughter))	
22		我自己都不想那樣打字了. 我幹嘛叫**你們**	I don't want to type word by word either. so I would not impose on you what I myself don't desire.
23		這樣打**啊**.	
24	Ruth:	ok so please get started.	

Confronted with students' explicit resistance to the idea of making captions for their videos, in Lines 19 to 20, Ruth switched to Chinese in a teasing tone, creating a humour effect and emphasising that the digital tools she introduced in her class were functional and easy to operate. This was sequenced by a burst of laughter from students. Ruth might interpret the laughter as a contextualisation cue that students had reduced their anxiety and were willing to participate in this digital task. So, she continued holding the floor in Chinese and identified herself as a person who did not want to type captions manually, ‘so I would not impose on you what I myself don’t desire’. Ruth’s intention for using Chinese here indexed her positional identity as a humanising teacher who could relate to students’ feelings and boost their confidence. Code-switching to Chinese also evoked Ruth’s multiple identities: a professional community member who exhibited her expertise in digital teaching and a local community member who shared the same value with her students.

Besides its function in dealing with students’ rejection, code-switching is also employed to reveal the teachers’ personal thoughts or stories. This is a constantly identified feature of interpersonal relations, which exemplifies that the teachers did not just act as a conduit for linguistic knowledge, but from time to time, acted as affective beings who shared their personal experiences with students. The following extract is a typical example in this micro-context: teachers usually switched to Chinese, the shared code between teachers and students, to index multiple cultural identities. For example, in Extract 7.10, the class was discussing grammatical multiple-choice questions on a test paper. One of the students raised her question, and Ruth gave an English explanation why the other three were incorrect choices for the stem of the question. After the explanation, Ruth took advantage of the moment, switched to Chinese to extend the topic of the question (i.e., genuine gratitude) and shared her personal thoughts.

Extract 7.10 Ruth_class_20181101 (Genuine gratitude_4:49)

		Transcription	Translation
01	S1:	No. 44.	
02	Ruth:	No. 44. ((reading the test paper))	
03		*Gratitude is the most effective when it is ___.*	
04		GENUINE.	
05		it’s genuine means it’s real. it’s something	
06		that you truly feel deep. it’s genuine.	
07		很真誠的. 同學你選哪一個?	genuine. your answer?
08	S1:	((indecipherable words))	
09	Ruth:	它說. 當你對人家表達感謝的時候.	

10		當**你對別人表達感激**. 它說	the sentence means when you show your genuine gratitude. it’s the most effective. ok?
11		it’s the most effective. ok?	
12		對**啊**. 所以我常講說. 什麼教師節**卡片**	that’s why I always tell students it's not worth bothering with Teacher’s Day card.
13		**啊**. 什麼有的沒的. 都不用那個**啦**.	
14	SS:	((burst of laughter))	
15	Ruth:	因為我們教書教那麼多年. 看到那種全班	cos for many years. I’ve seen that some students write Teacher’s Day card because they are forced to. I don’t mind whether to receive your card or not. anyway I’m not saying that students are not genuine. I just think it's not genuine because it is done out of pressure.
16		寫一張大**卡片**. 然後**每個人都非得寫不可**.	
17		我都覺得算了算了.	
18		anyway. 當然也不是說. 同學都不真誠.	
19		而是我覺得這種東西不要強迫.	
20		因為強迫就不真誠了.	

In Lines 02 to 06, Ruth read question No. 44 and explained in English why the word ‘genuine’ was the best choice for the question stem *Gratitude is the most effective when it is* ____. In Lines 07 to 11, Ruth used Chinese and English interchangeably, explained the sentence’s intended meaning, and clarified that the other three items were incorrect choices. Then, Ruth switched back to Chinese, further expressing her personal opinions on the topic of genuine gratitude. She mentioned a culturally bound convention in Taiwan – students collaboratively write a large Thank-you card to their teachers on Teacher’s Day (which is on September 28th). In Lines 12 and 13, Ruth commented bluntly, ‘that’s why I always tell students it’s not worth bothering with Teacher’s Day card’. Code-switching to Chinese here could function as a foot change, shifting from the curriculum access mode to interpersonal relations mode, as a way to reveal Ruth’s private and personal emotions. Students displayed their comprehension of code-switching by laughter in Line 14. After the laughter turn, Ruth continued in Chinese sharing her past experiences about receiving Teacher’s Day cards from the students. She thought that students did not show their genuine gratitude if they were forced to write the card out of peer pressure.

In this episode, the code-switching was based on the shared cultural knowledge between Ruth and her students. Ruth made a relationship between her multiple identities and code-switching. The cultural reference of Teacher’s Day was established by Ruth in Chinese so that students could understand it better. According to Gumperz (1982, p.66), there is a tendency ‘for the ethnically specific, minority language to be regarded as the *we-code* and become associated with in-group and informal activities, and for language the majority to serve as the *they-code* associated with the more formal, stiffer and less personal out-group relations’. Here, it is reasonable to argue that the ‘we-code’ Chinese here indexes Ruth’s in-group identity as the one who shared the same local knowledge with her students. Moreover, students’ subsequent laughter can be interpreted as their understanding of this ‘we-code’ and their engagement in listening to Ruth’s small stories. Furthermore, the moment of Ruth’s code-switching to Chinese was indicative of shifting the identity from a knowledge transmitter and a classroom manager to an affective social being who desired to be treated genuinely.

Apart from revealing personal thoughts and indexing cultural references, code-switching in this category was also employed by teachers to build rapport with students. For example, the following extract was taken from Cari’s class. The 9th-grade students were at the final stage of counting down their days till the national joint entrance exam. After introducing a digital clock that could help students count down the days, Cari turned to another tab. It was a motivational quote from Abraham Lincoln.

Extract 7.11 Cari_class_20181208_2 (Motivational quote_27:15)

		Transcription	Translation
01	Cari:	((switching to another tab to show the	
02		motivational quote on the digital board))	
03		This is from Abraham Lincoln. (0.5)	
04		是誰**啊**? 亞伯拉罕.林肯	who is Abraham Lincoln?
05	SS:	**喔**. 林肯.	oh. Lincoln.
06	S1:	林肯?	Lincoln?
07	Cari:	對. 美國總統. 對不對? 來一起唸. go	yes. American president. right? let’s read it out. go.
08	SS:	*I am a small walker, but I never walk back.*	
09		((in chorus))	
10	Cari:	講得很好**喔**. **你可以走很慢**. 但沒關係.	this is well said. you can walk slowly. it’s ok. but you can never walk back. you need to keep going though you walk slowly. like your English is not good now. but it’s ok. you still need to work hard and you’ll be there someday in the future. right?
11		**你**絕對不能夠往回走. 不能退**步嘛**.	
12		**你要持續進步**. 即便**你走很慢**. 所以	
13		**你現在英文學不好**. 沒關係. 但**你還是要**	
14		努力. 對**吧**? **你總有一天會達到目標的**.	

In Line 03, Cari first introduced the name ‘Abraham Lincoln’ in English and then switched to Chinese to check if students knew who he was. Some students responded in Chinese ‘oh. Lincoln’ with a raising tone. This shows that they understood 林肯 in Chinese as ‘Lincoln’ in English, the one that appeared in their history textbook. In Line 06, S1 uttered ‘Lincoln?’ as a claim of insufficient knowledge, showing that he still did not get who Lincoln was. So, Cari used the Chinese to provide more information that Lincoln was a former American president. The code-switching sequence from Lines 01 to 07 can be categorised as code-switching for curriculum access, as analysed in Section 7.1. Cari’s code-switching here in Chinese was devised to scaffold students’ understanding, especially for those who needed more time to process the information in the fleeting classroom interactions.

Then Cari led the whole class to read aloud the quote shown on the digital screen. In Line 08, the whole class read aloud in chorus. In Lines 10 to 14, Cari continued in Chinese, explaining the implied meaning of the quote ‘I am a small walker, but I never walk back’. She compared this walking process to students’ exam preparation process and encouraged them not to give up their English. ‘You’ll be there someday in the future’ was Cari’s effort to reduce students’ anxiety and provide an affective climate that was supportive. Instead of using English, Cari’s switching to Chinese evoked her identity as an empathetic teacher who cared about students’ emotions. This was also telling her students that she was not a teacher who only took care of their academic performance but also their mental health and self-confidence. This suggests that when using a language to build an affective rapport with students, teachers tended to choose Chinese, the shared language between themselves and students, to deliver their emotional concerns.

In summary, this section has analysed the four teachers’ code-switching for interpersonal relations in various micro contexts. As summarised in Table 7.3, there were three functions identified in this category: (1) cultural co-membership, (2) personal experiences, (3) building rapport and reducing students’ anxiety. These extracts demonstrate that the teachers’ code-switching to L1 here is not about whether the English teachers’ oral fluency is insufficient or not. Instead, it is about flesh and blood, about teachers and students as affective social beings who deserve a decent and fair evaluation of the code-switching to L1 in the classroom interactions. I would make the case that the latest announcement of Taiwan MOE on the proportion of English language used in English classes does not match the realities in the English classrooms. It was announced that by 2024, 60% of the high schools would be teaching English in English classes (Central News Agency, 2021). Such a technocratic perspective of LPP implementation ignores the 'interactional architecture of the L2 classroom as rational' (Seedhouse, 2004, p. 182) in that code-switching to the L1 is functionally oriented to and derived from the affective and pedagogical needs between T-S interactions. An ethnographic perspective of treating English language teachers as flesh-and-blood social beings in the LPP process will be further discussed in the next chapter Section 8.2.2.1.

Table 7.3 Code-switching for interpersonal relations

Category	Function	Interactional features	Positional identities
Interpersonal relations	(1) Cultural co-membership (2) Personal experiences (3) Build rapport and reduce students' anxiety	(A) Teachers tended to use Chinese to create a humorous and humanising environment. (B) Chinese, the shared code between teachers and students, was used to make cultural references. (C) Teachers tended to use Chinese to deliver their emotional concerns and care.	• an affective social being • a humanising teacher who can relate to students' feelings and boost their confidence • a professional community member who exhibits their expertise in digital teaching • a local community member who share the same cultural knowledge with students

7.4 Chapter summary

This chapter has aimed to address RQ3: *How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their multilingual and multimodal classroom practices?* With a CA-inspired analytical discussion, G. Ferguson's code-switching framework was adopted to explore the interactional features at longer stretches of sequence in the L2 classrooms. Code-switching patterns identified in this chapter can be summarised in one overarching theme: *code-switching-as-resource*. As shown in Tables 7.1, 7.2, and 7.3, the classroom extracts reveal a total of 10 functions of the four teachers' code-switching occurrences. The evidence, although limited, shows that the four English teachers tended to utilise multimodal and L1 resources to enact different identities, including as a knowledge construction guide, classroom sequential designer, attention redirector, course progression conductor, language-in-policy implementer, technical glitch eliminator, moderator, and affective peer to their students.

In light of the code-switching findings presented in Section 7.1 ~ 7.3, the findings suggest that the language curriculum should integrate possibilities of L1 usage to attend to not only students' but also teachers' local needs. In other words, code-switching from English to Chinese should not be viewed as an outlawed practice in the classroom but instead viewed as a bottom-up asset that would facilitate students' language learning process and teachers' agency in the policy implementation process. Unfortunately, despite the criticism and recommendations by various scholars (Her, 2020), Taiwan MOE has insisted that by 2024, 60% of the high schools should be teaching English in English classes (Central News Agency, 2021) to showcase the positive outcomes of the Bilingual Nation Policy, ignoring the reflexive relation between the code-switching behaviours and local classroom needs.

As the findings reveal in this chapter, it could be argued that the top-down monolithic perspective of 'teach English in English' does not have a positive contribution to teacher professional identity and agency. First, in the category of teachers' code-switching for curriculum access, the findings illustrate the reflexive relationship between scaffolding knowledge construction and teachers' language choice in the classroom. As can be seen in the analysis, teachers' code-switching to L1 facilitated guided knowledge construction for students with limited English proficiency. In language-centred interactions (see Extract 7.1, 7.2, and 7.3), teachers exercised their professional agency by switching to L1 with the integration of body gestures, in order to deal with the issues such as comprehension checking, noticing pronunciation, and explaining grammar. In content-centred interactions (see Extract 7.4), switching to L1 was employed to address the lack of students' response in English. These instances demonstrate that switching into students' L1 does not necessarily imply that the teachers did not have the English proficiency to 'teach English in English' but because they agentively oriented to their pedagogical agendas and reflexively using L1 and various multimodal resources to further students' understanding.

Second, in the category of teachers' code-switching for classroom management, the findings suggest that teachers chose to switch to Chinese based on practicality in order to discipline students and operate the digital classes smoothly. In discipline-centred interactions (see Extract 7.5), Cari exercised her professional agency by switching to L1 to immediately redirect students' attention when students were distracted. This finding corresponds to what Lin (2013) reported in her review of classroom code-switching that Hong Kong teachers switched to L1 to deal with discipline issues. In procedure-centred interactions (see Extract 7.6 and 7.8), teachers' switching to L1 functioned as a contingent strategy in that the digital tasks could be understood and performed by students. The findings in this chapter also reflect those of Qian et al. (2009) who also found that in the context of primary EFL classroom in China, teachers were capable of instructing in the target language yet employed code-switching as a discourse strategy to ensure efficient classroom management. These instances reveal that the teachers were not necessarily proficient in 'teaching English in English'. Instead, their professional identity as a flexible implementer of Bilingual Nation Policy should be recognised in the sense that they strived to strike a balance between policy execution and classroom practicality. The examples presented in this category indicate that teachers' code-switching was not random but contingent in order to address particular classroom management issues within their Taiwanese secondary classrooms.

Third, in the category of teachers' code-switching for interpersonal relations, the findings suggest that teachers' code-switching to Chinese functioned as an affective means to make the classroom a humanising and enjoyable space for both teachers and students. The instances presented in this category reveal that the imposition of 'teaching English in English' policy narrowly frames the English classroom as a place where linguistic knowledge is transmitted, without recognising both teachers' and students' identity as an affective social being. When teachers choose to switch to Chinese, the shared cultural code between teachers and students, it is important to ethnographically examine how code-switching to Chinese is employed by teachers to agentively perform their professional identity as a classroom knower in their contexts. In this circumstance, the sweeping policy claim that by 2024, 60% of the high schools should be teaching English in English classes could be detrimental to teachers' identity and agency development. I will further discuss this issue in Chapter Eight Section 8.2, arguing that English language teachers' code-switching to Chinese should be fairly evaluated based on their pedagogical decisions in their contexts.

In terms of *positional identity*, the evidence shows that the four English teachers dialectically negotiated the institutional identities ascribed by policy, imagined identities embedded in their narratives, and practised identity realised in their classroom interactions. On the side of *invested identity*, it is evident that the teachers had invested in multimodal literacy to increase their professional capital as competent teachers in multimodal times (Darvin & Norton, 2015), including their digital operation, design of digital tasks, and negotiation digital tasks with students. As one of the essential multimodal resources, code-switching not only contingently facilitated the pedagogical process but also embodied the teachers' agency. The evidence provided in this chapter shows that teachers flexibly employed multimodal resources available in the classroom to fulfil the pedagogical and interpersonal goals. Through code-switching decisions made by teachers, they were empowered to *lead at the moment* in a given micro context in the L2 classrooms.

8 Chapter Eight: Discussion

As indicated in the thesis title *Policy, Position and Practice: A linguistic ethnography study of Taiwanese English language teacher identity and agency in multilingual and multimodal times*, the current research aims to investigate how English language teachers construct their professional identity and exert their agency by analysing policy discourse, narrative discourse, and classroom discourse. As discussed in the Literature Review Chapter, language teacher identity and agency are multi-faceted constructs that require a multi-faceted inquiry. Among the various aspects, I chose multilingual and multimodal aspects as specific foci in the socio-structural context of the *108 Curriculum* and the *2030 Bilingual Nation Policy* in Taiwan. As discussed in the Methodology Chapter, linguistic ethnography as an interdisciplinary research framework (Copland & Creese, 2015; Snell et al., 2015) was conducive to connecting the approaches provided by ethnography and linguistics to understand the complexity of language teacher identity and agency constructions within the LPP contexts.

In the previous chapters, I have aimed to explore the three RQs as follows:

(1) How are English teachers positioned by the educational language policies in multilingual and multimodal times?

The findings presented in Chapter Five demonstrate that English teachers are positioned with duties and rights to invest themselves and their students as lifelong learners in LPP discourse.

(2) How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their accounts of multilingual and multimodal teaching experiences?

There are three themes identified in Chapter Six, which are that the four English teachers tended to employ *reflexivity, community, and flexibility* as the means to renew, reposition, and re-agent their professional identity in complex and changing times.

(3) How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their multilingual and multimodal classroom practices?

> The findings in Chapter Seven indicate that the four English teachers constantly employed multimodal and L1 resources to orient to three pedagogical metafunctions, namely *curriculum access, classroom management, and interpersonal relations*.

Drawing on data presented in previous chapters, in this chapter, I will discuss the findings in relation to the literature in the following three aspects: positional identity, invested identity, and agency and structure. Before going further into the discussion, I would like to provide two clarifications. First, all the forms of identity and agency discussed are about self-positioning and positionings by others (Harré & van Langenhove, 1999), individual and collective developments (Block, 2014; Kayi-Aydar, 2015), and the paradox of structural enablements and constraints (Choi, 2019; Johnson, 2013; Rymes, 2016). Second, although I categorised the different features into three forms, I do not intend to suggest that each form is independent of one another. Admittedly, it is rather challenging to discuss language teacher identity without referring to their agency, and it is also difficult to discuss one form of identity/agency without mentioning other forms.

8.1 Language teacher identity (LTI)

In the special issue on language teacher identity in the *Modern Language Journal*, de Costa and Norton point out that 'there is much evidence to support the view that language teaching is indeed *identity work*' (2017, p. 11; emphasis in original). 'Language teaching is indeed identity work' is the presupposition upon which the current study is based. As presented in Section 3.4, I propose an operational definition of language teacher identity (LTI) as 'the way language teachers understand, narrate, and enact their professional selves and the way teachers position themselves in relation to policy discourse, narrative, and classroom discourse'. In the ensuing discussion, I will synthetically present how the four teachers in this thesis navigate multiple identities in policy, schools, community, and classrooms.

8.1.1 Positional identity

According to Deppermann (2015, p. 372), positioning is 'the basic mechanism by which a self and identities are acquired in social interaction in terms of practical, emotional, and epistemic commitment to identity-categories and associated discursive practices'. In Section 3.4, I have provided an operational definition of *positional identity* as ‘language teachers’ discursive positioning in relation to policy contexts, key stakeholders, community engagement, and classroom interaction’. The discursive construction of positional identity involves teachers’ constant negotiation among various conflicting beliefs, emotions, and ideologies. As analysed in Chapters Six and Seven, the four English language teachers agentively accepted and resisted certain rights and duties when faced with conflicting and competing positions assigned by others and themselves.

My findings confirm that LTI is, in essence, a plural form as *language teacher identities* (LTIs) conceptualised by Barkhuizen (2017). As discussed in Section 3.1.2, Barkhuizen’s (2017, p. 4) elaborate definition of LTIs covers cognitive, social, emotional, ideological and historical facets, highlighting that the construction of LTIs is ever-changing and negotiated among competing ideologies and positionings. My findings suggest that through the various positional identities, language teachers paradoxically exercised their professional agency within the structural enablements and constraints. As analysed in Chapter Five, the four LPP texts discursively position language teachers with the

(1) duty to grow students as autonomous lifelong learners and responsible citizens
(2) duty to align teaching with the proposed pedagogies in LPP documents
(3) duty and right to grow professionally and become lifelong learners

Faced with the positional identities ideally ascribed in the LPP texts, English language teachers, in effect, enacted their own positional identities in different professional contexts. For example, Ruth expressed her doubts about the ‘teaching English in English’ policy in her blog article titled ‘Bilingual? Not Yet!’

> To be honest, I have seen a lot of colleagues who are quite fluent in English and continue improving English oral proficiency, but very often, the feedback we receive from students is: *why do you show off your English? Why don’t you just teach us English?*
>
> (Ruth, 2018.12.30; emphasis added)

Positioned by LPP discourse with the duty to 'teach English in English', and positioned by her students as an English teacher who showed off English proficiency, Ruth mediated the conflicting positionings by forging her own positional identity:

> As classroom teachers, we will certainly work hard to align our teaching with the policy. But before that, perhaps we should examine our established views on English language learning, and what role English plays in our society.
>
> (Ruth, 2018.12.30)

Different positionings derived from various stakeholders constitute 'a site of struggle' (Darvin & Norton, 2021) for LTIs. Ruth's statement of 'work hard to align our teaching with the policy' is evidenced by her active participation in the CPD activities and her multilingual and multimodal classroom practices. As evidenced in Chapter Seven, both Ruth and her students were confident in the classroom where EMI and multimodal teaching were the norms. Nevertheless, Ruth did not entirely stick to the 'teaching English in English' policy. Instead, she switched back to Chinese when there were pedagogical and interpersonal needs. At the classroom level, her code-switching behaviours in different micro pedagogical contexts enacted her different positional identities in the classrooms (e.g., a knowledge construction guide, a classroom sequential designer, and an affective social being). At the LPP implementation level, her classroom interaction with students also evoked different positional identities, including 'policy enthusiast' who positively and creatively embodied the policy in their practice, 'policy translator' who translated policy texts into tangible actions in their context of work, and 'policy critic' who maintained counter-discourses of the official policy interpretation (Ball et al., 2011).

In addition, the findings suggest that the line between pre-service teachers and in-service teachers is becoming blurred, especially in this ever-changing world. With the traditional yardstick of language teacher education, the four English teachers would be categorised as in-service teachers (see Table 6.1 for teachers' professional backgrounds). Nevertheless, their positional identity as in-service teachers is under challenge. As analysed in Chapter Five (see Section 5.4), English teachers are positioned in LPP discourse as lifelong learners and are expected to stay current with the knowledge base development and multimodal teaching skills. No matter how long they have been teaching, sometimes teachers feel like newcomers in front of a new policy, new curriculum, new pedagogy, and new technology. Similar to what is found in Yazan's (2018) that pre-service teachers desire social recognition and professional legitimacy in the community when encountering new community practices, my findings found that in-service teachers also seek professional recognition in the community when encountering new pedagogy and technology. For example, Wendy wrote a reflective post on her Facebook titled 'A thing or two about the Apple Distinguished Educator Award'.

> I started to learn how to use iPads in my class in 2017. Since then, I have become humbler because there's always room for professional growth. How far is it from zero to Apple Distinguished Educator Award? It seems very far but if you take the first step and then one step further, in the end, you'll see how far you have gone when you look back. I do my best not because of this award but my everyday growth.
>
> (Wendy, 2019.05.01)

In this post, Wendy emphasised that she was a newcomer to digital teaching. This award boosted her confidence in the new teaching practice, and it was also her way of gaining social recognition and professional legitimacy in the community. By sharing her reflection in public, she hoped to inspire like-minded teachers to engage in digital teaching. The implication is that the construction of LTI is not a process with the trajectory from an apprentice to an experienced teacher; rather, it is a process of constant repositioning, renewal, and re-agency when lifelong learning is foregrounded in LPP discourse and professional communities. Sherry also made a similar comment about her digital practice in the interview, '(.) I think there's a gap here. I think I can learn more. I hope I can do better. this is my personal development'. This does not suggest that experienced teachers do not transfer what they have acquired in the past into the new professional contexts. Rather, teachers are more motivated and invested in lifelong learning by mentally positioning themselves as newcomers to a given pedagogy.

Overall, the intertwined relationship between positioning and LTI is evidenced by the findings presented in policy, narrative, and classroom discourse analysis. In what follows, I will discuss the interplay between positional identities and LTIs with the main findings from previous chapters.

8.1.1.1 Positional identities in LPP discourse

In Chapter Five, the findings of policy document analysis have identified multiple positional identities of English language teachers. Block's (2015b, p. 21; also see Section 3.2.2) framework of agency-structure relationship is helpful here to interpret how structural factors in LPP documents construct LTIs. Therefore, I adapted Block's framework into three levels of structure:

(1) Geopolitical structure: political and geographical influence from neighbouring countries
(2) Economic structure: the economic, legal, and political bases of societies
(3) Institutional structure: the discursive impositions from organisations and institutions

My point in discussing positional identity in LPP discourse via the three-level structure is to reveal how larger social structures interrelate with individual identity and agency. At the level of geopolitical structure, the *One Belt, One Road* initiative by Mainland China motivated the Taiwanese government to formulate the *New Southbound Policy* in 2016 (Glaser et al., 2018), whose aim was to politically distance from China and to enhance economic and cultural exchanges between Taiwan and the ASEAN, the regional economic organisation in Southeast Asia. In this geopolitical context, 'English Power' is considered highly instrumental for Taiwan to take a greater part in the regional and international communities. As highlighted in Table 8.1, the words 'Singapore', 'India', 'English Power', 'international competitiveness' and 'global co-opetition' reveal that the geopolitical structure in Southeast Asia acts as one of the shaping factors in English language teacher positional identity in LPP discourse—English teachers are positioned with a duty to consider students' English power for future career needs and global participation.

Table 8.1 Sample extracts of the geopolitical impacts

Level	Extracts
Geopolitical structure	Take ***Singapore*** **and** ***India*** as examples. People from both countries have a good command of English, so many multinational companies have been settled in and offer many high-quality job opportunities for the locals. (Bilingual Blueprint, 2018)

	At present, English is the most important common language for international communication, and it is spreading rapidly with the development of digital technology in the world. In this trend, ***English Power*** has become a necessary and critical ability to open the door to globalisation. How to improve national English power to increase ***international competitiveness*** has become a common important issue for non-English-speaking countries, and Taiwan cannot keep out of the affair. (Bilingual Blueprint, 2018) The concept of career development is introduced to develop students' courage, knowledge, and ability to face career challenges and ***global co-opetition***, allowing them to adapt to social changes and global trends as well as cultivate the courage to take initiative. (108 Curriculum, 2014)

It is not easy to separate the geopolitical structure from the economic structure because the relationship between the two is often intertwined. As highlighted in Table 8.2, the words 'economic development', 'English as the official language', 'political and economic influence', 'global lingua franca', and 'Global Englishes' reveal that the economic structure acts as another shaping factor in English language teacher positional identity in LPP discourse—English teachers are positioned with a duty to teach English communicatively as a global lingua franca and as the second official language for students' future economic benefits.

Table 8.2 Sample extracts of economic impacts

Level	Extracts
Economic structure	To promote Taiwan's *economic development*, the government would adopt a bilingual nation as the policy goal in the short term, and gradually move towards the long-term goal of ***English as the official language.*** (Bilingual Blueprint, 2018) With the huge ***political and economic influence*** of English-speaking countries, English has gradually become a ***global lingua franca***. In the 21st century, as the population of English speakers spreads around the world, English seems to pass into public and global ownership, allowing certain ambiguities and resulting in the so-called ***Global Englishes.*** (English Curriculum, 2018)

Last, as highlighted in Table 8.3, the words 'TEIE', 'CLIL', 'ESP', 'technologies and digital learning', 'continue their professional development', and 'professional learning communities' reveal the discursive and non-discursive impositions from institutions that act as the other shaping factor in English language teacher positional identity in LPP discourse—English teachers are positioned with duties to align teaching with the proposed pedagogies, incorporate digital teaching, grow professionally, and become lifelong learners.

Table 8.3 Sample extracts of institutional impacts

Level	Extracts
Institutional structure	Implementing the ***TEIE*** (Teaching English in English) policy in primary and secondary education, promoting ***CLIL*** (Content and Language Integrated Learning) in designated primary and secondary learning domains or subjects, and promoting ***ESP*** (English for Specific Purposes) teaching and learning for vocational schools. (Bilingual Proposal, 2018) Now, emerging ***technologies and digital learning platforms*** can bridge the gap between urban and rural areas, so that children in remote areas can also enjoy the same online learning resources. (Bilingual Blueprint, 2018) Teachers are professionals who must ***continue their professional development*** to support students' learning. Teachers should form ***professional learning communities*** to jointly explore and share teaching experiences. (108 Curriculum, 2014)

Shohamy (2004, p. 57) argue that LPP is one form of the mechanisms 'used implicitly and covertly to create de facto language policies' by the policy creators, and that 'all mechanisms are forms of marketing language ideologies'. With this three-level structure framework, it not only helps to trace the connections between the multiple LTIs identified in the LPP discourse and the broader socio-structural contexts in Asia and in the world, but, of equal importance, it partly explains why the English language is ideologically invested with more economic and cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1991) than other languages in the Taiwanese educational and linguistic marketplace (also see Section 8.1.2 for further discussion).

8.1.1.2 Positional identities in narrative discourse

Stories are the foundation of identity (Barkhuizen, 2016). In Chapter Six, multiple LTIs were identified in the four teachers' narratives. The findings corroborate with the previous studies that language teachers are not passive policy implementors and knowledge consumers;

rather, they have personal views of their professional self as English teachers (Freeman, 2016; Gray & Morton, 2018; Kumaravadivelu, 2006, 2012). In what follows, I will discuss how the four teachers expanded their 'narrative construction of self' (Bamberg, 2004, p. 368) into multiple positional identities.

As analysed in Section 6.2.1, the four teachers were quite active in the online communities dedicated to digital teaching and showed different levels of reflexivity in terms of educational technology. They embraced technology creatively, but at the same time, they also dialectically interrogated their digital teaching practices. As a result, their positional identities embedded in their digital teaching stories sometimes appear conflicting. However, I would argue that their reflexivity exercise is why they sometimes produced inconsistent stories of love and hate of digital teaching. As presented in Table 8.4, their thesis, antithesis, and synthesis of digital teaching is their way of making sense of multiple identities and dialectically constituting their professionalised teacherhood.

Table 8.4 Reflexivity and positional identities

	Extracts
Thesis	The impact of educational technology should not be underestimated! iPad can always catch the students' eye easily. (Extract 6.3)
Antithesis	I am worried that under the current technological trend in Taiwan, English teaching in the classroom will be turned upside down... Are students learning technology or English in English class? (Extract 6.4)
Synthesis	The choice between paper and technology is actually determined by the effectiveness of the presentation of the learning material. Whether students' learning takes place is my primary concern. (Extract 6.6)

As analysed in Section 6.2.2, the four teachers showed different levels of participation in the online/offline communities. For example, Ruth was the most active giver and bridge-maker in the community in organising online CPD activities voluntarily. From their reflective posts in the professional communities, it is also evidenced that Ruth, Cari, and Wendy were givers and takers at the same time, to receive feedback and emotional support from other community members (see Table 8.5). Mann and Walsh (2017, p. 100) term this voluntary collaboration ‘reflection in the wild’ with the emphasis that beyond pre- or in-service teacher education programmes, reflective practice can be scaffolded among professional peers. The affordance by interactive platforms also makes online collaboration easier and thus enhance teachers’ lifelong reflective practice.

Table 8.5 Giver and Taker identities

Positional identities	Extracts
Giver	Tomorrow’s live streaming is also very exciting! Leaders from various school communities will share how they work together with schoolteachers in their community to level up teachers’ technological competence! Welcome to chat with our amazing community leaders tomorrow! (Extract 6.9)
Taker	After watching Ruth’s demo video, I tried the platform several times at home. I really feel that it is super easy to use in my class! (Extract 6.12) I have also accumulated a lot of frustrations that my digital teaching is not ideal as expected. In today’s meeting, no one intended to solve any problems. We just listened to each other. (Extract 6.14)

As analysed in Section 6.2.3, when there were conflicting expectations or ideologies, the four teachers tended to mediate the conflicts by taking different positional identities flexibly. As presented in Table 8.6, when there was a mismatch between task-as-workplan and task-in-process (Seedhouse, 2004) in digital teaching, the teachers strived to turn the unexpected into a successful improvisation (Maley & Bolitho, 2015; Underhill, 2014). When there were conflicting beliefs about digital teaching, the teachers took the role of negotiators to communicate with the parents and students. When the policy promises were not well delivered, the teachers exercised their agency to reconcile the discrepancy and motivated themselves to keep going. In addition, it is worth mentioning that when the teachers referred to policy, they were usually concerned with the institutional structure, namely the impositions and constraints at the institutional level. None of them mentioned geopolitical or economic structures in their account of professional identity and agency. The absence of their reference to the broader structural factors will be further discussed in Section 8.2.2 on the dialectical relationship between structure and agency.

Table 8.6 Multiple positional identities

Positional identities	Extracts
Improviser	However, the Internet didn't work, so I changed the plan. (Extract 6.15)
Negotiator	In the end, I told them that I will strike a balance between the textbooks and the extra digital tasks. (Extract 6.16) Some parents didn't allow them to access the internet at home, even though their kids told them this was the homework assigned by Cari. I usually made phone calls and communicated with the parents. (Cari, 2018.12)
Reconciler	When the whole world is talking about new curriculum and digital teaching, policymakers never go to the frontline to lead teachers in the classrooms. I can only employ my existing weapons and limited time to maximise my teaching! (Extract 6.18)

8.1.1.3 Positional identities in classroom discourse

Higgins (2016) points out that studies of classroom discourse generally pay little attention to teacher identity, and it would be a promising direction to explore how teachers' self-narrative relates to their classroom teaching practices. This section aims to discuss how the four case English teachers practised their narratives into classroom interactions. As presented earlier in Table 8.6, the four teachers narratively positioned themselves as an improviser, negotiator, and reconciler when there were clashes between what was on policy paper and what was in the actual classrooms. In the data set of classroom interactions, what was identified is that the four English teachers performed various positional identities in their multilingual and multimodal classroom interactions, as presented in Table 8.7. For example, the identity of negotiator was enacted in Ruth's class when there was a clash between Ruth's digital design and the students' resistance (see Extract 7.8 in Chapter Seven). Here, her code-switching from English to Chinese suggests that she employed students' L1 as a resource to negotiate with students and re-steer students' attention in the micro context in her classroom. This also accords with another study conducted in Vietnam (Nhung, 2019), which investigated Vietnamese English teachers' identity construction from a micro-level of communicative classroom interaction. Nhung (2019) found that through the act of code-switching, English teachers' identities were constantly shifted and negotiated along with the unfolding of the classroom interactions.

Table 8.7 Positional identities in multilingual and multimodal classrooms

Category	Positional identity
Curriculum assess	- a resourceful teacher - a knowledge construction guide - a classroom sequential designer
Classroom management	- an attention redirector - a conductor who forwards course progression - a flexible implementer of Bilingual Nation Policy - a moderator who negotiates between students and pedagogical goal
Interpersonal relations	- an affective social being - a humanising teacher who can relate to students' feelings and boost their confidence - a professional community member who exhibits their expertise in digital teaching - a local community member who shares the same cultural knowledge with students

Furthermore, the classroom discourse analysis also identified some micro identities that were unaware of by teachers themselves in their narratives and were absent in LPP discourse. Especially in the category of interpersonal relations (see Table 8.7), positional identities go beyond the technocrat-oriented LTIs constructed in the LPP documents. The extracts analysed in Chapter Seven Section 7.3 demonstrate that the reason why English teachers switched into students' L1 is not that they did not have the English proficiency to 'teach English in English' nor did they resist the duties assigned by the LPP but because they agentively and reflexively perform themselves as 'person-in-context' (Ushioda, 2009). In other words, English teachers are not just literal executors of the policies but also affective social beings who can relate to students' feelings and have their own feelings and emotions. For example, Ruth's code-switching to students' L1 was not intended for pedagogical functions nor for classroom management (see Extract 7.10 in Chapter Seven). Her code-switching to Chinese was a move to position herself as a human being who desired to receive genuine gratitude from her students.

8.1.1.4 Section summary: Positional identity

In this section, my central argument of positional identity is that LTI is, in essence, a plural form as LTIs (Barkhuizen, 2017). I have first discussed the concept that *language teaching is indeed identity work* (de Costa & Norton, 2017, p. 11) with evidence provided in the previous chapters. Then, the mutually constitutive relationship between positioning and LTIs was discussed, with the findings presented in policy, narrative, and classroom discourse. My findings suggest that the four English teachers mediated the various positional identities and exercised their professional agency through social structures, personal stories, and social interactions.

8.1.2 Invested identity

According to Norton (2013, p. 50), language learners invest in a second language because they know they will 'acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources, which will, in turn, increase the value of their cultural capital'. With reference to Bourdieu's economic metaphor of *cultural capital*, investment theory highlights the role of identity and agency in language learners' intentional choices to become the self they want to be and become the members of their imagined communities. Later, Darvin and Norton (2017) expand the investment theory by linking language learner investment and language teacher identity, emphasising that learner investment is co-constructed by their teachers, imagined communities, technology advancement, and globalisation. Following Norton and Toohey (2011) and Darvin and Norton (2015, 2017, 2021), I provide an operational definition of *invested identity* (as 'teachers' investment in professional knowledge construction, the community of practice, classroom interactional competence, and multimodal literacy to increase their professional capital and therefore consolidate their identity as a competent language teacher'see Section 3.4). As analysed in Chapter Five, the findings suggest that the LPP discourse positioned English teachers with duties and rights to *invest* themselves and their students as lifelong learners. In

Chapter Six, the findings suggest that when the four teachers engaged in the online community activities, they were not just exchanging their digital practice and reflection with professional peers, but they were also performing a sense of who they were and accumulating their professional capital as community leaders and award-winning teachers. In this section, my central argument is that English language teachers invest in the community of practice and digital teaching practice not only to obtain their instrumental gain (e.g., to receive social recognition) but also to realise their imagined professional identities.

In Norton's investment theory for researching migrant language learner identity (Kanno & Norton, 2003; Norton, 2001; Pavlenko & Norton, 2007), it is highlighted that the language learners' imagined communities and identities might influence their learning trajectories. 'Imagined communities' refers to the group of target language speakers with whom migrant language learners desire to integrate. In my research, when the four teachers talked about communities, they referred to the online and offline professional communities they were virtually and/or physically affiliated with. The communities they were engaged with played a significant role in their professional learning trajectories. As reviewed in Chapter Two Section 2.2, the history of curriculum development in Taiwan demonstrates that teacher agency has gained greater currency and that teachers are entitled to claim CPD support from their institutions and local governments. As analysed in Chapter Five, teachers' rights to seek professional assistance and resources are dialectically ascribed in LPP discourse as teachers' multiple duties to fulfil the ideal teacherhood in multimodal and multilingual times. There is an overarching theme identified in LPP discourse— English teachers have the duties and rights to *invest* themselves and their students as lifelong learners. Specifically, English teachers were positioned with 'English teachers should participate in CPD activities' and 'English teachers should engage in public dialogues with relevant stakeholders'. The two positions foreground the importance of the community of practice for English teachers' lifelong professional development (Murray & Christison, 2019). Furthermore, as analysed in Chapter Six, the four teachers showed different levels of participation in the communities. Their time and energy devoted to the community of practice could be regarded as their professional investment so as to stay current with the professional knowledge base and acquire multimodal literacy as part of their professional capital. For example, Wendy's investment in digital teaching not only demonstrates 'identity as learning trajectory' (Wenger, 1999, p. 149) but also her later investment in online and offline communities demonstrates 'identity as community membership' (Wenger, 1999, p. 149).

> I started to learn how to use iPads in 2017 and integrated technology into my syllabus design. My initial motivation was to improve students' learning motivation and provide them with more written and oral opportunities. At that time, there were not many teachers using iPad in my school. I knew next to nothing about iPads. No one promised me that there would be some results if you try it out. In the process, I made some silly mistakes. I had repeatedly thought of 'Why bother? Why being so tired?', not to mention the countless frustrations and self-blaming because the result was not as expected.
>
> (Wendy, 2019.09.07)

The start of Wendy's digital teaching trajectory was quite bumpy because there was no institutional support or community support. As she invested more in preparing herself with multimodal literacy, her efforts were recognised in the communities and received several awards relating to digital teaching. In turn, she invested in the community of practice voluntarily in different forms, including sharing her experiences in online and offline seminars, organising a school-based community to help teachers in her school, and demonstrating her digital teaching for a group of pre-service teachers. Her various forms of the community of practice accumulated her cultural and social capital and constructed her professional identities ranging from a leading figure, a humbler learner, and a bridge-maker in the community. A focus on Wendy's investment in multimodal literacy enables us to see the interplay between her learning trajectory, community engagement, and her professional identity. A similar example can be found in the following data taken from Sherry.

> Of course, I can learn more. I am not as good as Ruth or Andy now. They have been in digital teaching for many years. They are very proficient. So, I think there is a gap between myself and them. I think I can still learn more and hope to do better. This is my personal development.
>
> (Sherry, 2018.11.08)

As shown in the interview and self-narrative data, Sherry was quite motivated to engage in community activities in order to bring 'something different' for her students. In the above extract, Sherry mentioned Ruth and Andy, the leading figures in digital teaching in the communities, as an ideal index for her personal growth. Sherry's aspiration to narrow the gap between herself and the leading teachers reveals how she narrated her imagined future identity as a competent English teacher with multimodal literacy. As Darvin and Norton (2015, p. 39) suggest that 'investment indexes issues of identity and imagined futures', my findings also suggest that the valued digital literacy in which the teachers were invested enabled them to acquire the resources, or in Bourdieu's term 'social capital', to connect with the target professional communities. It also helped Sherry to acquire 'digital tastes and literacies' (Darvin & Norton, 2015, p. 51) valued as symbolic capital in the LPP discourse and community of practice—to *invest* their students as lifelong learners as ascribed in the LPP documents and to consolidate the professional capital in multimodal times.

Sherry's comment 'I think there is a gap between myself and them' brings me to another issue worth discussing—LTI categories. As I have argued previously, the categorical distinction between pre-service and in-service teachers is under challenge when lifelong learning is foregrounded in the LPP and community of practice. My findings suggest that when lifelong learning is foregrounded in teacher professional development, teachers do not regard such identity categories as 'pre-service versus in-service teachers' or 'junior versus senior teachers', but rather 'early and late investors of a given pedagogy' that is socio-structurally recognised within in the policy discourse, narrative discourse, and classroom discourse. Such issues have received little attention in the studies of LTI. Or put it in the sense of Norton's investment theory, the critical question of 'Are English language teachers invested in the lifelong professional development?' is equally as important as the question 'Are English language teachers motivated in the lifelong professional development?'. As discussed in Section 8.1.1, the four teachers' positional identities were co-constructed by policies, community of practice, technology advancement, globalisation and neoliberalism. The social structures in which English language teachers negotiate their identities shape teachers' 'desire and commitment' (Norton & Toohey, 2011, p. 420) to invest in new pedagogies. Early investors in the socio-structurally given pedagogies will acquire 'perceived benefits' (Darvin & Norton, 2021, p. 7) that will, in turn, consolidate their identity as competent English language teachers at particular times and in particular contexts. For example, in the Taiwanese LPP context and in the global COVID pandemic context in which multimodal literacy is emphasised, my case teachers (Ruth, Wendy, and Cari) now utilise the professional dividend that they had invested in the past. Invested identity, in this sense, is concerned with how socio-technical structures shape LTI and their teaching practices and how teachers can be privileged or unprivileged by virtue of their invested identity.

Neoliberal ideologies that follow the operating logic of marketisation (see Section 2.2 and 2.3) and globalisation of English (see Section 8.1.1.1) play a significant role in affecting how teaching practices should be undertaken and how English language teachers feel about their investment in dominant pedagogies. For example, the following extract illustrates Wendy's investment in gaining *Google for Education Certificate* and her 'ambivalent desire to learn and practice' (Norton, 2013, p. 6) digital teaching.

> From midnight to four o'clock in the morning, I spent the whole night taking the online exam, just for this certificate. When I finished the exam with the result PASS, I was super happy but also exhausted. I had less than a week to prepare for this exam…
>
> (Wendy, 2019.01.26)

In this reflective post, she first described her voluntary efforts to prepare for the exam. Voluntary because this was not imposed by the authority but by her personal commitment. Her investment was rewarded with a pass result, but at the same time, she felt very tired due to the tight schedule she had to prepare for the exam. In the second half of the post, she reflected on her identity as a teacher in the multimodal time.

> This time I feel the huge impact of digital teaching. If everyone can learn by themselves through online training courses and testing systems, then how do we teachers position ourselves in the future? Do we still need physical classrooms and teachers? I have to think about it. After all, I don't want to be replaced by technology.
>
> (Wendy, 2019.01.26)

Her desire to learn and practice digital teaching was ambivalent because the more she invested in digital teaching, the more perplexed she felt about her own positioning as a teacher in the physical classroom. The two competing beliefs – technology affords me a better teacher versus technology makes me a redundant teacher – were concluded with her concern 'I don't want to be replaced by technology'. Therefore, Wendy's investment in digital teaching signals the tension between agency and the socio-technical structure. Similar ambivalence, such as love and hate, affordances and constraints, commitment and resistance, self and other, is evidenced in the four teachers' self-narrative presented in Chapter 6 Section 6.2. The social structures may re-shape their imagination for the future, but at the same time, the structures can be challenged by their agentive imagination (Darvin & Norton, 2021).

In summary, this section of *invested identity* has discussed the invisible social impetus of English teachers' investment in the community of practice and digital teaching. As a 'sociological construct' to understand identity issues in the language learning and teaching field (Norton, 2013), investment theory is theoretically helpful in explaining the findings in Chapters Five, Six, and Seven. This section critically examines the connections between individual agency and broader socio-technical structures. It suggests that LTI is not merely influenced by individual imaginations and emotions but also shaped by the social and technological worlds. I have argued that LTI is neither acquired solely by self-positionings nor is it constructed by other-positionings, but a complex social practice that engages the multiple identities from inside the individuals and outside the socio-technical structures.

The discussion of how English language teachers negotiate conflicting and ambivalent identities raises the issue of individual decision-making, or put it in Block's (2014, p. 26) question 'To what extent is identity a self-conscious, reflexive project of individual agency, created and maintained by individuals?'. In the remainder of this chapter, I shall turn to LTA, discussing the dynamic interplay between English language teacher agency, identity, and structure.

8.2 Language teacher agency (LTA)

As Kayi-Aydar (2019b, p. 82) argues, 'positioning shapes the agency and professional identities of teachers and informs teaching and evaluation practices', my research presupposes that language teacher identity and agency are mutually constitutive. Specifically, by analysing the performative aspects of LTI, namely teachers' self-narrative, public reflective posts, and their classroom practices, the findings presented in the previous chapters suggest that the four teachers' self-representation is related to their professional agency. As presented in Section 3.4, this thesis defines *language teacher agency* (LTA) as 'the exercise of language teachers' professional decision-making in their own contexts'. Agency is exercised by language teachers in multiple forms in multiple contexts. Built on Choi (2019), Johnson (2013), Emirbayer and Mische (1998), Biesta and Tedder (2007), and Priestley et al. (2015), I operationally define *language teacher agency* as:

(1) teachers' creative appropriation and instantiation of structural resources into their pursuit of professional aspirations. Structural resources are the affordances provided by LPP discourse and implementation.
(2) teachers' achievement constituted in their daily narrative, community support, past experience, present adaptation, and future vision.
(3) teachers' flexible employment of discursive strategies and multimodal resources available in the classroom, including negotiating the tasks with students, using digital technology, and resorting to students' L1, to fulfil their pedagogical goals and to respond to LPP discourse.

In what follows, I will first discuss how the four English language teachers in Taiwan exercised their agency in policy, schools, community, and classrooms. Then, I will discuss how language teacher identity, agency and structure are mutually constructed and shaped through the lenses of *agency-in-structure* and *structure-in-agency*.

8.2.1 Agency and structure

In a special issue of *Current Issues in Language Planning* on micro language planning for multilingual education, Liddicoat and Taylor-Leech (2014) provided an overview of how the micro-level agency implemented the macro-level policy. Their identification of four types of macro-micro relationships can be summarised, in my own words, as follows: (1) classroom instantiation, (2) local resistance and contestation, (3) appropriation and adaptation for local needs, and (4) innovation and new possibilities. This framework of agency-structure dynamics is helpful to interpret how the four teachers utilised the structural resources available in their contexts to address their local situations. My point in discussing LTA via the four categories is that I attempt to reveal the paradoxical nature of teacher agency — 'structure is conceptualised not necessarily as a hindrance to achieving one's goals, inasmuch as individuals can, at times and in certain contexts, draw from structural resources in their attempts to fulfil their goals' (Choi, 2019, p. 214). In this sense, local agency and socio-cultural structures shape a dialectical relationship. However, in terms of (2) local resistance and contestation, my analysis did not identify any instances of macro-level policy being 'contested or subverted by local groups, usually working outside mainstream structures' (Liddicoat & Taylor-Leech, 2014, p. 239). Therefore, the following discussion will mainly focus on (1) classroom instantiation, (3) appropriation and adaptation, and (4) innovation and new possibilities.

8.2.1.1 Classroom instantiation

According to Johnson (2012, p. 58), the notion of instantiation is defined as 'the way a policy is enacted and the ways in which languages are used as a result'. The classroom instantiation of the LPP in this section is associated with how the four English teachers enacted the *108 Curriculum* and the *Bilingual Nation Policy* in their actual classroom practices. As analysed in Chapter Seven, the four teachers themselves had a high level of oral proficiency in English and they attempted, to varying degrees, to enact the 'teaching English in English' policy. Classroom instantiation, in this sense, embodies how the policy is enacted in the classroom by individual teachers within their local contexts. Meanwhile, the four English teachers strived to enact digital teaching in their classes despite the constant technological constraints within the institutions. For example, the following extract was taken from Cari's class, in which students needed to practice how to make their own audiobooks on their tablets. At the beginning of the class, Cari found the school WIFI connection was poor, which meant that she needed her Plan B to get things done.

Cari_class_20181224_4 (Making audio books_01:56)

		Transcription	Translation
01	Cari:	好. 今天網路很不好.	all right. the internet isn't quite good today
02	S1:	不是很不好. 是非常不好.	it's not 'isn't quite good', it's very very bad

03	Cari:	對. 非常不好. 沒關係.	very very bad. Yeah. OK. we don’t need the internet at the moment. today you just need to get used to the APP. know how to use it.
04		今天我們還暫時用不到網路.	
05		今天**你只需要習慣這個** APP 就好了	
06	S2:	老師. **你的** WIFI 帳戶是什麼?	Teacher, what’s your Wi-Fi network name?
07	Cari:	我的還是學校的?	My Wi-Fi or school Wi-Fi? I’ve turned on the sharing network of mine now.
08		我的我已經開分享了.	

This extract is one of the numerous instances that the teachers attempted to solve the technological constraints in their contexts. As presented in the interview data (see Section 6.1), sometimes teachers and students were both involved in an ‘emotional tug of war’ over the time spent on digital tasks, especially in the circumstances where frustrating trial and error constantly occurred in the process. Cari wrote her frustrations in her social media post:

> What resources do we need to provide personalised assistance for our students? Three students share one tablet! Students raise their hands all the time because the internet connection doesn’t work on their tablets! Class time is so precious but wasted in such a stupid way! We don’t need fancy equipment. All we need are just *well-functioned* and *sufficient* devices for every student to use.
>
> (Cari, 2018.12.24, emphasis in original)

In the interview, Cari also made similar comments when I asked her what the government and institutions can help in terms of digital pedagogy. Cari said:

> Most important of all, there should be enough devices for every student. Don’t just send 10 tablets for one school. It doesn’t work at all. I think there should be at least 30 tablets for one school so that teachers can integrate technology at their disposal. And second, the tables should function well, not break down all the time.
>
> (Cari, interview, 2018.12.14)

The above extracts illustrate Cari’s effort to bring digital teaching into her classes even though she had to address the technical problems in the classrooms by herself. As indicated in the narrative analysis, Cari constantly referred to the *108 Curriculum*, emphasising that her digital pedagogy embodied what was promoted in digital-oriented teaching—to prepare students for the fast-changing future (Taiwan MOE, 2018a). Nevertheless, on the other side of the coin, her classroom interaction was also affected by technological constraints. As Cari said in the interview, '(.) sometimes I have to spend the whole class to tackle the unexpected glitches (.) that's why sometimes I delay my teaching schedule and that makes me frustrated', it suggests that at the institutional level, quality digital equipment was lacking. However, Cari still agentively made her efforts to realise the policy. My findings suggest that in implementing macro-level policies at the micro-level, teachers exercise their agency in the instantiation of the decision-making process in their classrooms. In other words, teachers' agency is epitomised by their actual instances of addressing the gaps between policy and practice. This leads me to the next issue of how local agents creatively appropriate the policies for local needs.

8.2.1.2 Appropriation and adaptation for local needs

As reviewed in Section 2.1, curriculum development in Taiwan has shifted from state-controlled authority to localised agency, providing teachers with more resources to achieve the goals stated in the curriculum guidelines—to cultivating students as lifelong learners for the 21st century. As analysed in Section 5.4, the thematic analysis of the four LPP documents identified one theme – English teachers have the duty and right to grow professionally and become lifelong learners. Relevant extracts presented within this theme are further categorised into three positions: (a) English teachers have a right to seek professional resources, (b) English teachers should participate in CPD activities, and (c) English teachers should engage in public dialogues with relevant stakeholders. This suggests that macro-level LPP implementation is not conceptualised as a top-down process, nor is it the source of constraints and impositions. Rather, the LPP discourse recognises the agency of bottom-up policy appropriation. Educational policy appropriation, or put it in Levinson and Sutton's words, 'highlights the way creative agents *take in* elements of policy, thereby incorporating these discursive and institutional resources into their own schemes of interest, motivation, and action' (2001, p. 3; emphasis in original). The four teachers' policy appropriation is evidenced in the findings presented in Chapter Six. As analysed in Section 6.2.2, the four teachers claimed their professional rights and agency promulgated in the macro-level LPP by capitalising on the structural resources to grow professionally in the grassroots CPD activities.

More specifically, the four English teachers were relatively enthusiastic about investing in the local professional communities as givers and takers. Through the discursive affordances and institutional resources provided by the macro structure, the teachers can legitimately engage in various CPD activities to fulfil their professional aspirations. For example, Sherry stated in the interview, '(.) I think if I didn't go out of my comfort zone and learn from other teachers (.) I would think that there was no need to change in my classrooms'. Instead of staying in her comfort zone, she was willing to step into the learning zone, namely the various professional communities, to grow as a lifelong teacher in the multimodal time.

Moreover, as analysed in Chapter Seven, the four teachers showed different levels of code-switching between Chinese and English in their digital classroom interactions. Their creative and agentive employment of multimodal resources and discursive strategies suggest that when implementing the LPP, English language teachers do not just technically operate the policies, but their code-switching behaviours are the instantiation of the personal appropriation of LPP in their contexts. A similar argument made by Freeman (2016, p. 37) is that 'learning to teach languages involves recognising and developing two strands of identity, as a knower of classrooms and as a user of language'. Building on this notion that a language teacher is a knower of her classroom languages in her own right, I argue that language teacher agency is constructed through the instances of drawing on multilingual and multimodal resources to achieve the pedagogical goals and to address the local needs. From this perspective, English language teachers switch to the Chinese language not because they are deficient English teachers who cannot 'teach English in English', but because they are informed knowers who exhibit their tacit understanding of their local contexts. Therefore, even within the 'teaching English in English' policy, teachers creatively incorporate the students' mother tongues and together with their students to make their own 'practised language policy' (Bonacina-Pugh, 2020) in their multilingual classrooms. This also echoes what Ricento and Hornberger (1996) argue in their metaphor of the LPP onion that classroom teachers should be placed at the centre of the onion and that classroom teachers' agency should be considered as the primary LPP momentum. Unfortunately, the Taiwan MOE, so far, has insisted on the 'teaching English in English' for *Bilingual Nation Policy*, with the latest announcement that by 2024, it would achieve the goal of 60% of the high schools teaching

English in English, regardless of the oppositions raised by Taiwanese linguists and teachers (Chen et al., 2020; Ferrer & Lin, 2021; Graham et al., 2021).

8.2.1.3 Innovation and new possibilities

Another way the four English teachers agentively responded to macro-level LPP is that they strived to utilise the available structural resources and 'develop new opportunities for language learning that do not exist within existing provision' (Liddicoat & Taylor-Leech, 2014, p. 242). In such instances, the teachers became LPP agents who innovated their own teaching practices in contexts where their imaginary landscape of multimodal and multilingual classrooms was not otherwise available. The way that the teachers acted as local LPP agents involved their employment of educational technologies and their digital teaching plans that they had not tried before. As analysed in Chapter Six, though the four teachers sometimes felt frustrated when trying new digital software/platforms, they also felt rewarded and valued for their innovative teaching plans. Innovative teaching practices not only bring about new possibilities for their students' language learning but also their own professional growth. In the interviews with Wendy and Sherry about their motivation for digital teaching, the answer they gave in the first place was that they wanted to open up a new horizon of language learning for their students. For example, Sherry said:

> Last week, I designed a reading task that students needed to complete their teamwork on Instagram. Students were so engaged that they didn't want to have a break time. I've never seen this before. The only words I can say it that my preparation for this task is worthwhile.
>
> (Sherry, interview, 2018.10.24)

Sherry did not expect her students to be so engaged in the digital task. 'I've never seen this before' suggests that her innovative digital lesson plan brought new opportunities for her students' language learning that did not exist within the existing provision. It is the discursive and institutional agency afforded by the macro-level LPP, or in Hornberger's term 'implementational space' (2005, p. 606), that teachers can take advantage of to realise their professional aspiration and imagination at the classroom level as well as at community level, which I shall turn to as follows.

As analysed in Section 6.2.2, Ruth and Wendy opened up new possibilities in their professional development by organising grassroots CPD activities that were new for themselves and their professional peers. I would like to provide some recent examples (i.e., after my fieldwork period). As a leading figure in digital teaching, Ruth organised various voluntary community activities online and offline. For example, during the pandemic in 2020, Ruth collaborated with Google Educator Groups in Taiwan and initiated several webinars for digital teaching, which was not provided through macro-level institutions. As a pioneer of digital teaching in her own school, Wendy established a school-based professional community where her colleagues could learn how other teachers were doing digital teaching in their classrooms. In such instances, macro-level LPP that promotes teachers' lifelong CPD opens implementational space for teacher agency, and in turn, opens up new possibilities for teacher identity.

8.2.1.4 Section summary: agency and structure

This section has discussed the macro-micro relationships between bottom-up agency and top-down structure. Paradoxical and ambivalent as it would seem, the interplay between agency and structure is a dialectical state that is manifested in teachers' LPP instantiation, appropriation, and innovation. The dialectical trajectory is based on teachers' identities in relation to their students, their own understandings of the local contexts, and their CPD engagement. English teachers are positioned with duties and rights by macro-level LPP. Yet, at the same time, they can also utilise the local implementational spaces afforded by the LPP to creatively incorporate multimodal and multilingual resources into their practices. In turn, their agency embedded in the local implementational spaces shapes their professional identity as policymakers to make choices that are not easy to make.

8.2.2 Identity, agency and structure

So far, I have discussed the findings in the previous chapters by integrating a range of relevant theoretical frameworks, namely positioning theory, investment theory, and structure and agency. The dynamic complexity of identity, agency and structure – between *agency-in-structure* and *structure-in-agency* — is the last theme I would like to turn to in the Discussion Chapter. The essence of my argument is that structure and agency are not dichotomous counterparts but dialectical constituents. Inspired by Ushioda's (2009, 2020) 'person-in-context' concept, *agency-in-structure* refers to the creative and reflexive agency for individuals to make decisions and act upon the positioning assigned by the structure; inspired by Darvin and Norton's concept of 'context-in-person' (2021), *structure-in-agency* refers to the power operating through LPP discourse that influences individuals' course of action as well as their perceptions of symbolic and material resources that they are invested in. With this dialectical relationship in mind, I will discuss how identity, agency and structure are mutually constructed and shaped.

8.2.2.1 Agency-in-structure: an ethnographic perspective

While it is recognised that macro-level LPP plays a role in influencing English language teachers' identity and agency construction, LPP is not always a deterministic mechanism that strips away individual agency. Although local teachers are not given direct LPP power to stipulate the policies, they have implementational spaces to realise their localised LPP agency. As reviewed in Section 3.2, some scholars (Cooper, 1989; García & Menken, 2010; Hult & Johnson, 2015; Ricento & Hornberger, 1996) make the case that LPP research should be complemented by ethnographic perspectives of how classroom language teachers interpret, appropriate, and instantiate the LPP. The orientation of exploring language classrooms as LPP research sites foregrounds the role of localised agency. As indicated in the thesis title *Policy, Position and Practice: A linguistic ethnography study of Taiwanese English language teacher identity and agency in multilingual and multimodal times*, I aim to make connections between policy and practice by illuminating how macro-level LPP discourse is translated by classroom teachers into their community of practice and classroom interactions. An ethnographic focus on localised agency facilitates our understanding of why and how policies (in this case, multimodal teaching and teaching English in English) are enacted in certain ways at the ground level.

As Ricento and Hornberger's (1996) metaphor of the *LPP onion* illuminates, the concepts that the LPP process is a multi-layered social complexity and that classroom practitioners should be placed at the centre of the LPP onion have gained currency. Expanding upon this onion metaphor, I present another model of LPP onion based on my findings on LTA and LTI, as shown in Figure 8.1.

At the heart of the LPP onion, a 'flesh-and-blood person' identity precedes any other identities

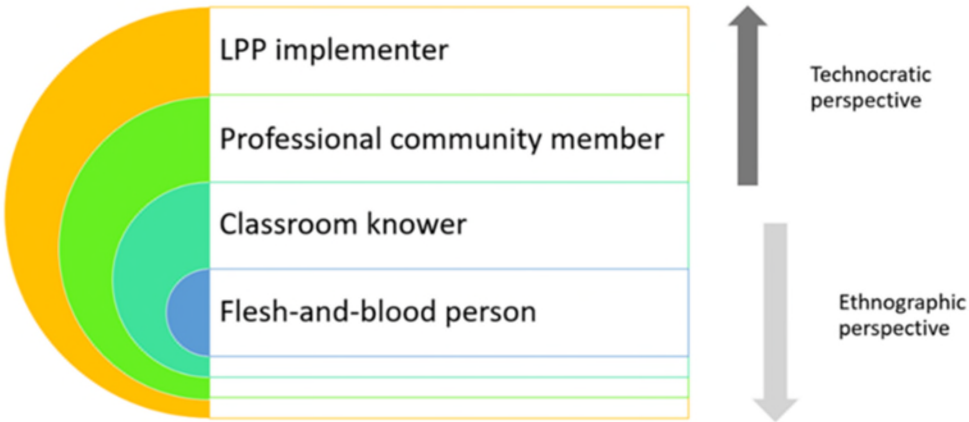


Figure 8.1 Agency-in-structure: an ethnographic perspective

embedded in the discourses (i.e., policy, community, and classroom discourses). By placing the 'flesh-and-blood person' at the centre, I argue that to make LPP processes successful, the top-down LPP mechanism should recognise first and foremost that teachers are human beings with ambivalent emotions, imaginations, and lived stories (as is also documented by Aro, 2015; Biesta & Tedder, 2007; Priestley et al., 2015; Ruohotie-Lyhty & Moate, 2014; Sullivan & McCarthy, 2004). They embrace technology but at the same time fear being made redundant by technology; they strive towards the ideal identities ascribed in policy and narrative discourses but at the same time resist essentialist identities imposed by dominant discourses; they are English language teachers with fluent oral proficiency but at the same code-switch to students' L1 to attend students' learning needs; they demonstrate professional commitments by engaging in the community of practice but at the same time feel physically and emotionally frustrated when not supported by the institutions. For researchers who study identity and agency in LPP, it is worth remembering that teachers are flesh and blood people in the first place, then classroom knowers, community members, and finally LPP implementers, not the other way around.

The second layer of the LPP onion is that English language teachers are the classroom knowers who exercise their professional agency through pedagogical decisions. As evidenced in Chapter Seven, their identity as a classroom knower can be further categorised into multiple micro identities (see Table 8.7). For example, an English teacher may choose to code-switch to students' L1 as a pedagogical resource, or conversely, the teacher may decide not to resort to L1 and thus orient the classroom interaction into another direction. For example, an English teacher may choose to employ digital resources to fulfil their pedagogical goals, or conversely, the teacher may choose 'being paper' rather than 'being digital' so as to provide students with more opportunities to engage in English language learning. As Ruth wrote in her reflective post 'whether students' learning takes place is my primary concern', teachers dialectically negotiate among the institutional identities ascribed by policy, the positional identities embedded in their narratives, and the moment-by-moment pedagogical decision-making process. A teacher should be recognised as an agentive professional capable of making appropriate decisions based on students' needs and reflexively assessing the rationale over their own multilingual and multimodal teaching design. We must recognise a local classroom teacher as a 'self-reflective intentional agent' (Ushioda, 2009, p. 218) capable of *leading at the moment* in a given classroom context.

The third layer of the LPP onion is that English language teachers are professional community members who exercise their agency through actual actions and practices in the community. As discussed previously in Section 8.2.1, the macro-level LPP, to a certain extent, affords teachers structural resources and implementational spaces to engage in the professional community of practice. As evidenced in Chapter Six, the four teachers' agency was achieved in their daily classroom interactions as well as their commitments to the reflective community activities. This dimension of language teacher identity construction foregrounds the importance of socio-professional practice (Freeman et al., 2019). English teachers' professional identity is co-constructed via community members' 'joint enterprise, mutual engagement, and shared repertoire (Wenger, 1999, p. 73). As Mann and Walsh (2017) predict that flourishing online platforms would enhance teachers' social participation in the online communities and facilitate reflective practice among professional peers, the findings presented in Chapter Six suggest that the four teachers take part in their online communities to seek technical and emotional support so as to face the challenges posed by the macro-level LPP.

The outer layer of the LPP onion is that English language teachers are positioned as LPP implementers who are meant to carry out the intentions of top-down policies. It assumes that teachers are merely 'a cog in the policy wheel' (Mohanty et al., 2010) without considering teachers as blood-and-flesh persons who constantly negotiate among competing ideologies and identities nor considering teachers as classroom knowers whose local teaching experiences and expertise should be recognised. Conceptualising teachers from a technocratic perspective, this positioning fails to recognise that identity construction is a site of struggle between structure and agency (Darvin & Norton, 2021; Kanno & Norton, 2003; Norton, 2001; Norton & Toohey, 2011; Pavlenko & Norton, 2007). As analysed in Chapter Five, the LPP discourse positioned English language teachers as rational agents who invest themselves and their students as lifelong learners. Nevertheless, as analysed in Chapters Six and Seven, the four teachers at the ground level interpreted, appropriated, instantiated the policies in 'creative and unpredictable ways' (Johnson, 2013, p. 54). The 'English language teachers as LPP implementers' mentality underestimates the personal, interpersonal, institutional, and ideological constraints that classroom teachers encounter in their daily practice. From a technocratic perspective, an English teacher may be criticised for not investing sufficient time and energy in adopting multimodal teaching techniques. However, it may be the case that the teacher is in an under-resourced context where digital devices are not distributed, or institutional support are not delivered. For example, an English teacher may be criticised for not teaching English in English. However, it may be the case that the teacher code-switches to students' L1, in part by design, to enact micro identities, such as an affective social being who shares the same cultural knowledge with students.

In short, from an ethnographic perspective, the blind spot of conceptualising language teachers as LPP implementers (rather than as blood-and-flesh people, classroom knowers, and community members), is that it may reduce language teachers' policy agency to simplified execution of duties imposed by LPP and ignore the complexity of teachers' actions taken in their contexts.

8.2.2.2 Structure-in-agency: a structural perspective

In his critical evaluation of the epistemological tension between agency and structure in applied linguistic research, Block (2012, 2013, 2014, 2015a, 2015b) references critical realism as an alternative paradigm to study micro-macro interrelations. As discussed in Section 3.2.2, Block argues that in terms of identity research in postmodern and poststructural approaches, there is a tendency to emphasise individual agency much more than social structure. The concept of 'structure' has often been used vaguely or little analysed. Such emphasis on how individuals make sense of their choices and actions often treats the structure as a default backdrop in discussions of identity-related agency. If identity researchers are to focus on the agency as one facet of identity construct, it is of equal importance for the field to engage with structure, not just as a passing backdrop. Block's critique of 'broadly poststructuralist' identity research (2012, p. 48) points out the conceptual pitfall of conflating ontological reality (i.e., social structure) with epistemological subjectivism (i.e., individual agency). In other words, regardless of whether a social actor perceives it or not (i.e., an epistemological subjectivist position), there still exists stratified social structures (i.e., an ontological realist position). To address the epistemic fallacy, Block suggests that identity and agency need to be researched in relation to situated structures. This is what I aim to work on in RQ1: *How are English teachers positioned by the educational language policy texts and what are the potential consequences for teacher agency of such positionings?*

As reviewed in Chapter Two, the history of curriculum development in Taiwan has witnessed a shift from state-controlled authority to localised agency. Teacher agency is contextualised in the neoliberal discourse in which individual professional performance is linked to national competitive advantages in the globalised economy. As analysed in Chapter Five, teacher identity and agency constructed in the four LPP documents are linked with 'lifelong professional growth', a dominant ideology embedded in market-oriented educational discourse. As discussed in Section 8.1.1.1, teachers' positional identity constructed in the LPP discourse reveals how larger social structures (in this case, they are geopolitical, economic, and institutional structures) interrelate with individual identity and agency formation. As discussed previously in Section 8.1.2, English language teachers' invested identity is interrelated with their perceptions of symbolic and material resources produced, distributed and validated in the community of practice. With their investment in the community and digital teaching practice, the teachers can acquire the professional capital and perform 'who I am' in multimodal and multilingual times. All the above discussion combined indicates that on the one hand, identity is a self-directed and reflexive course of actions navigated and maintained by individual agency. However, at the same time, identity formation is also situated in broader social structures in that everyone is consciously or unconsciously involved. Therefore, some critical issues I would like to raise are as follows:

(1) In a wide range of social activities English language teachers are engaged in, are they aware that the structural constraints and enablements they encounter are implicated in broader social structures they work with?
(2) When teachers perform a sense of 'who I am', are they aware of the invisible power that drives their investment in the socio-structurally given pedagogies or community of practice? Are they aware that their agentive performance is, to a certain extent, impinged upon the socio-technical structure and geopolitical structure?
(3) When the structure affords implementational spaces for teachers to exercise their agency and when teachers strive to align themselves with the ideal 'English language teacher' identity sketched in LPP discourse, are teachers aware that there also exists 'ideological space' (Hornberger, 2005) for them to challenge the 'instrumentalist view' of English language teaching and learning (Ushioda, 2020), such as English power, international competitiveness, economic benefits, and global co-opetition?

My point of raising these issues is that while social structures play a part in shaping the way teachers construct their identity, the structures can be challenged or even transformed by teachers' agentive movements only when teachers are aware of the power operating through the ideological mechanisms. In what follows, I will discuss these issues based on Darvin and Norton's model of identity and investment (2015, 2017, 2021) to explore possibilities for structure-in-agency. This model expands the investment theory developed in Norton's (2001, 2013) earlier research on migrant language learner identity and now is re-formulated to address the new world realities shaped by the multilingual and multimodal landscape. As shown in Figure 8.3, this critical framework consists of three components: capital, ideology, and identity. In the ensuing discussion, I will mainly focus on how capital and ideology shape teachers' invested identities.

Norton's theory of investment and identity carries strong 'economic connotations' and provides an alternative explanatory model of language learners' agency and identity in relation to Bourdieu's concepts of economic, cultural and social capital. In the framework of investment theory, capital is regarded as resources valued in schools, workplaces and societies that agents make the commitments and intentional choices to acquire and accumulate. Adopting this concept to discuss teachers' invested identities in Section 8.1.2, I make the case that multimodal literacy, as a highly valued skillset in the socio-technical structure, has become a significant social gravity that navigates the trajectory of teacher agency and invested identities. Notwithstanding the resistance from students and indifference within their institutions at the very beginning of their digital teaching, the four participant teachers invested in the digital resources 'perceived and recognised as legitimate' (Bourdieu, 1991, p. 4) in the LPP discourse and community of practice, and later transformed the resources into symbolic capital that strengthened their professional identity as early investors of the socio-structural valued pedagogies and community pioneers. In this sense, language teachers' assertion of professional identity and agency is inextricably associated with the power operating in the broader social structures they work with. Such structural power, or in Norton's term 'ideology', imposes a normative set of ideas that constrain and/or enable human actions.

As presented in Chapter Six, the four teachers expressed the constraints and enablements they encountered in the LPP processes. In terms of structural enablements, they creatively utilised the LPP implementational spaces to fulfil their pedagogical goals and professional aspirations. In terms of structural constraints, they usually referred to the impositions and constraints at the institutional level. None of them referred to geopolitical structure, economic structure, nor neoliberal discourse in their account of professional identity and agency. The reasons for the absence of their reference to the broader structural factors might be two. For one thing, it could be that my data collection process did not capture any instances as such. For another thing, it could be that teachers themselves were not aware of the invisible impetus driven by geopolitical structure and economic structure that impacted their invested identities and positional identities. If that is the case, is there 'ethical importance' (Ushioda, 2020) in the language teacher education field to raise teachers' awareness of the factor of social structures and ideologies in their identity and agency building process? Being an English language teacher in multimodal and multilingual times not merely involves cultivating identities as a user of English language and a knower of language classrooms, but I would argue that it is of equal importance for English teachers to recognise and develop their identity as a knower of the social structures and ideologies. By doing so, English language teachers would find the 'ideological spaces' (Hornberger, 2002) within the structures for them to challenge and reflect on the rampant instrumentalist view of English language teaching enterprise, such as 'if English teachers do not keep up with technological advancement, they will be made redundant by machine teachers' or 'English power is the key for Taiwan to increase its international competitiveness in the global market'. Comments as such are quite common in mainstream media discourse in Taiwan. If English language teachers have a better understanding of the social structures and utilise the ideological spaces to negotiate their identities with a sense of LPP agency, they may be empowered to explore their agentive possibilities and to maintain the core identity as a blood-and-flesh human being.

8.2.2.3 Section summary: identity, agency, and structure

This section has synthetically discussed how language teacher identity, agency and structure are mutually constructed and shaped through the lenses of *agency-in-structure* and *structure-in-agency*. From an ethnographic perspective, I propose a new version of LPP onion, arguing that the top-down LPP should reflexively examine language teachers' multi-layered agency and identities. From a structural perspective, I argue that when language teachers are aware of the power operating through the ideological mechanisms that influence their worldviews and conceptions of professional identity and agency, they will have more agentive possibilities to navigate themselves in multimodal and multilingual times.

8.3 Chapter summary: a multi-faceted construct of language teacher identity and agency

This chapter has aimed to explore the three RQs raised at the end of Chapter Three. It is hoped that the multiple theories, perspectives, and layers integrated into this discussion would provide a multi-faceted understanding of Taiwanese English language teachers' identity and agency in multilingual and multimodal times. I first discussed language teachers' positional identity in relation to LPP discourse, self-narrative, and classroom interaction. Then, I discussed language teachers' invested identity from a sociological perspective referencing Norton's investment theory. Lastly, I discussed the dialectical relationship between identity, agency, and structure from a critical realism perspective, examining how macro-level structures (i.e., ontological reality) interacts with local LPP agency (i.e., epistemological subjectivism). I also raised some critical issues regarding the structure-agency relationship for the LPP research and language teacher education research, which I will draw out the implications in the next chapter.

9 Chapter Nine: Evaluation and conclusion

This study set out to investigate Taiwanese English language teachers' identity and agency construction in multilingual and multimodal times from multi-layered and multi-faceted perspectives. In this final chapter, I will summarise and bring together the main areas covered in this thesis and give a concluding comment. Firstly, I will summarise the main findings presented in Chapters Five, Six, and Seven in tandem with the research questions and design presented in Chapters Three and Four. Secondly, I will specify the theoretical and methodological contributions that the study has made. Thirdly, I will provide suggestions for policy and practice implications regarding the LPP implementation and language teacher education and professional development, followed by a discussion of the strengths and limitations of the current study based on my reflective practice as a linguistic ethnography researcher. Finally, I will offer some recommendations for future research in this area.

9.1 Summary of main chapters

9.1.1 Summary of literature review: A multi-perspectival approach

I first reviewed conceptual and methodological frameworks of teacher identity and agency research in the language teacher education field. The review indicates that in the field of language teacher education, there is a tendency to shift from top-down transmission models to a more self-directing and collective developmental process of teacher professionalism construction. Hence, the stance adopted in this thesis is that LTI and LTA are multi-faceted constructs that require various perspectives, including social structures, community of practice, and classroom discourse. Then, I reviewed the reflexive relationship between LPP and LTA/LTI. Taking a critical realism perspective, this thesis regards structural LPP as both constraints and enablements that impact classroom teacher identity and agency. At the same time, individual teachers have agentive power to meditate the macro-level LPP in their own communities and classrooms. Thirdly, I reviewed how LPP was enacted and practised in L2 classroom interactions. I mainly focused on L2 classroom discourse studies from the multilingual and multimodal perspectives to understand the intertwined relationship between LPP, LTI and LTA, and classroom interactions.

Drawing on what I reviewed from the relevant literature, I provided operational definitions of LTI and LTA at the end of Chapter Three to locate my research. First, LTI was operationally defined as 'how language teachers understand, narrate, and enact their professional selves and how they position themselves in relation to policy discourse, professional community, and classroom discourse'. More specifically, *positional identity* was defined as 'language teachers' discursive positioning themselves in relation to policy contexts, key stakeholders, community engagement, and classroom interaction via involves teachers' constant negotiation among various conflicting beliefs, emotions, and ideologies'. Secondly, *invested identity* was defined as 'language teachers' investment in professional knowledge construction, the community of practice, classroom interactional competence, and multimodal literacy to increase their professional capital and therefore consolidate their identity as a competent language teacher'. Thirdly, *language teacher agency* was operationally defined as:

(1) teachers' creative appropriation and instantiation of structural resources and constraints into their pursuit of professional aspirations. Structural resources are the affordances provided by LPP discourse and implementation.
(2) teachers' achievement constituted in their daily narrative, community support, past experience, present adaptation, and future vision.
(3) teachers' flexible employment of discursive strategies and multimodal resources available in the classroom, including negotiating the tasks with students, using digital technology, and resorting to students' L1, to fulfil their pedagogical goals and to respond to LPP discourse.

The three RQs arising out of the analytical focus were as follows:

(1) How are English teachers positioned by the educational language policies in multilingual and multimodal times?
(2) How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their accounts of multilingual and multimodal teaching experiences?
(3) How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their multilingual and multimodal classroom practices?

9.1.2 Summary of methodology: A multi-faceted research design

With the three RQs posed at the end of the literature review, I adopted linguistic ethnography as an overall methodological framework because of its ontological and epistemological openness to methodological pluralism and heteroglossia. As summarised in Table 9.1, various data sources were collected, and various discourse analytic tools were employed to triangulate the complexity of language teacher identity and agency.

Table 9.1 Summary of research design

Policy, Position, and Practice: A linguistic ethnography study of Taiwanese English language teacher identity and agency in multilingual and multimodal times		
Research questions	Data source	Analytical tools
1. How are English teachers positioned by the educational language policy texts and what are the potential consequences for teacher agency of such positionings?	1. Policy documents 2. Fieldnotes	1. Thematic analysis 2. Positioning analysis
2. How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their accounts of multilingual and multimodal teaching experiences?	1. Ethnographic interviews 2. Reflective posts	1. Thematic analysis 2. Positioning analysis
3. How do English teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their multilingual and multimodal classroom practices?	1. Observation 2. Video-recordings 3. Fieldnotes	1. Conversation analysis 2. Multimodal analysis 3. Positioning analysis

To exhibit the quality of my qualitative research, I provided a detailed account of my methodological decisions, including my paradigmatic awareness of the ontological and epistemological foundations of the interpretative methods I adopted in this research. By doing so, the fundamental principles of conducting qualitative research, such as justification, reflexivity, transparency, and ethics, were evidenced.

9.1.3 Summary of main findings and discussion

To summarise the findings of the RQs and subsequent discussion, I will present them on the following aspects in this section (see Figure 9.1): (1) duties and rights to professional investment in policy discourse, (2) three principles underlying teachers' community of practice, and (3) three meta-functions of code-switching in multimodal and multilingual classroom interactions.

9.1.3.1 Duties and rights to professional investment in policy discourse

This study has identified eight positions, three themes, and one overarching theme embedded in the four LPP documents relevant to English teachers' identity and agency construction (see Table 9.2).

Table 9.2 Duties and rights to professional investment in policy discourse

LPP documents	• *12-Year Basic Education Curriculum Guidelines* (Taiwan MOE, 2014) • *Domain-Specific Curriculum: English Language* (Taiwan MOE, 2018a) • *Blueprint for Developing Taiwan into a Bilingual Nation by 2030* (National Development Council, 2018) • *MOE Proposal for Bilingual Nation Policy* (Taiwan MOE, 2018b)
Theme 1	Duty to grow students as autonomous lifelong learners and responsible citizens • Position 1: English teachers should help students to master learning strategies. • Position 2: English teachers should promote students' awareness of social participation at both global and local levels.
Theme 2	Duty to align teaching with the pedagogies proposed in LPP documents • Position 3: English teachers should teach English communicatively. • Position 4: English teachers should incorporate digital technology to enhance teaching. • Position 5: English teachers should maximise students' success with individualised teaching via digital technology.
Theme 3	Duty and right to grow professionally and become lifelong learners

	• Position 6: English teachers have a right to seek professional assistance and resources. • Position 7: English teachers should participate in CPD activities. • Position 8: English teachers should engage in public dialogues with relevant stakeholders.
Overarching theme	English teachers have the duties and rights to invest themselves and their students as lifelong learners.

In the introduction of the Taiwanese context in Chapter Two and literature review of LPP research in Asian contexts in Section 3.2.3, I have pointed out that Taiwan, among other Asian countries, has recently invested considerable resources to the quality of English language curriculum to respond to the global and local economic challenges. As analysed in Chapter Five, the four LPP documents are contextualised in globalisation and internationalisation discourse that the English language is linked to the concepts of English power, international competitiveness, and global co-opetition. In the ideal portrayal of English language teachers in multilingual and multimodal times, the duties and rights ascribed in the four LPP documents foreground the relational characteristics of positioning between English teachers and their students, CPD community members, and parents. In addition, the LPP discourse also highlights certain pedagogies (i.e., teaching in spoken and textual discourse, teaching English in English, Content and Language Integrated Learning, English for Specific Purposes, and educational technology) that teachers have duties and rights to invest in. For *invested identity*, this study has shown that the LPP discursively positions English teachers themselves at the centre of their professional investment. Such positioning enables teachers to be the agents of change in their own contexts. Through CPD engagements, English teachers are invested in building their professional identity, making sense of their teaching experience, interacting with various stakeholders, and constructing their knowledge base. In addition, teachers' digital literacies are valued as symbolic capital in the LPP discourse and community practice that consolidate their professional capital in multimodal times. As for *structure and teacher agency*, my findings reveal that neoliberal ideologies and socio-technical structure embedded in the LPP discourse position how English language teachers should teach; meanwhile, macro-level LPP affords teachers implementational space to make English teaching locally appropriate for their students.

9.1.3.2 Principles underlying teachers' community of practice

To investigate how English language teachers position themselves and construct identity and agency in their accounts of multilingual and multimodal teaching experiences, this data set consists of interview transcripts, teachers' reflective posts, and fieldwork notes. Drawing on the four teachers' self-narrative, I have identified three principles (i.e., reflexivity-as-positioning, community-as-support, and flexibility-as-strategy) underlying their multilingual and multimodal teaching practices in the CPD communities (see Table 9.3).

Table 9.3 Principles underlying teachers' community of practice

Principles	Categories
Reflexivity-as-positioning	The upsides and downsides of educational technology; being traditional or digital; love and hate of technology; teaching English or teaching technology.
Community-as-support	• Giver in the community: sharing and taking initiatives; bridge-maker between teachers and policy. • Taker in the community: learning from community peers; feeling emotionally supported.
Flexibility-as-strategy	Improvisation in class; negotiation with students; reconciliation policy with classroom complexities.

As discussed in Chapter Eight, my study has shown that LTA and LTI are impacted by individual teachers' imaginations and emotions as well as shaped by social and technological structures. For the discursive construction of *positional identity*, my findings suggest that it involves teachers' constant repositioning and re-agency among conflicting beliefs, emotions, and ideologies when lifelong learning is considered a critical component in the LPP discourse and professional communities. Repositioning, because the teachers are required to negotiate with key stakeholders, including parents, students, and colleagues, when there are clashing beliefs about their teaching practice; re-agency, because the teachers are required to manage unexpected teaching improvisations and reconcile the discrepancy between the LPP promises and their everyday classroom life. For *invested identity*, my findings suggest that the teachers invest in the community of practice and digital teaching practice not only to obtain their instrumental gains (e.g., to stay informed of the latest technology development and educational theories) but also to realise their imagined professional identities (e.g., to be socially recognised as competent English teachers) in multimodal and multilingual times. As for *structure and agency*, I analysed the macro-micro relationships between bottom-up teacher agency and top-down social structures, arguing that the interplay between agency and structure is a dialectical state manifested in teachers' LPP instantiation, appropriation, and innovation. Built on Ricento and Hornberger's (1996) model of the LPP onion, I propose an alternative of the LPP onion (see Figure 8.1), arguing that the top-down LPP should reflexively examine language teachers' multi-layered agency and identities. On the other hand, I also argue that grassroots teachers will acquire more agentive impetus to take initiatives in multimodal and multilingual times if language teachers are aware of the power operating ideology that influences their construction of professional identity and agency.

9.1.3.3 Meta-functions of code-switching in classroom interaction

The findings of classroom discourse analysis demonstrate that teachers' code-switching behaviours serve various pedagogical purposes and construct their professional identity and agency. As shown in Table 9.4, ten functions of teachers' code-switching and accompanying positional identities were identified in three meta-functions (i.e., curriculum assessment, classroom management, and interpersonal relations). The findings have shown that the teachers tend to utilise multimodal and L1 resources to enact various positional identities. The identified positional identities indicate that the four teachers dialectically negotiate the institutional identities in policy discourse, imagined identities in their narratives, and practised identities in their classroom interactions. In terms of *structure* and *teacher agency*, my findings suggest that when teachers implement macro-level policies at the micro-level, their agency is achieved through the instances of drawing on multilingual and multimodal resources to fulfil the pedagogical goals and *lead at the moment* in a given context. From this perspective, I argue that the four teachers' switching from English to Chinese is not because of their English deficiency but because of their understanding of the local needs. Therefore, even within the 'teaching English in English' and 'teaching English communicatively' policies, the four teachers resourcefully employ the students' L1 and work out their 'practised language policy' (Bonacina-Pugh, 2020) in the multilingual and multimodal classrooms.

Table 9.4 Three meta-functions of four teachers' code-switching

Meta-functions	Function	Positional identities
Curriculum assess	(1) Check understanding (2) Pronunciation correction (3) Grammar acquisition (4) Elicit responses	• a resourceful teacher • a knowledge construction guide • a classroom sequential designer
Classroom management	(5) Disciplinary management (6) Digital operation (7) Negotiate digital tasks with students	• an attention redirector • a conductor who forwards course progression • a flexible implementer of Bilingual Nation Policy • a moderator who negotiates between students and pedagogical goal
Interpersonal relations	(8) Cultural co-membership (9) Personal experiences (10) Build rapport and reduce students' anxiety	• an affective social being • a humanising teacher who can relate to students' feelings and boost their confidence • a professional community member who exhibits their expertise in digital teaching • a local community member who share the same cultural knowledge with students

9.2 Contributions

The understanding and insights gained in this thesis can be summarised as follows: (1) theoretical contribution to the constructs of LTI and LTA, (2) methodological contribution to linguistic ethnography, and (3) substantive contribution to the interplay between Taiwanese LPP discourse and Taiwanese English language teacher identity and agency.

9.2.1 Theoretical contribution to the constructs of LTI and LTA

This thesis contributes to existing knowledge of LTI and LTA by providing a multi-perspectival conceptualisation framework of language teacher identity and agency (see Figure 9.1). As reviewed in Chapter Three, the constructs of LTI and LTA are now considered essential aspects of language teacher education and professional development. The burgeoning studies on LTI reciprocally heighten the orientation of viewing language teachers as agents in their own contexts. As indicated by some researchers (Ruohotie-Lyhty & Moate, 2016; Kayi-Aydar, 2019b) that the identity-agency relationship can be conceptualised as a theoretical unity, I also made the argument throughout the thesis that LTI and LTA are not independent of each another nor the one is subsumed by the other. Rather, reframing identity-agency as a complex

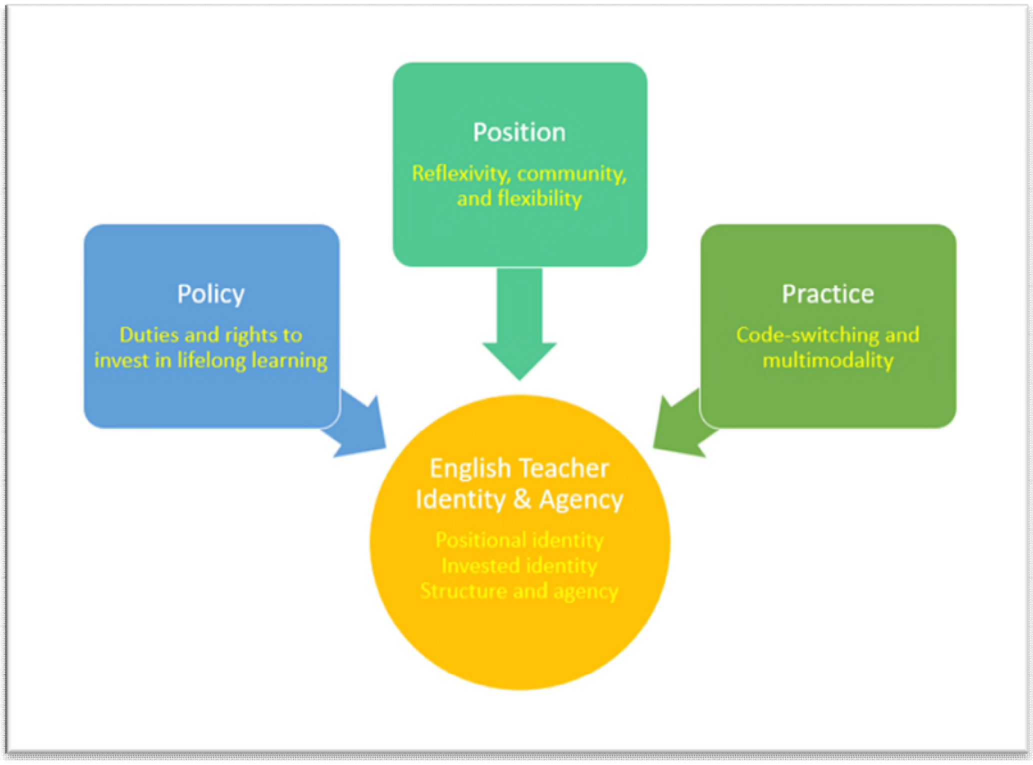


Figure 9.1 Conceptualization framework of language teacher identity and agency

theoretical construct would further our understanding of who English teachers are and what they bring to their classrooms, communities, and institutions in multilingual and multimodal times.

As discussed in Chapter Eight, although I have attempted to identify different features of LTI and LTA, it is impossible to discuss teacher identity without referring to teacher agency. Rather, both LTI and LTA are concerned with positionings by self and others, individual and collective practices, and the paradox of structural enablements and constraints. Secondly, this multi-perspectival conceptualisation framework highlights the micro and macro perspectives of LTI and LTA construction. Building on Block's reflection on language and identity research (2012, 2013, 2014, 2015a, 2015b), this thesis has adopted a critical realism perspective that language teacher identity-agency should be investigated from macro structures and micro identities and actions. Therefore, this multi-perspectival framework has aimed to provide an ethnographic perspective of *agency-in-structure* and a structural perspective of *structure-in-agency* (see Section 8.2.2).

9.2.2 Methodological contribution to linguistic ethnography

In terms of methodological contributions, this thesis has added to the growing body of literature on the linguistic ethnography method, attempting to take a multi-faceted view of linguistic phenomena and incorporate ethnographic observations of how participant teachers interact with the LPP discourse. As shown in Section 4.8 (see Figure 4.4), this multi-faceted research design has aimed to analyse the connections between structural, institutional, and local discourses. As discussed in Section 4.1, discourse analysis approaches are compatible with ethnography approaches that foreground grassroots movement and LPP agency because both are committed to an agenda of understanding local social life. Moreover, as discussed in Section 8.2.2, when combined, both approaches offer an essential balance between structure and agency–between a structural focus on the power of LPP and an ethnographic understanding of the identities and agency of LPP actors, a balance that is needed in the research of LTI and LTA.

Secondly, this multi-faceted research design has provided one possibility for future research into investigating the relationship between classroom teaching practice and LTI and LTA. Most of the existing studies of LTI and LTA employ interviews and other introspective data in which teachers reflect on their teaching practices. On the other side, most of the existing studies of L2 classroom interaction do not specifically focus on LTI and LTA. Therefore, this thesis has attempted to corroborate how teachers' narratives about their professional identity and agency relate to their classroom teaching practices.

Thirdly, this thesis has provided some practical methodological strategies for future researchers, especially fieldwork apprentices, to make the best use of their time being in the field. For example, to solve the problem that I did not know what to observe in the classrooms, I designed a template for fieldwork observations to help myself stay focused and capture the distinct features I observed in the specific classroom settings (see Section 4.4.2). In addition, to maintain reflexivity in the process of data collection and analysis, I designed a template for a reflexive diary to track my reflexivity trajectory as a qualitative researcher (see Section 4.4.4). In retrospect, I think these strategies have assisted me to stay organised and reflexive as a linguistic ethnographer.

9.2.3 Substantive contribution to the interplay between LPP and LTI/LTA in the Taiwanese context

This thesis has provided empirical investigation into the impact of the LPP on LTI and LTA in the Taiwanese context. Specifically, the four most relevant LPP documents concerning *12-Year Basic Education Curriculum Guidelines* (Taiwan MOE, 2014) and *Developing Taiwan into a Bilingual Nation by 2030* (National Development Council, 2018) have been analysed thematically to examine how the LPP discourse constructs English teachers' identity and agency in policy texts. Secondly, this thesis has gone some way towards enhancing the understanding of how classroom English teachers interpret, appropriate, and instantiate LPP at the community and classroom level (see Section 8.2.1). Specifically, this thesis has provided substantive findings to unpack how local agents acknowledge LPP as structural affordances as well as constraints and how the agents mediate the LPP to enact multiple identities and exercise professional agency. Thirdly, these findings are particularly relevant for researchers, practitioners and policymakers in multilingual and multimodal times. Though limited, the findings in this thesis have provided additional evidence on how socio-technical structures and globalisation of the English language influence LTI and LTA.

9.3 Implications for practice and policy

The findings and discussion in this thesis can provide some practical implications for classroom teachers, language teacher educators, language policymakers, and researchers.

9.3.1 Implications for classroom teachers

Living in a fast-changing time is not easy for teachers, students, and everyone. As analysed in Chapter Five, teachers are positioned by the LPP discourse with various professional duties. Faced with new policies, new curricula, new pedagogies, and new technologies, teachers may feel the mismatch between their ideals and reality; they may feel the ups and downs in their CPD journey. The findings in the thesis suggest that when teachers narrate their own stories online and/or offline, they re-discourse not only their daily teaching practices but also their professional peers', they heal not only their own emotions but also other teachers', they not only lead themselves but also everyone around them. Why is it worthwhile for teachers to tell and share their mundane small stories even if there seems no one reading their blog or social media posts? Because in web-worlds, a story affects eternity, and we can never tell where its influence stops. If the word *discourse* means 'the actual use of language along with other multimodal resources (e.g., facial expression, gazes, gesture, body movements, artefacts, and the material settings) to accomplish actions, negotiate identities, and construct ideologies' (Waring, 2018, p. 8), then language teachers should be aware that language is not merely 'the vehicle and object of instruction' (Long, 1984, p. 419) but their powerful tool to counter-discourse the structural impositions. For teachers as LPP agents, discoursal power is not within policy documents, but within every reflective post teachers write and every classroom interaction teachers have with their students.

Furthermore, this thesis would suggest that classroom teachers cultivate a structural perspective on their professional identity formation (see Section 8.2.2.2). The three questions that English language teachers can constantly reflect on are worth repeating here:

(1) In a wide range of social activities English language teachers are engaged in, are they aware that the structural constraints and enablements they encounter are implicated in broader social structures they work with?
(2) When teachers perform a sense of 'who am I', are they aware of the invisible power that drives their investment in the socio-structurally given pedagogies or community of practice? Are they aware that their agentive performance is, to a certain extent, impinged upon the socio-technical structure and geopolitical structure?
(3) When the structure affords implementational spaces for teachers to exercise their agency and when teachers strive to align themselves with the ideal 'English language teacher' identity sketched in LPP discourse, are teachers aware that there also exists 'ideological space' for them to challenge the 'instrumentalist view' of English language teaching and learning, such as English power, international competitiveness, economic benefits, and global co-opetition?

Awareness as such could serve as a critical reminder for teachers that they always have new possibilities to live out. That is, there can be multiple identities and forms of agency simultaneously.

9.3.2 Implications for language teacher educators

Regarding implications for language teacher educators, it would be helpful to provide LPP analytical tools for pre-service and in-service teachers to enhance teachers' sense of professional identity and to enact teachers' agentive roles. Despite that it is now commonly acknowledged that classroom teachers play a significant role in the LPP process (García & Menken, 2010; Hornberger, 2005; Johnson, 2013), yet the findings in this thesis suggest that the teachers tend to stay at the institutional level to talk about the constraints and impositions they experience when they refer to structural constraints. None of them referred to geopolitical structure, economic structure, nor neoliberal discourse in their account of professional identity and agency. One of the reasons might be that the teachers are not aware of the invisible impetus driven by geopolitical structure, economic structure, and neoliberal discourse in their construction of professional identity and agency. Therefore, I propose that there is ethical and professional importance for the field of language teacher education to incorporate 'LPP literacy' as a foundational part of teachers' professional knowledge construction. What I mean by LPP literacy is to engage language teachers with a set of LPP conceptual, theoretical and analytical tools to inspect the implementational and ideological spaces in their teaching practices. Hult (2018), for example, develops a unit on educational language policy for his pre-service teachers in the educational sociolinguistics course. Considering that pre-service teachers might regard LPP analysis as abstract and irrelevant to their professionalism, he designs a roleplay scenario to raise pre-service participants' awareness as an LPP agent and relate policy to practice. Lesson plans as such could encourage both pre-service and in-service teachers to adopt the identity as LPP arbiters (Johnson, 2013) and LPP interpreters (Chang-Bacon, 2021) rather than passive LPP implementors.

9.3.3 Implications for language policymakers

In terms of implications for policymakers, it is vital to understand how the language policy and curriculum are actually implemented in multiple layers (i.e., micro, meso, and macro; Johnson, 2013) by multiple agents (e.g., teacher educators, institutional administrators, teachers, students, and parents). By collecting empirical data, policymakers can make informed decisions and iteratively develop better versions of LPP. The findings in this thesis bring this to the point that the momentum teachers create in their narratives, communities, and classrooms goes far beyond the positions set by the LPP discourse. From the perspective of human agency, policymakers should understand that individual identity, intentionality, interpretation, motivation, and imagination make it very hard to implement language policy the way it is originally designed. The issue is not about whether the given policy and curriculum agendas are implemented successfully as it is, but whether policymakers can timely respond to the uncertain possibilities and iteratively provide sustained support for teachers. As critiqued in Section 8.2.2.1, the LPP discourse positions English language teachers as rational agents with the duty to invest themselves and their students as lifelong learners. This technocratic view of 'English language teachers as LPP implementers' does not fit how classroom teachers instantiate, appropriate, and innovate the policy and curriculum. Therefore, this thesis would suggest that policymakers cultivate an ethnographic perspective on teacher agency in the LPP process. In fairness to the attempts made in the *Bilingual Nation Policy* and the *108 Curriculum* (see Chapter Five), I acknowledge that there exists implementational space for teachers to engage in various CPD opportunities. Nevertheless, to deal with the issue of why the LPP discourse tend to be 'dysfunctional' (Clarke, 1994) for teachers, policymakers need to have an ethnographic understanding of validating teacher agency at the ground level because teachers' agency and identity are not fixed and stable as portrayed in the LPP discourse.

9.3.4 Implications for researchers

Among other researcher identities, such as a PhD researcher from the UK and a governmental scholarship recipient, I have foregrounded my identity as a 'fellow teacher with ten-year experience' to build relationships with my participant teachers. This identity not only summoned my agency to provide an 'inside-out' ethnographic perspective (Rampton, 2007) on LTI and LTA but also made me a reflexive bridge-maker between research and practice. In the process of navigating my own identity as a researcher in the fieldwork, I observed that occasionally, my participant teachers revealed their perception of power differentials between us as 'researchers versus teachers'. For example, in my first interview with Wendy, I asked her 'what can the administrative staff and MOE provide to support your teaching?', she replied:

> What we are doing is not supported by research results, and no research can tell you that the integration of digital technology into teaching guarantees a positive impact on students' learning. It's just our own observation and unverified theory! When we don't have the means to provide trustworthy, objective data and tell the public that it's positive, I think it's hard to convince them. We don't have the expertise to do this kind of research; at best, we can only write action research papers, but they are not very rigorous. So I hope that more researchers can come up with objective data, and when there is sufficient data, people will slowly change their minds, and they won't think it's just a gimmick.

At that moment, I felt Wendy's implication: her own theories and action research were not as trustworthy and robust as the ones produced by expert researchers, and she hoped that by taking part in my research project, her own teaching practice could be verified by an objective researcher. This unforgettable anecdote reminds me that as we researchers set about our LTI and LTA research projects, the utmost methodological positionality, regardless of the positivist, interpretive, or critical research paradigm, is to change and transform the power inequality that teachers experienced and described. My PhD journey has also taught me to be a humbler researcher because no matter how objective or reflexive we intend to be, our research findings of the complex social world are inevitably limited by the research methods and tools we employ. This is what I will turn to in the following section.

9.3.5 Implications for classroom code-switching and technology

Teachers' code-switching behaviours and technology employment serve as a window to understand how teachers enacted their professional identity and agency in multilingual and multimodal classrooms. In terms of implications for code-switching in the classroom, it is important to recognise teachers as classroom knowers in their contexts. The findings in Chapter Seven suggest that there is a reflexive relation between teachers' code-switching behaviours and local classroom needs. The 'teach English in English' imposition should be re-evaluated with the findings of ethnographic classroom studies so that recommendations about language use are more nuanced and more contextual. Appropriate methodology as outlined by Holliday (1994) requires decisions about what is most useful for supporting language learning, within particular contexts, should be made taking into account relationships between teachers and learners, classroom management issues and the integration of technology in a practical and pragmatic manner. They should not be mandated in the form of 'one size fits all' (Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

As critiqued in Section 8.2, the monolithic view of language choices in Bilingual Nation Policy does not offer implementational space for teachers to exercise their professional agency through pedagogical decisions. Therefore, this thesis would suggest that the LPP should not adopt a technocratic perspective to assess teachers' performance. Instead, classroom teachers should be reflexively assessed by their own rationale over their language choices. For example, Goodman and Tastanbek (2021) employ an autobiographical narrative inquiry approach to reflect on their own understanding and experiences of code-switching ad translanguaging. Critical reflection as such could encourage classroom teachers and teacher educators to value teachers' and students' linguistic and cultural repertoires. In terms of implications for understanding educational technology, it would be helpful to motivate teachers to acquire multimodal literacy as part of their professional capital. As discussed in Section 8.1.2, English language teachers invest in the digital teaching practice not only to obtain their instrumental gain (e.g., to receive social recognition) but also to realise their imagined professional identities. In this sense, policy makers and teacher educators should provide relevant CPD resources to help teachers to consolidate the professional capital in multimodal times.

9.4 Limitations and recommendations for future research

The findings in this thesis are subject to several limitations. One major limitation is the variety of sampling participant teachers. As discussed in Section 4.3.1, I adopted purposive sampling to investigate LTI and LTA in multimodal and multilingual times. The four cases were selected because of their engagement in digital teaching and their willingness to participate in my research project. Though the findings in this thesis do not intend to be generalised nor representative, more research exploring multiple and varied contexts is needed, including classroom facilities, institutional atmosphere, teachers' experience, and teachers' perceptions of multimodal and multilingual teaching. Specifically, given the impact of the global COVID pandemic, digital teaching is no longer an issue of whether this type of new teaching is validated by robust research, but rather, it is the new norm for both teachers and students day in and day out all over the world. It will be a promising direction for more LTI and LTA research to be carried out that links classroom teaching practice to teacher technological identities and agency.

Secondly, due to limited space and time, the representation of classroom interaction in this thesis did not provide nuanced multimodal transcripts, including classroom arrangement, digital content displayed in class, and nonverbal gestures. When it comes to capturing multimodal classroom interaction, it might be helpful to have different sets of high-quality cameras that can track eye gaze and transient nonverbal gestures. As multimodal CA analysis has become more widespread (Gardner, 2019; Sert, 2015) to investigate if learning occurs, it would be another promising area to investigate teacher technological identities and agency through the rich evidence generated via multimodal CA analysis. It would be interesting to see how teachers' narratives about their technological identities and agency relating to their multimodal teaching practices.

Thirdly, an issue that was not addressed in this thesis is the relationship between code-switching and teachers' introspective beliefs. Though this thesis has attempted to explore a number of dimensions of teachers' identities and agency by analysing teachers' code-switching behaviour, little is known about teachers' *there and then* thinking when they code-switch. Therefore, it would be fruitful to employ stimulated recall interviews to triangulate the qualitative data of teachers' code-switching rationale. Many studies have employed stimulated recalls to investigate teachers' code-switching in multilingual classrooms (Cahyani et al., 2018; Du, 2016; Zainil & Arsyad, 2021), but most studies do not primarily focus on language teacher identity and agency. Stimulated recalls can be employed to elicit teachers' interpretations of the observed code-switching to enable researchers to understand how teachers perceive code-switching as their exercise of professional agency.

9.5 Plans for dissemination

Given the contributions and implications mentioned above, there are three key audiences for the dissemination of this study: English language teachers, English language teacher educators, and researchers. To increase the research impact, plans for dissemination will include:

(1) For English language teachers:
I plan to share my research findings on Facebook. Specifically, I will use plain language to present the findings on my personal Facebook page (with around 7,000 followers) and in primary ELT communities.

(2) For English language teacher educators:
I plan to hold a workshop dedicated to LPP literacy for classroom teachers. I will utilise my current networking with the ELT communities in Taiwan and invite community leaders and teacher educators to figure out how to integrate LPP literacy into teachers' classroom practices.

(3) For researchers:
- I plan to attend the BAAL conference 2022 titled 'Innovation and Social Justice in Applied Linguistics' and give a presentation based on the main findings of my thesis.

- I plan to submit a research paper concerning the findings of LPP analysis to the peer-reviewed journal *Current Issues in Language Planning*.
- I plan to submit a research paper concerning the findings of narrative analysis to the *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*.
- I plan to submit a research paper concerning the findings of classroom interaction analysis to the peer-reviewed journal *Discourse Studies*.
- I plan to submit a research paper concerning the innovative research design of linguistic ethnography to the peer-reviewed journal *International Journal of Research & Method in Education.*

9.6 Concluding remarks

Before conducting this study, my imagination of the roles of English language teachers in today's technology-defined zeitgeist was limited, concentrating mainly on how English teachers could collaborate with their 'technological assistants' to maximise students' learning. With the intellectual enquiry in my PhD journey, my research focus has gone beyond the scope of digital teaching methodology and strived to understand the ontological and epistemological aspects of English language teacher identity and agency. What I have intended to offer in this thesis comes from the frontline classroom teachers amid the turmoil of multimodal and multimodal times—with a genuine presentation of their ambivalence and agency in mundane teaching life. I hope that the readers will find these lived stories relevant and inspirational.

REFERENCES

Ahearn, L. M. (2001). Language and agency. *Annual review of anthropology*, *30*(1), 109-137.

Alasuutari, P. (1995). *Researching culture: qualitative method and cultural studies*. Sage.

Aro, M. (2015). In action and inaction: English learners authoring their agency. In *Beliefs, agency and identity in foreign language learning and teaching*, 48-65. Palgrave Macmillan.

Arvaja, M. (2016). Building teacher identity through the process of positioning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 59, 392-402.

Auer, P. (1984). *Bilingual conversation*. John Benjamins Publishing.

Auer, P. (2007). The pragmatics of code-switching: A sequential approach. In *The bilingualism reader*, 123-138. Routledge.

BAAL (2016). *Recommendations on good practice*. Retrieved from https://baalweb.files.wordpress.com/2016/10/goodpractice_full_2016.pdf

Baarts, C. (2009). Stuck in the middle: Research ethics caught between science and politics. *Qualitative research*, *9*(4), 423-439.

Baker, S., & Edwards, R. (2012). *How many qualitative interviews is enough?: Expert voices and early career reflections on sampling and cases in qualitative research*. Retrieved from http://eprints.brighton.ac.uk/11632/.

Baldauf, R. B., & Kaplan, R. B. (2004). *Language planning and policy in Africa*, vol. 1. Multilingual Matters.

Baldauf, R. B., & Kaplan, R. B. (2006). *Language Planning and Policy in the Pacific: Fiji, the Philippines and Vanuatu*. vol. 1. Multilingual Matters.

Baldauf, R. B., & Kaplan, R. B. (2007). *Language Planning and Policy in Latin America.* vol. 1. Multilingual Matters.

Ball, S. J., Maguire, M., Braun, A., & Hoskins, K. (2011). Policy actors: Doing policy work in schools. *Discourse: Studies in the cultural politics of education*, *32*(4), 625-639.

Bamberg, M. (2004). Talk, small stories, and adolescent identities. *Human Development*, 47, 366–369.

Barkhuizen, G. (2014). Narrative research in language teaching and learning. *Language Teaching*, *47*(4), 450-466.

Barkhuizen, G. (2015). Narrative knowledging in second language teaching and learning contexts. In *The handbook of narrative analysis*, 97-115.

Barkhuizen, G. (2016). A short story approach to analyzing teacher (imagined) identities over time. *TESOL Quarterly*, *50*(3), 655-683.

Barkhuizen, G. (2017). Language teacher identity research: An introduction. In *Reflections on language teacher identity research*, 9-19. Routledge.

Bazeley, P. (2007). *Qualitative data analysis with NVivo*. Sage.

Benson, P. (2007). Autonomy in language teaching and learning. *Language teaching*, *40*(1), 21-40.

Bhaskar, R. (1975). *A realist theory of science*. Leeds Books.

Bianco, J. L. (2016). *Myanmar country report: Language education and social cohesion (LESC) initiative*. UNICEF East Asia and Pacific Regional Office.

Biesta, G. J. J. & Tedder, M. (2007). Agency and learning in the life course: Towards an ecological perspective*. Studies in the Education of Adults*, *39* (2), 132–149.

Biesta, G., & Tedder, M. (2006). How is agency possible? Towards an ecological understanding of agency-as-achievement. In *Learning lives: Learning, identity, and agency in the life course*. Swindon: ESRC.

Block, D. (2003). *The social turn in second language acquisition*. Georgetown University Press.

Block, D. (2007). The rise of identity in SLA research, post Firth and Wagner (1997). *The Modern language journal*, 91, 863-876.

Block, D. (2012). Unpicking agency in sociolinguistic research with migrants. In *Multilingualism, discourse, and ethnography*, 54-67. Routledge.

Block, D. (2013). The structure and agency dilemma in identity and intercultural communication research. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, *13*(2), 126-147.

Block, D. (2014). *Second language identities*. Bloomsbury Publishing.

Block, D. (2015a). Becoming a language teacher: Constraints and negotiation in the emergence of new identities. *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature*, *8*(3), 9-26.

Block, D. (2015b). Structure, agency, individualization and the critical realist challenge. In *Theorizing and analyzing agency in second language learning*, 17-36. Multilingual Matters.

Block, D., & Cameron, D. (Eds.). (2002). *Globalization and language teaching.* London: Routledge.

Blommaert, J. (2010). *The sociolinguistics of globalization.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bonacina-Pugh, F. (2020). Legitimizing multilingual practices in the classroom: the role of the 'practiced language policy'. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(4), 434-448.

Bonnet, A., & Breidbach, S. (2017). CLIL teachers' professionalization. In *Applied linguistics perspectives on CLIL*, 269-286. John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Bouchard, J., & Glasgow, G. P. (eds.). (2019). *Agency in Language Policy and Planning: Critical Inquiries*. Routledge.

Bourdieu, P. (1991). *Language and Symbolic Power.* Harvard University Press.

Bourne, J., Franks, A., Hardcastle, J., Jewitt, C., Jones, K., Kress, G., & Reid, E. (2005*). English in urban classrooms: A multimodal perspective on teaching and learning.* Routledge.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative research in psychology*, *3*(2), 77-101.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2013). *Successful qualitative research*. SAGE.

Braun, V., Clarke, V., Hayfield, N., Terry G. (2019). Thematic analysis. In *Handbook of Research Methods in Health Social Sciences*. Springer.

Bryman, A. (1988). *Quantity and Quality in Social Research*. Routledge.

Bucholtz, M. (2003). Theories of discourse as theories of gender: Discourse analysis in language and gender studies. In *The Handbook of Language and Gender*. Blackwell.

Burns, A. (2017). Forword. In *Teacher agency and policy response in English language teaching*. Routledge.

Cahyani, H., de Courcy, M., & Barnett, J. (2018). Teachers' code-switching in bilingual classrooms: exploring pedagogical and sociocultural functions. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 21*(4), 465-479.

Cahyani, H., de Courcy, M., & Barnett, J. (2018). Teachers' code-switching in bilingual classrooms: exploring pedagogical and sociocultural functions. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 21*(4), 465-479.

Cameron, L., & Larsen-Freeman, D. (2008). Complex systems and applied linguistics. *International journal of applied linguistics*, *17*(2), 226-239.

Canagarajah, A. S. (1995). Functions of codeswitching in ESL classrooms: Socialising bilingualism in Jaffna. *Journal of multilingual & multicultural development*, *16*(3), 173-195.

Canagarajah, A. S. (1999). *Resisting linguistic imperialism in English teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2011). Afterword: World Englishes as code-meshing. *Code-meshing as world English: Pedagogy, policy, performance*, 273-81.

Canagarajah, S. (2017). Multilingual identity in teaching multilingual writing. In *Reflections on language teacher identity research*, 75-81. Routledge.

Canh, L. V. & Maley, A. (2012). Interviews. In *Researching language teacher cognition and practice*, 90-102. Multilingual Matters.

Carstens, A. (2016). Translanguaging as a vehicle for L2 acquisition and L1 development: students' perceptions. *Language Matters, 47*(2), 203–222.

Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2017). Translanguaging as a pedagogical tool in multilingual education. In *Language awareness and multilingualism,* 309–321. Springer.

Central News Agency, (2021). Bilingual Nation Policy: 60% of primary and secondary school English classes are all in English by year 2024. Retrieved from https://www.cna.com.tw/news/firstnews/202109080322.aspx

Chang-Bacon, C. K. (2021). 'I don't think that's really their wheelhouse': governing language policy interpretation in teacher education. *Language Policy*, 1-22.

Chen, F., Kao, S., & Tsou, W. (2020). Toward ELF-informed bilingual education in Taiwan: addressing incongruity between policy and practice. *English Teaching & Learning, 44*, 175-191.

Chen, H. L. S., & Huang, H. Y. (2017). *Advancing 21st century competencies in Taiwan*. National Taiwan Normal University.

Chen, S. C. (2004). *Linguistic Vitality in Taiwan: A Sociolinguistic Study.* A NSC Study Report.

Chen, S. C. (2006). Simultaneous promotion of indigenisation and internationalisation: new language-in-education policy in Taiwan. *Language and Education*, *20*(4), 322-337.

Chen, S., & Tsai, Y. (2012). Research on English teaching and learning: Taiwan (2004–2009). *Language Teaching, 45*(2), 180-201.

Cheng, J., & Li, W. (2021). Individual agency and changing language education policy in China: Reactions to the new 'Guidelines on College English Teaching'. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *22*(1-2), 117-135.

Cheng, J., & Li, Wei. (2021). Individual agency and changing language education policy in China: reactions to the new 'Guidelines on College English Teaching'. *Current issues in language planning*, *22*(1-2), 117-135.

Choi, T. H. (2019). Structure, agency and the "Teaching English in English" policy: The case of South Korea. In *Agency in Language Policy and Planning*, 214-236. Routledge.

Clarke, M. A. (1994). The dysfunctions of the theory/practise discourse. *TESOL Quarterly*, *28*(1), 9-26.

Clarke, V., & Braun, V. (2013). Teaching thematic analysis: Overcoming challenges and developing strategies for effective learning. *The psychologist*, *26*(2), 120-123.

Cooper, R. L. (1989). *Language planning and social change*. Cambridge University Press.

Copland, F., & Creese, A. (2015). *Linguistic ethnography: Collecting, analysing and presenting data*. Sage.

Dahbi, M. (2016). A call for English teachers in Morocco to practice agency through action research. In *Teacher Agency and Policy Response in English Language Teaching*, 160-171. Routledge.

Darvin, R., & Norton, B. (2015). Identity and a model of investment in applied linguistics. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, *35*, 36-56.

Darvin, R., & Norton, B. (2017). Language, identity, and investment in the twenty-first century. *Language policy and political issues in education*, 1-15.

Darvin, R., & Norton, B. (2021). Investment and motivation in language learning: What's the difference?. *Language Teaching*, 1-12.

de Costa, P. I., & Norton, B. (2017). Introduction: Identity, transdisciplinarity, and the good language teacher. *The Modern Language Journal*, *101*(S1), 3-14.

de Fina, A. (2015). Narrative and Identities. In *The handbook of narrative analysis*. Wiley Blackwell.

de Fina, A., & Georgakopoulou, A. (2012). *Analyzing Narrative: Discourse and Sociolinguistic Perspectives.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Delamont, S. (2016). *Fieldwork in educational settings: Methods, pitfalls and perspectives*. Routledge.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). *Handbook of qualitative research* (2ed). Sage.

Deppermann, A. (2015). Positioning. In *The handbook of narrative analysis*. Wiley Blackwell

Dewaele, J. M. (2018). Why the dichotomy 'L1 versus LX user'is better than 'native versus non-native speaker'. *Applied Linguistics*, *39*(2), 236-240.

Dörnyei, Z. (2011). Researching complex dynamic systems: 'Retrodictive qualitative modelling' in the language classroom. *Language Teaching*, *47*(1), 1-12.

Du, Y. (2016). *The use of first and second language in Chinese university EFL classrooms*. Springer Singapore.

Dudeney, G., Hockly, N., & Pegrum, M. (2013). *Digital literacies: Research and resources in language teaching*. Pearson.

Duff, P. (2012). Issues of identity. In *The Routledge Handbook of second language acquisition*, 410-426. Routledge.

Dufva, H. & Aro, M. (2014). Dialogical view on language learners' agency: Connecting intrapersonal with interpersonal. In *Theorizing and analyzing agency in second language learning: Interdisciplinary approaches*, 39–53. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Edwards, E. (2019). English language teachers' agency and identity mediation through action research: A Vygotskian sociocultural analysis. In *Theorizing and Analyzing Language Teacher Agency,* 141-159. Multilingual Matters.

Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford University.

Emirbayer, M., & Mische, A. (1998). What is agency? *American journal of sociology*, *103*(4), 962-1023.

Fairclough, N. (2001). *Language and power*. Pearson Education.

Ferguson, C. A. (2003). Diglossia. In *The bilingualism reader*, 71-86. Routledge.

Ferguson, G. (2003). Classroom code-switching in post-colonial contexts: Functions, attitudes and policies. *AILA review*, *16*(1), 38-51.

Fernandez, A. S., Chiambaretto, P., Le Roy, F., & Czakon, W. (2019). Introduction: coopetition from neologism to a new paradigm. In *The Routledge Companion to Coopetition Strategies*, 1-10. Routledge.

Ferrer, A., & Lin, T. B. (2021). Official bilingualism in a multilingual nation: a study of the 2030 bilingual nation policy in Taiwan. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 1-13.

Firth, A., & Wagner, J. (1997). On discourse, communication, and (some) fundamental concepts in SLA research*. The modern language journal*, 81(3), 285-300.

Flick, U. (2018a). *Managing quality in qualitative research*. London: Sage.

Flick, U. (2018b). *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Data Collection*. Sage.

Fones, A. (2019). Examining High School English Language Learner Teacher Agency: Opportunities and Constraints. In *Theorizing and analyzing language teacher agency*, 24-43. Multilingual Matters.

Freeman, D. (1998). *Doing teacher research: From inquiry to understanding*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Freeman, D. (2016*). Educating second language teachers*. Oxford University Press.

Freeman, D., Webre, A. C., & Epperson, M. (2019). What counts as knowledge in English language teaching?. In *The Routledge Handbook of English Language Teacher Education*, 13-24. Routledge.

Gao, X. (2013). Reflexive and reflective thinking: A crucial link between agency and autonomy. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 7(3), 226-237.

Gao, X. (2019). The Douglas Fir Group framework as a resource map for language teacher education. The Modern Language Journal, 103, 161–6.

Gao, X., & Zhang, L. J. (2011). Joining Forces for Synergy: Agency and Metacognition as Interrelated Theoretical Perspectives. In *Identity, Motivation and Autonomy in Language Learning*, 25-41. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

García, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective.* Wiley-Blackwell.

García, O., & Li, W. (2015). Translanguaging, bilingualism, and bilingual education. *The handbook of bilingual and multilingual education*, 223-240.

García, O., & Li, Wei. (2014). Language, bilingualism and education. In *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*, 46-62. Palgrave.

García, O., & Menken, K. (2010). Stirring the onion: Educators and the dynamics of language education policies (looking ahead). In *Negotiating Language Policies in Schools*, 263-275. Routledge.

Gardner, R. (2019). Classroom interaction research: The state of the art. *Research on language and social interaction*, *52*(3), 212-226.

Garfinkel, H. (1984). *Studies in Ethnomethodology*. Cambridge and Oxford: Polity Press with Blackwell Publishers.

Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2008). *Data elicitation for second and foreign language research*. Psychology Press.

Gass, S., & Mackey, A. (2017). *Stimulated recall in second language research* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Glaser, B. S., Kennedy, S., & Mitchell, D. (2018). *The new southbound policy: Deepening Taiwan's regional integration*. Rowman & Littlefield.

Glasgow, G. P. (2017). Policy, agency and the (non) native teacher: "English classes in English" in Japan's high schools. In *Teacher agency and policy response in English language teaching*, 70-85. Routledge.

Glasgow, G. P., & Bouchard, J. (Eds.). (2019). *Researching agency in language policy and planning*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Gobo, G. (2018). Upside down reinventing research design. In Flick, U. (Ed.), *Managing quality in qualitative research* (2nd ed.), 65-83. Sage.

Goffman, E. (1981). *Forms of talk.* University of Pennsylvania Press.

Golden-Biddle, K., & Locke, K. (1993). Appealing work: An investigation of how ethnographic texts convince. *Organization Science*, *4*(4), 595-616.

Goodman, B., & Tastanbek, S. (2021). Making the shift from a codeswitching to a translanguaging lens in English language teacher education. *Tesol Quarterly*, *55*(1), 29-53.

Goodwin, C., & Duranti, A. (1992). *Rethinking Context*. UK: Cambridge University Press.

Graham, K. M., Pan, W. Y., & Eslami, Z. R. (2021). A critique of Taiwan's bilingual education policy through a ROAD-MAPPING of teacher experiences. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 1-19.

Gray, J., & Block, D. (2014). All middle class now? Evolving representations of the working class in the neoliberal era: The case of ELT textbooks. *In English language teaching textbooks*, 45-71. Palgrave Macmillan, London.

Gray, J., & Morton, T. (2018). *Social interaction and English language teacher identity.* Edinburgh University Press.

Gregg, G. (2011). Identity in life narratives. *Narrative Inquiry*, 21 (2), 318–328.

Gumperz, J. J. & Hymes, D. (Eds.). *Directions in sociolinguistics: The ethnography of communication*. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Gumperz, J. J. (1982). *Discourse strategies* (No. 1). Cambridge University Press.

Hall, K. & Nilep, C. (2015). Code switching, identity, and globalization. In *Handbook of Discourse Analysis.* Wiley Blackwell.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.

Hamid, O., Nguyen, H. T., Van Nguyen, H. V., & Phan, T. H. (2019). Agency and language-in-education policy in Vietnamese higher education. In *Researching Agency in Language Policy and Planning*, pp. 102-124. Routledge.

Hammersley, M. (2007). The issue of quality in qualitative research. *International Journal of Research & Method in Education*, *30*(3), 287-305.

Harré, R. (2012). Positioning theory: Moral dimensions of social-cultural psychology. In *The Oxford Handbook of Culture and Psychology*. Oxford University Press.

Harré, R., & Slocum, N. (2003). Disputes as complex social events: On the uses of positioning theory. In *The self and others: Positioning individuals and groups in personal, political, and cultural contexts*, 123–136. Westport, CT and London: Praeger.

Harré, R., & van Langenhove, L. (1999). *Positioning theory*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Her, O. S. (2020). Cóng shuāng yǔ guó jiā hé shuāng yǔ jiāo yù fǎn sī tái wān de yǔ yán jià zhí guān [A reflection on bilingual nation and it linguistic ideology in Taiwan]. Tái wān jiāo yù píng lùn yuè kān, *9*(10), 1-7.

Heritage, J. (1984). A change-of-state token and aspects of its sequential placement. In *Structures of Social Action*, pp. 299-345. Cambridge University Press.

Heritage, J. (1997). Conversational analysis and institutional talk: analysing data. In *Qualitative research: theory, method, and practice*. London: Sage.

Higgins, C. (2016). Towards sociolinguistically informed language teacher identities. In *Reflections on language teacher identity research* (pp. 45-50). Routledge.

Holliday, A. (1994). *Appropriate methodology and social context*. Cambridge University Press.

Holliday, A. (2013). “Native speaker” teachers and cultural belief. In *Native-speakerism in Japan: Intergroup dynamics in foreign language education*,17–26. Multilingual Matters.

Holliday, A. (2016). *Doing & writing qualitative research* (3rd ed.). London: Sage.

Hong, Y. S. (2019). Tái wān kè chéng gǎi gé mài luò zhōng jiāo shī zhuān yè fā zhǎn de huí gù yǔ zhǎn wàng [A review of teacher professional development in the context of Taiwanese curriculum reforms]. Jiāo yù xué bào, *47*(1), 49-69.

Hornberger, N. H. (2002). Multilingual language policies and the continua of biliteracy: An ecological approach. *Language policy*, *1*(1), 27-51.

Hornberger, N. H., & Johnson, D. C. (2007). Slicing the onion ethnographically: Layers and spaces in multilingual language education policy and practice. *TESOL Quarterly, 41*(3), 509-532.

Hornberger, N. H., Tapia, A. A., Hanks, D. H., Dueñas, F. K., & Lee, S. (2018). Ethnography of language planning and policy. *Language Teaching*, *51*(2), 152-186.

Hornberger, N.H. (2005). Opening and filling up implementational and ideological spaces in heritage language education. *The Modern Language Journal*, 89, 605–609.

Hsiau, A. (1997). Language ideology in Taiwan: The KMT's language policy, the Tai-yu language movement, and ethnic politics. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *18*(4), 302-315.

Huang, S. H. (2016). Communicative Language Teaching: Practical Difficulties in the Rural EFL Classrooms in Taiwan. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *7*(24), 186-202.

Hult, F. M. (2018). Engaging pre-service English teachers with language policy. *ELT Journal*, *72*(3), 249-259.

Hult, F. M., & Johnson, D. C. (2015). Introduction: The practice of language policy research. In *Research methods in language policy and planning: A practical guide*, 1-5.

Humphries, S. & Gebhard, J. (2012). Observation. In *Researching language teacher cognition and practice: International case studies*, 109-119. Multilingual matters.

Jewitt, C. (2006). *Technology, literacy, learning: A multimodal approach*. Routledge.

Jewitt, C. (2014). *The Routledge handbook of multimodal analysis*, 2nd Ed. Routledge.

Johnson, D. C. (2013). *Language policy.* Palgrave Macmillan, London.

Johnson, E. J. (2012). Arbitrating repression: Language policy and education in Arizona. Language and Education 26(1): 53–76.

Johnson, K. E. & Golombek, P. R. (2016). *Mindful L2 Teacher Education : A Sociocultural Perspective on Cultivating Teachers' Professional Development*. New York: Routledge.

Johnson, K. E. (2006). The sociocultural turn and its challenges for second language teacher education. *TESOL quarterly, 40*(1), 235-257.

Johnson-Hanks, J. (2005). When the future decides: Uncertainty and intentional action in contemporary Cameroon. *Current Anthropology*, 46(3), 363–385.

Jong, H. M. (2017). Jiǔ nián yī guàn kè chéng fā zhǎn de lì shǐ fǎn sī [A historical reflection on Nine-year curriculum guidelines]. Journal of Curriculum Studies September, *12*(2), 1-19.

Kalaja, P., Barcelos, A. M. F., Aro, M., & Ruohotie-Lyhty, M. (2015*). Beliefs, agency and identity in foreign language learning and teaching*. Springer.

Kamwangamalu, N. M. (2010). Multilingualism and codeswitching in education. In N. H. Hornberger & S. L. McKay (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language education*, 116–142. Springer.

Kanno, Y., & Norton, B. (2003). Imagined communities and educational possibilities: Introduction. *Journal of language, identity, and education*, *2*(4), 241-249.

Kaplan, R. B., & Baldauf, R. B. (1997). *Language planning: From practice to theory.* Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Kayi-Aydar, H. (2015). Teacher agency, positioning, and English language learners: Voices of pre-service classroom teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 45, 94–103.

Kayi-Aydar, H. (2019a). Language Teacher Agency: Major Theoretical Considerations, Conceptualizations and Methodological Choices. *In Theorizing and analyzing language teacher agency*, 10-22. Multilingual Matters.

Kayı-Aydar, H. (2019b). *Positioning theory in applied linguistics: Research design and applications*. Springer.

Kayi-Aydar, H., Gao, X. A., Miller, E. R., Varghese, M., & Vitanova, G. (Eds.). (2019). Theorizing and analyzing language teacher agency. Multilingual Matters.

Ke, I. C., & Lin, S. (2017). A translanguaging approach to TESOL in Taiwan. *English Teaching & Learning*, *41*(1), 33-61.

Kirkpatrick, A., & Liddicoat, A. J. (2017). Language education policy and practice in East and Southeast Asia. *Language Teaching*, *50*(2), 155-188.

Kirkpatrick, A., & Liddicoat, A. J. (Eds.). (2019). *The Routledge international handbook of language education policy in Asia*. Routledge.

Kobayashi, P. I. (2020). English in Taiwan. In *The Handbook of Asian Englishes*, 547-567. John Wiley & Sons.

Kramsch, C. (2009). *The multilingual subject*. Oxford.

Kramsch, C. (2014). Teaching foreign languages in an era of globalization: Introduction. *The modern language journal*, *98*(1), 296-311.

Kramsch, C. (Ed.). (2002*). Language acquisition and language socialization: Ecological perspectives.* Bloomsbury Publishing.

Kress, G. & van Leeuwen, T. (2001). *Multimodal discourse: The modes and media of contemporary communication.* London: Edward Arnold.

Kress, G. (2012). Multimodal discourse analysis. In *The Routledge handbook of discourse analysis,* 35-50. Routledge.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994). The postmethod condition:(E) merging strategies for second/foreign language teaching. *TESOL quarterly*, 28(1), 27-48.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). TESOL methods: Changing tracks, challenging trends. *TESOL quarterly, 40*(1), 59-81.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding language teaching: From method to postmethod*. Routledge.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2012). *Language teacher education for a global society: A modular model for knowing, analyzing, recognizing, doing, and seeing*. Routledge.

Lan, P. C. (2020). *Raising Global Families*. Stanford University Press.

Lei, L., & Liu, D. (2019). Research trends in applied linguistics from 2005 to 2016: A bibliometric analysis and its implications. *Applied Linguistics*, *40*(3), 540-561.

Lemke, J. L. (2012). Multimedia and discourse analysis. In *The Routledge handbook of discourse analysis,* 79-89. Routledge.

Leung, C., & Creese, A. (2010). *English as an additional language: Approaches to teaching linguistic minority students*. Sage Publications.

Levinson, B.A.U., & Sutton, M. (2001). Introduction: Policy as/in practice – a sociocultural approach to the study of educational policy. *In Policy as practice: Toward a sociocultural analysis of educational policy*, 1–22. London: Ablex Publishing.

Levitt, H. M. (2015). Interpretation-driven guidelines for designing and evaluating grounded theory research: A constructivist-social justice approach. In *Psychotherapy research*, 455-483. Vienna: Springer.

Lewis, M. (1997). *Implementing the lexical approach: Putting theory into practice.* Hove: Language Teaching Publications.

Li, Wei. (2014). Translanguaging knowledge and identity in complementary classrooms for multilingual minority ethnic children. *Classroom Discourse*, *5*(2), 158-175.

Li, Wei. (2014). Translanguaging knowledge and identity in complementary classrooms for multilingual minority ethnic children. *Classroom Discourse*, *5*(2), 158-175.

Li, Wei. (2018). Translanguaging as a practical theory of language*. Applied Linguistics, 39*, 9–30.

Li, Y. C., Lingard, B., Reyes, V., & Sellar, S. (2021). Performative bilingual policy: an analysis of two Taiwanese White Papers on international education. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 1-16.

Liddicoat, A. J. (2013). *Language-in-education policies: The discursive construction of intercultural relations.* Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Liddicoat, A. J. (2019). Constraints on agency in micro language policy and planning in schools: A case study of curriculum change. In *Agency in Language Policy and Planning*, 149-170. Routledge.

Liddicoat, A. J., & Baldauf, R. B. (2008). *Language planning in local contexts: Agents, contexts and interactions*, 3-17. Multilingual Matters.

Liddicoat, A. J., & Taylor-Leech, K. (2014). Micro language planning for multilingual education: agency in local contexts. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *15*(3), 237-244.

Liddicoat, A. J., & Taylor-Leech, K. (2021). Agency in language planning and policy. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *22*(1-2), 1-18.

Lin, A. (2006). Beyond linguistic purism in language-in-education policy and practice: Exploring bilingual pedagogies in a Hong Kong science classroom. *Language and Education*, *20*(4), 287-305.

Lin, A. (2013). Classroom code-switching: Three decades of research. *Applied Linguistics Review*, *4*(1), 195-218.

Lin, A. M. (2015). Researcher positionality. In *Research methods in language policy and planning: A practical guide*, 21-32. Wiley Blackwell.

Lin, M. H., & Chen, S. H. (2014). A comparison of the internationalization of education in Taiwan and Japan: the perspective of elementary school principals*. International Education Studies, 7*(2), 47-59.

Lindgren, S. (2018). The concept of 'data' in digital research. In *The Sage handbook of qualitative data collection*, 441-450. Sage.

Liu, S. (2017). Perceptions on the purposes of and concerns about collaborative lesson study in the professional development of Taiwanese secondary school teachers. *Contemporary Educational Research Quarterly, 23*(1).

Livingstone, S. (2018). What will the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) mean for children's privacy and rights? Retrived from http://blogs.lse.ac.uk/parenting4digitalfuture/2018/05/25/what-will-the-gdpr-mean-for-childrens-privacy-and-rights/

Llinares, A., Morton, T., & Whittaker, R. (2012). *The roles of language in CLIL*. Cambridge University Press.

Lo, W. Y. W., & Hou, A. Y. C. (2020). A farewell to internationalisation? Striking a balance between global ambition and local needs in higher education in Taiwan. *Higher Education, 80*(3), 497-510.

Lo, Y. Y. (2015). How much L1 is too much? Teachers' language use in response to students' abilities and classroom interaction in Content and Language Integrated Learning. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *18*(3), 270-288.

Long, M. H. (1984). Process and product in ESL program evaluation. *TESOl Quarterly, 18*(3), 409-425.

Lyle, E. (2016). The role of counter-narratives in the recognition of identity: A curricular perspective*. Journal of the Canadian Association for Curriculum Studies,* 14(2), 33–42.

Macaro, E. (2021). The L2-only versus the multilingual debate. In *Debates in Second Language Education*, 201-221. Routledge.

Macaro, E., Barnard, R., & McLellan, J. (2014). Overview: Where should we be going with classroom codeswitching research. *Codeswitching in university English-medium classes: Asian perspectives*, 10-23.

Macaro, E., Tian, L., & Chu, L. (2020). First and second language use in English medium instruction contexts. *Language Teaching Research*, *24*(3), 382-402.

Maley, A., & Bolitho, R. (2015). Creativity. *ELT journal*, *69*(4), 434-436.

Mann, S. (2016). *The research interview: Reflective practice and reflexivity in research processes.* Springer.

Mann, S. and Walsh, S. (2013). RP or 'RIP': a critical perspective on reflective practice. *Applied Linguistics Review, 4*(2), 291–315.

Mann, S., & Walsh, S. (2017). *Reflective practice in English language teaching: Research-based principles and practices*. Routledge.

Marcus, G. E. (1995). Ethnography in/of the world system: The emergence of multi-sited ethnography. *Annual review of anthropology*, *24*(1), 95-117.

Markee, N. (2015). Introduction: Classroom discourse and interaction research. In *The handbook of classroom discourse and interaction*, 1-19. John Wiley & Sons.

Martin-Jones, M. (1995). Code-switching in the classroom: Two decades of research. In *One speaker, two languages: Cross-disciplinary perspectives on code-switching*, 90-111. Cambridge University Press.

May, S. (Ed.). (2014). *The multilingual turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL, and bilingual education*. Routledge.

McCarty, T. L. (2015). Ethnography in language planning and policy research. *Research methods in language policy and planning: A practical guide*, 81-93.

Mercer, N. (1995). *The guided construction of knowledge*. Clevedon: Multilingual matters.

Miller, E. R. (2016) The ideology of learner agency and the neoliberal self. International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 26(3), 348–65.

Moate, J., & Ruohotie-Lyhty, M. (2020). Identity and Agency Development in a CLIL-based Teacher Education Program. *Journal for the Psychology of Language Learning*, *2*(2).

Mohanty, A. Panda, M., and Pal, R. (2010). Language policy in education and classroom practices in India: Is the teacher a cog in the policy wheel? In *Negotiating Language Policies in Schools: Educators as Policymakers*, 225-245. New York: Routledge.

Molina, S. C. (2017). English language teaching in China: Teacher agency in response to curricular innovations. In *Teacher agency and policy response in English language teaching*, 19-37. Routledge.

Murray, D. E., & Christison, M. A. (2019). *What English language teachers need to know. Volume 1. Understanding learning.* Routledge.

Myers-Scotton, C. (1993). *Social Motivations for Code-switching: Evidence from Africa*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

National Development Council. (2018). *Blueprint for developing Taiwan into a bilingual nation by 2030*. Retrieved from https://www.ndc.gov.tw/Content_List.aspx?n=A3CE11B3737BA9EB

Ng, P. C., & Boucher-Yip, E. F. (Eds.). (2016). *Teacher agency and policy response in English language teaching*. Routledge.

Nguyen, T. H. (2016). *English-medium instruction in higher education: A case study on local agency in a Vietnamese university* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia.

Nguyen, V. H. (2016). *Global language policy borrowing and individual agency in Vietnamese higher education* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia.

Nhung, N. T. H. (2019). *Teachers' identity construction: A case study of Vietnamese teachers in communicative English classrooms.* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). The University of Warwick, Coventry, UK.

Norton, B. (2001). *Identity and language learning: Gender, ethnicity and educational change*. Essex: Pearson

Norton, B. (2013). *Identity and language learning: Extending the conversation.* Multilingual matters.

Norton, B. (2017). Learner investment and language teacher identity. In *Reflections on language teacher identity research*, *1*, 80-86.

Norton, B., & Toohey, K. (2011). Identity, language learning, and social change. *Language teaching*, *44*(4), 412-446.

Oladejo, J. (2006). Parents' attitudes towards bilingual education policy in Taiwan. *Bilingual Research Journal*, *30*(1), 147--170.

Pantić, N. (2015). A model for study of teacher agency for social justice. *Teachers and Teaching*, *21*(6), 759-778.

Patton, M. Q. (2015). Qualitative evaluation and research methods (4th Ed.). Sage.

Pavlenko, A., & Norton, B. (2007). Imagined communities, identity, and English language learning. In *International handbook of English language teaching*, 669-680. Springer, Boston, MA.

Phan, T. T. H. (2018). *Enacting learner autonomy policy in English language teaching: A case study in Vietnamese higher education* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia.

Priestley, M., Biesta, G., & Robinson, S. (2015). *Teacher agency: An ecological approach*. London and New York: Bloomsbury.

Qian, X., Tian, G., & Wang, Q. (2009). Codeswitching in the primary EFL classroom in China–Two case studies. *System, 37*(4), 719-730.

Rajendram, S. (2021). Translanguaging as an agentive pedagogy for multilingual learners: affordances and constraints. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 1-28.

Rampton, B. (2007). Neo-Hymesian linguistic ethnography in the United Kingdom. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, *11*(5), 584-607.

Reeves, J. (2009). Teacher investment in learner identity. *Teaching and teacher education*, 25(1), 34-41.

Reinders, H., & Lazaro, N. (2011). Beliefs, identity and motivation in implementing autonomy: The teachers' perspective. In *Identity, motivation, and autonomy in language learning*, 125-142. Multilingual Matters.

Riazi, M. (2016). *The Routledge encyclopaedia of research methods in applied linguistics*. Routledge.

Ricento, T. K., & Hornberger, N. H. (1996). Unpeeling the onion: Language planning and policy and the ELT professional. *TESOL Quarterly*, *30*(3), 401-427.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge university press.

Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative inquiry in TESOL*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Rogers, R. (2010). Internet research: The question of method: A keynote address from the YouTube and the 2008 election cycle in the United States conference. *Journal of Information Technology & Politics*, 7, 241–260.

Ruohotie-Lyhty, M. & Moate, J. (2014). Proactive and reactive dimensions of life-course agency: Mapping student teachers' language learning experiences. *Language and Education*, *29* (1), 46–61.

Ruohotie-Lyhty, M. (2015). Dependent or independent: The construction of the beliefs of newly qualified foreign language teachers. In *Beliefs, agency and identity in foreign language learning and teaching*, 149-171. Palgrave Macmillan, London.

Ruohotie-Lyhty, M. and Moate, J. (2016) Who and how? Preservice teachers as active agents developing professional identities*. Teaching and Teacher Education*, 55, 318–327.

Rymes, B. (2016). *Classroom discourse analysis: A tool for critical reflection*. Routledge.

Sahan, K., & Rose, H. (2021). Translanguaging or code-switching? Re-examining the functions of language in EMI classrooms. In *Multilingual perspectives from Europe and beyond on language policy and practice*, 45-62. Routledge.

Sahan, K., Rose, H., & Macaro, E. (2021). Models of EMI pedagogies: At the interface of language use and interaction. *System*,*102616*, 1-13.

Saldaña, J. (2013). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. Sage.

Schegloff, E. A. (1997). Whose text? Whose context?. *Discourse & society*, *8*(2), 165-187.

Schreier, M. (2018). Sampling and generalization. In *The Sage handbook of qualitative data collection*, 99-117. Sage.

Schulze, J., Ittner, A., & Marquez, E. (2019). Translanguaging in the multilingual classroom: From theory to practice. *WAESOL Educator*, 38-40.

Seedhouse, P. (2004). *The interactional architecture of the language classroom: A conversation analysis perspective*. Blackwell.

Seedhouse, P., & Almutairi, S. (2009). A holistic approach to task-based interaction. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *19*(3), 311-338.

Sert, O. (2015). *Social interaction and L2 classroom discourse*. Edinburgh University Press.

Sert, O. (2019). Classroom interaction and language teacher education. In *The Routledge handbook of English language teacher education*, 216-238.

Sert, O., & Walsh, S. (2013). The interactional management of claims of insufficient knowledge in English language classrooms. *Language and Education*, *27*(6), 542-565.

Shohamy, E. (2004). The power of tests over teachers: The power of teachers over tests. In *Second language teacher education: International perspectives*, 101-111. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum

Shu, Y. M. (2016). Teacher education policy and policy direction in Taiwan. In *Teacher education in Taiwan: State control vs marketization,* 42-66. Routledge.

Snell, J., Shaw, S., & Copland, F. (Eds.). (2015). *Linguistic ethnography: Interdisciplinary explorations*. Springer.

Solomon, A. (2012). *Far from the tree: Parents, children and the search for identity*. Simon and Schuster.

Spencer, L., Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., & Dillon, L. (2003*). Quality in qualitative evaluation: a framework for assessing research evidence*. London: The Cabinet Office.

Spolsky, B. (2004). *Language policy*. Cambridge University Press.

Spolsky, B. (2012). What is language policy? In *The Cambridge handbook of language policy,* 3-15. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Spradley, J. (1979). *The ethnographic interview.* Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publications.

Staker, E., Kaneria, A. J., Clark, J. S., & Kasun, G. S. (2019). 'What If You Don't Have Boots', let alone bootstraps? An ELL teacher's use of narrative to achieve and generate agency in the face of contextual constraints. In *Theorizing and analyzing language teacher agency*, 44-62. Multilingual Matters.

Stranger–Johannessen, E., & Norton, B. (2017). The African storybook and language teacher identity in digital times. *The Modern Language Journal, 101*(S1), 45-60.

Sullivan, P. & McCarthy, J. (2004). Toward a dialogical perspective on agency. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, 34, 291–309.

Tai, K. W. (2021). Researching translanguaging in EMI classrooms. In *Research Methods in English Medium Instruction*, 119-132. Routledge.

Tainan City Government. (2017). Office of English as the second official language. Retrieved from https://oeasol.tainan.gov.tw/

Taiwan MOE. (2000). Temporary general guidelines of the nine-year curriculum in 2000. Retrieved from http://teach.eje.edu.tw/9CC2/9cc_90.php.

Taiwan MOE. (2011). *A White Paper on International Education for Primary and Secondary Schools: Cultivating International Talents for the 21st Century.* Retrieved from https://www.hhs.tyc.edu.tw/cchs/images/news/20160506201945.pdf

Taiwan MOE. (2014). *12-Year Basic Education Curriculum Guidelines.* Retrieved from 十二年國民基本教育課程綱要總綱(英譯版) (moe.edu.tw)

Taiwan MOE. (2018a). *Domain-Specific Curriculum: English Language*. Retrieved from 十二年國民基本教育課程綱要國民中小學暨普通型高級中等學校語文領域-英語文 (moe.edu.tw)

Taiwan MOE. (2018b). *MOE Proposal for Bilingual Nation Policy*. Retrieved from 全面啟動教育體系的雙語活化、培養臺灣走向世界的雙語人才 (www.edu.tw)

Taiwan MOE. (2020). *International Education for Primary and Secondary School 2.0.* Retrieved from https://ws.moe.edu.tw/Download.ashx?u=C099358C81D4876C725695F2070B467E8B81ED614D7AF43EF55FFFF8E382F49230FBFEBE3FBA67410E3D088235FCEFF8A33CA54BD67D7DFD957229DE7F658AFACA347539D32BA23B9A142AA2B7545659&n=260CF99641E8382A1BED23C70A14D4360FFA25EF159D1B19F966E1C98FBC313ADE66237F87CDF55C2003096F7477E0E7D121FDBA1A06975D&icon=..pdf

Talmy, S. (2011). Qualitative interviews in applied linguistics: From research instrument to social practice. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *30*, 128-148.

Talmy, S., & Richards, K. (2011). Theorizing qualitative research interviews in applied linguistics. *Applied Linguistics*, *32*(1), 1-5.

ten Have, P. (2007). *Doing conversation analysis*. Sage.

Tollefson, J. W. (1991). *Planning language, planning inequality*. Longman.

Tollefson, J. W. (Ed.). (2002). *Language policies in education: Critical issues*. Psychology Press.

Toohey, K., & Norton, B. (2003). Learner autonomy as agency in sociocultural settings. In *Learner autonomy across cultures*, 58-72. Palgrave Macmillan, London.

Trent, J., & Shroff, R. H. (2013). Technology, identity, and community: The role of electronic teaching portfolios in becoming a teacher. *Technology, Pedagogy and Education*, *22*(1), 3-20.

Tsui, A. B. M. (2021). Preface. In *English Language Teaching and Teacher Education in East Asia: Global Challenges and Local Responses*. Cambridge University Press.

Turner, M. (2017). Integrating content and language in institutionally monolingual settings: Teacher positioning and differentiation. *Bilingual Research Journal*, *40*(1), 70-80.

Tusting, K., & Maybin, J. (2007). Linguistic ethnography and interdisciplinarity: Opening the discussion. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, *11*(5), 575-583.

Twining, P., Heller, R. S., Nussbaum, M., & Tsai, C. C. (2017). Some guidance on conducting and reporting qualitative studies. *Computers & Education*, 106, 1-9.

Underhill, A. (2014). Training for the unpredictable. *The European Journal of Applied Linguistics and TEFL*, *3*(2), 59-70.

Ushioda, E. (2009). A Person-in-context relational view of emergent motivation, self and identity. In *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*, 215-228. Multilingual Matters.

Ushioda, E. (2011). Why autonomy? Insights from motivation theory and research. *Innovation in language learning and teaching*, 5(2), 221-232.

Ushioda, E. (2020). *Language learning motivation*. Oxford University Press.

Üstünel, E. (2016). *EFL classroom code-switching*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Üstünel, E., & Seedhouse, P. (2005). Why that, in that language, right now? Code-switching and pedagogical focus. *International journal of applied linguistics*, *15*(3), 302-325.

van Dijck, J. (2013). *The culture of connectivity: A critical history of social media*. Oxford University Press.

van Lier, L. (2000). From input to affordance: social-interactive learning from an ecological perspective. In *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

van Lier, L. (2004). *The ecology and semiotics of language learning: A sociocultural perspective* (Vol. 3). Springer Science & Business Media.

van Lier, L. (2010). Foreword: Agency, self and identity in language learning. In *Language learner autonomy: Policy, curriculum, classroom*, ix-xviii.

Varghese, M. M., Motha, S., Park, G., Reeves, J., & Trent, J. (2016). Language teacher identity in multilingual settings (Special Issue). *TESOL Quarterly*, *50*(3), 545–571.

Varghese, M., Morgan, B., Johnston, B., & Johnson, K. A. (2005). Theorizing language teacher identity: Three perspectives and beyond. *Journal of language, Identity, and Education*, *4*(1), 21-44.

Vásquez, C. (2011). TESOL, teacher identity, and the need for "small story" research. *TESOL Quarterly*, *45*(3), 535-545.

Vega, H., Irgens, G. A., & Bailey, C. (2021). Negotiating Tensions: A Study of Pre-service English as Foreign Language Teachers' Sense of Identity Within Their Community of Practice. In *International Conference on Quantitative Ethnography*, 277-291.

Vitanova, G. (2005). Authoring the self in a non-native language: A dialogic approach to agency and subjectivity. In *Dialogue with Bakhtin on second and foreign language learning: New perspectives*, 149–169. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Walsh, S. (2006). *Investigating classroom discourse*. Routledge.

Walsh, S., & Li, L. (2016). Classroom talk, interaction and collaboration. In *Routledge Handbook of English Language Teaching*, 486-498. Routledge.

Walsh, S., & Mann, S. (Eds.). (2019). *The Routledge handbook of English language teacher education*. New York: Routledge.

Wa-Mbaleka, S. (2019). The researcher as an instrument. In *World Conference on Qualitative Research*, 33-41. Springer.

Wang, C.P. (2016). Introduction: the formation of two approaches to teacher education. In *Teacher education in Taiwan: State control vs marketization,* 1-14. Routledge.

Waring, H. Z. (2016). *Theorizing pedagogical interaction: Insights from conversation analysis*. Routledge.

Waring, H. Z. (2018). *Discourse analysis: The questions discourse analysts ask and how they answer them*. Routledge.

Wenger, E. (1999). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity*. Cambridge university press.

Wiley, T. G., & García, O. (2016). Language policy and planning in language education: Legacies, consequences, and possibilities. *The Modern Language Journal*, *100*(1), 48-63.

Wright, T. (2010). Second language teacher education: Review of recent research on practice. *Language teaching*, *43*(3), 259-296.

Wu, L. Y., & Lau, K. (2019). Language education policy in Taiwan. In *The Routledge international handbook of language education policy in Asia*, 151-161. Routledge.

Yang, S. K. (2016). Ideologies and theories influencing the development of teacher education in Taiwan. In *Teacher education in Taiwan: State control vs marketization,* 67-86. Routledge.

Yazan, B. (2018). Being and becoming an ESOL teacher through coursework and internship: Three teacher candidates' identity negotiation. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, *15*(3), 205-227.

Yeh, H. N., & Chern, C. L. (2021). Preparing English Teachers in the Twenty-First Century: The Case of Taiwan. In *English Language Teaching and Teacher Education in East Asia: Global Challenges and Local Responses*, 175-193.

Zainil, Y., & Arsyad, S. (2021). Teachers' Perception of Their Code-Switching Practices in English as a Foreign Language Classes: The Results of Stimulated Recall Interview and Conversation Analysis. *SAGE Open*, *11*(2), 21582440211013802.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Ethical approval form

Centre for Applied Linguistics
Application for Ethical Approval
MPhil/PhD Students

A <u>Information</u>

Name of student:	**I-Chen Hsieh**
Date of registration:	**Sep 2017**
Project title:	**Digital Pedagogy for Language Teaching and Learning: A Qualitative Study into the Interactional Patterns in Technology-Mediated Classes**
Supervisor:	**Dr. Steve Mann and Dr. Ema Ushioda**
CRB Clearance:	

B <u>Texts</u>

If your research does not include any textual data, please confirm this below and go to Section C

If all or some of your texts are not in the public domain, please explain what steps you have taken to obtain relevant permission for their collection and use. Please also complete any relevant parts of Sections C and D.

If some or all of your texts are in the public domain, give details of this and explain what steps you have taken to obtain any relevant permissions. When these permission have been obtained, please pass a copy to the Research Secretary to be added to your file. (You may not need to complete Sections C and D.)

1. Some of my research data will be obtained from the public documents provided by the Taiwanese Ministry of Education. These documents of national curriculum are all available on the governmental website (https://www.edu.tw/). No further permission is needed.

2. Some of my research data will be obtained from
   a) Students' written output shown on the digital devices
   b) Teachers' written feedback on students' output

In this case, students and teachers will be provided with a 'Participation Consent Form' (Appendix 1 & 2) and an 'Information Sheet' (Appendix 3 & 4). The two documents will specify the objectives of the research, the possible consequences, the right to withdraw at any time, and matters of confidentiality and data security. (See further details in Sections C and D).

C Participants

Details

Please describe the participants in the research including ages of children and young people where appropriate. Also specify if any participants are vulnerable e.g. as a result of learning disability.

My research participants can be divided into two main categories.

1. Adult participants
   English language teachers, with teaching experience ranging from 5 years to 20 years.
2. Minor participants
   English language learners in high schools, aged from 15 to 18 years old.

Respect for participants' rights and dignity

How will the fundamental rights and dignity of participants be respected, e.g. confidentiality, respect of cultural and religious values?

My study will follow the guidelines 'Research Code of Practice' set out by the University of Warwick, and the 'British Association for Applied Linguistics Recommendations on Good Practice' (2016).

Considering that 'Children may be in a relatively powerless position vis à vis researchers and other adults' (BAAL, 2016), particular care will be placed on minor participants to ensure that they do not experience inappropriate discomfort, pressure or anxiety during the process of data collection. As indicated in the information sheet, they have the right to withdraw at any time.

Furthermore, for children under 16, consent will be also obtained from their parents or other adults responsible for their wellbeing.

Privacy and Confidentiality

How will confidentiality be assured? Please address all aspects of research including protection of data records, thesis, reports/papers that might arise from the study.

In line with the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR), which comes into force on 25 May 2018, in the information sheet, I will explicitly state what will happen to participants' data, including how data will be used at each stage, who will have access, how it will be managed, if it will be shared, and when it will be destroyed. (See Appendix 3 for further details)

D <u>Consent</u>

Will prior informed consent be obtained?
— from participants YES
— from others YES

Explain how this will be obtained. Provide details of the relevant procedures and any issues associated with them.

At the moment, the access of the classroom observation and interview has already been verbally granted by the classroom teachers, whom I know well personally.

Before entering the classrooms, the informed consent and information sheet will be administered to teachers and students taking part in my pilot study and three main study sites. At the same time, I will visit the school principal/coordinators to report my research objectives and data protection procedures.

If verbal rather than written consent is to be obtained, give reasons for this.

N/A

If prior informed consent is not to be obtained, give reasons for this. If the research involves observation where consent will not be obtained, specify situations to be observed and how cultural/religious sensitivities and individual privacy will be respected.

N/A

Will participants be explicitly informed of the student's role/status? If not, give reasons for this.

Yes

Will deception be used? If so, provide a clear justification for this and details of the method of debriefing.

No

Will participants be informed of the use to which data will be put?

Yes

Will participants be told they have the option to withdraw from the

study without penalty?

Yes

Attach a copy of all consent forms to be used in the study.

See Appendix 1, 2, 3, and 4.

E Security and protection

Data storage

Where will data be stored and what measures will be taken to ensure security?

All recorded data will be kept on encrypted drives, to which only the researcher will have access.

For how long after the completion will the data be stored? (All data must be kept at least until the examination process is complete.)

Completion of this study + 6 years (10 years).

F Protection

Describe the nature and degree of any risk (psychological as well as physical) to participants and the steps that will be taken to deal with this.

None.

Identify any potential risks to the researcher and the procedures that will be in place for dealing with these.

None.

How will participants' well-being be considered in the study?

This is a classroom-based research. I will adopt an open, non-participant, and non-intrusive observation to investigate how language learning is mediated through teacher's talk and technology. To minimise the impact classroom observers bring, I will consider carefully the position the camera is placed, the place I sit in the classroom, and the way my fieldnotes are taken.

How will you ensure that your research and its reporting are honest, fair and respectful to others?

Considering my main data collection tools are observation and interview, I will ensure the honesty, fairness and respect to others by means of

a) Producing and using a transcription

Mann (2016) provides a balanced view of the affordances and constraints of the transcription process. When transcribing the spoken data, I will pay extra attention to the interactional contexts and transcription features. The transcription will allow the readers to assess the validity, reliability and transparency of my research.

b) Offering member checking
The transcription of interview and observation will be provided to my research participants. Mero-Jaffe (2011:244) argues that sharing data with participants could be a form of showing researchers' respect for their participants, considering 'the balance of power between the interviewer and interviewee'.

c) Keeping the fieldnotes and researcher diary in a reflexive way
To counterbalance my own bias and presupposition, fieldnotes and researcher diary will be taken concurrently, iteratively, and reflexively.

How will you ensure that the research and the evidence resulting from it are not misused?

In line with the RCUK Policy and Guidelines (2015), I will ensure the collected data, evidence and research results will not be misused and misinterpreted. The process of data collection, analysis, and interpretation will be reported in enough detail in Methodology Chapter so that my fellow researchers could understand and evaluate my research findings.

G Ethical dilemmas

How will you address any ethical dilemmas that may arise in your research? Please give details of the protocol agreed with your supervisor for reporting and action.

Ethical dilemmas arising during my fieldwork will be solved through my research reflexivity in consultation with my supervisor and relevant literature, and I will also make reflective notes about the ethical dilemmas in my research diary.

H Authorship

Have you and your supervisor discussed and agreed the basis for determining authorship of published work other than your thesis? Give brief details of this.
I will either be sole author or first author of any publications arising.

I Other issues

Please specify other issues not discussed above, if any, and how you will address them.

None.

J Signatures

Research student **Date 18.06.2018**

I-Chen Hsieh

Supervisor **Date 18.06.18**

[redacted]

K Action

Action taken

☒ **Approved**

☐ **Approved with modification or conditions – see Notes below**

☐ **Action deferred – see Notes below**

☐ **[Where applicable] CRB clearance reported to HSSREC**

Name J Angermuller **Date 19/06/2018**

Signature

[redacted]

Notes of Action

Date of Approval by Graduate Progress Committee

Appendix 2: Participation consent form (English version)

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM
June 2018

Title of Project: Digital pedagogy for language teaching and learning: a qualitative study into the interactional patterns in technology-mediated classes.

Name of researcher: I-Chen Hsieh

Please initial box

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the information provided for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily. ☐

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, without my *medical*, *social care*, *education*, or *legal rights* being affected. ☐

3. I agree to be interviewed, observed and video-recorded and I understand that all recorded data will be kept on encrypted storage drives. ☐

4. I understand that my data will be securely stored for a minimum of 10 years, in line with the University of Warwick's Research Data Management Policy. ☐

____________________	____________	____________________
Name of Participant	Date	Signature
Name of Researcher taking consent	Date	Signature

Appendix 3: Participation consent form (Chinese version)

研究參與者同意書

2018 年 6 月

研究計畫: 科技融入英語教學—台灣英語教師使用數位工具進行課堂互動之質性研究

研究者姓名: 謝宜臻

請勾選

1. 我確認我已閱讀並理解上述研究提供的訊息。我已思考過這些訊息，提出問題並得到令我滿意的回答。 ☐

2. 我明白我的參與是自願的。我可隨時自由退出此研究。我的健康、安全、教育等各項合法權利均不會受到影響。 ☐

3. 我同意接受採訪，觀察和錄影，並且我知道所有記錄的數據都將保存在加密的儲存硬碟上。 ☐

4. 根據華威大學的研究數據管理政策，我明白我的數據將被安全存儲至少 10 年。 ☐

參與者姓名	日期	簽名
研究者姓名	日期	簽名

Appendix 4: Participant information sheet (English version)

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET
June 2018

Title of Project: Digital pedagogy for language teaching and learning: a qualitative study into the interactional patterns in technology-mediated classes.

Name of researcher: I-Chen Hsieh

Introduction

You are invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide, you need to understand why the research is being done and what it would involve for you. Please take the time to read the following information carefully. Talk to others about the study if you wish.

(Part 1 tells you the purpose of the study and what will happen to you if you take part. Part 2 gives you more detailed information about the conduct of the study)

Please ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

PART 1

What is the study about?

The purpose of the study is to explore language learning and interaction among teachers and students in the classroom where technology is used for English learning.

Do I have to take part?

It is entirely up to you to decide. We will describe the study and go through this information sheet, which we will give you to keep. If you choose to participate, we will ask you to sign a consent form to confirm that you have agreed to take part. You will be free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason and this will not affect you or your circumstances in any way.

What will happen to me if I take part?

If you choose to take part in this study, you will be observed and video-recorded in the classroom. And there is also follow-up interview after the classroom observation. The interview questions are mainly about your perceptions of the use of technology in English language classrooms. Participation will take place in the English classes for around one month. As part of participation you will be asked to provide written texts produced in the class because this will facilitate the researcher's understanding of the English classroom interaction. All the spoken and written data will be video-recorded. The recording will only be done under your consent of participation.

What are the possible disadvantages, side effects, risks, and/or discomforts of taking part in this study?

There is no risk or harm when you participate in this study. The only possible discomfort you may experience is that you may not get used to give/take the classes with the camera recording the entire process. In this case, the place the camera is put and the place the researcher sits will be carefully chosen so that you do not feel disrupted by the presence of the camera and the researcher.

What are the possible benefits of taking part in this study?

Your taking part in this study will benefit the English teacher trainers, researchers and policymakers to better understand the advantage and disadvantage of using technology in English classes.

Will my taking part be kept confidential?

Yes. We will follow strict ethical and legal practice and all information about you will be handled in confidence. Further details are included in Part 2.

What if there is a problem?

Any complaint about the way you have been dealt with during the study or any possible harm that you might suffer will be addressed. Detailed information is given in Part 2.

This concludes Part 1.
If the information in Part 1 has interested you and you are considering participation, please read the additional information in Part 2 before making any decision.

PART 2

Who is organising and funding the study?
This study is being funded by the Taiwanese Ministry of Education.

What will happen if I don't want to carry on being part of the study?
Participation in this study is entirely voluntary. Refusal to participate will not affect you in any way. If you decide to take part in the study, you will need to sign a consent form, which states that you have given your consent to participate.

If you agree to participate, you may nevertheless withdraw from the study at any time without affecting you in any way.

You have the right to withdraw from the study completely and decline any further contact by study staff after you withdraw.

Who should I contact if I wish to make a complaint?

Any complaint about the way you have been dealt with during the study or any possible harm you might have suffered will be addressed. Please address your complaint to the person below, who is a senior University of Warwick official entirely independent of this study:

Head of Research Governance
Research & Impact Services
University House
University of Warwick
Coventry
CV4 8UW
Email: researchgovernance@warwick.ac.uk
Tel: 024 76 522746

Data handling and confidentiality

Your data will be processed in accordance with the General Data Protection Regulation 2018 (GDPR).

Your personal data will be anonymised. Anonymisation means that identifying information is permanently removed and individuals can no longer be identified. In this study, the name and location of your institution, the name of the teachers and students, and any other personal data will be anonymised.

Anonymised data will be added to an accessible data repository and openly shared in the researcher's PhD thesis, conference presentations and international journals. Non-anonymised data will be stored in an online encrypted drive that only the researcher can access. Your recorded data will be kept for ten years and then be deleted from the encrypted drive.

If your personal data will be shared with any third parties, this will only be done with your explicit consent. Your data continues to be held in compliance with UK data protection standards (GDPR).

Data Protection Statement

The data controller for this project will be the University of Warwick. The University will process your personal data for the purpose of the research outlined above. The legal basis for processing your personal data for research purposes under GDPR is a 'task in the public interest'. You can provide your consent for the use of your personal data in this study by completing the consent form that has been provided to you.

You have the right to access information held about you. Your right of access can be exercised in accordance with the General Data Protection Regulation. You also have other rights including rights of correction, erasure, objection, and data portability.

What if I change my mind about taking part?
You are free withdrawing at any point of the study, without having to give a reason. Withdrawing from the study will not affect you in any way. You are able to withdraw your data from the study up until **2019/05/31**, after which withdrawal of your data will no longer be possible due to that the data will have been anonymised and committed to the final report. If you choose to withdraw from the study we will not retain the information you have given thus far.

What will happen to the results of the study?
After the study is completed, you will receive a copy of the research findings. It is intended that the research findings will be submitted to international journals relevant to English language teaching, and the research results will be presented at various international conferences.

Who has reviewed the study?
This study has been reviewed and given a favourable opinion by the University of Warwick's Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC)

What if I want more information about the study?
If you have any questions about any aspect of the study, or your participation in it, not answered by this participant information sheet, please contact:
Researcher: I-Chen Hsieh (I-C.Hsieh@warwick.ac.uk)
Supervisor: Dr. Steve Mann (Steve.Mann@warwick.ac.uk)

Thank you for taking the time to read this Participant Information Sheet.

Appendix 5: Participant information sheet (Chinese version)

研究參與者說明書

2018 年 6 月

研究計畫: 科技融入英語教學—台灣英語教師使用數位工具進行課堂互動之質性研究

研究者姓名: 謝宜臻

前言

誠摯邀請您參與此一研究項目。在您決定之前，您需要明白此研究的目的以及其細節。請花時間仔細閱讀以下信息。若有任何不清楚的內容，或者需要更多資訊，歡迎與研究者討論，花些時間來決定您是否願意參加。

第一部分

這份研究是關於什麼？

此研究的目的是探索英語學習中，教師和學生之間的語言學習和互動。

我必須參加嗎？

這完全取決於您自己決定。在這份說明書中，我們會描述這項研究的目的、過程、隱私處理。如果您選擇參加，我們會請您簽署同意書以確認您已同意參加此研究。您隨時可以自由退出，無需說明理由。

如果我參加，會發生什麼事情？

研究者將會進入您的教室觀課並錄影，整個過程大約會持續一個月之久。課堂觀察後還有後續採訪，採訪問題主要是關於您對英語課堂中科技使用的看法。研究者會請您提供課堂上編寫的教材，作為研究資料的一部分。您的參與將有助於研究人員對英語課堂互動有更進一步的理解。在您的參與同意下，我們會將所有的口頭和書面資料以電子檔方式儲存。

參加這項研究有哪些可能的缺點，風險或不適？

參加本研究完全沒有風險或傷害。您可能遇到的唯一不適，是您可能不習慣有攝影機錄製整個過程。在這種情況下，攝影機放置的位置和研究人員所處的位置將會被仔細選擇，以免因相機和研究人員的存在，而干擾到您上課的情形。

參加這項研究有什麼好處？

您參加本研究將有助於英語師資培訓者，研究人員和教育政策決策者更充分地了解，英語課程中使用科技融入教學的優勢和劣勢。

我的參與會保密嗎？

是。我們將遵循嚴格的道德和法律規範，所有關於您的資訊將得到保密處理。更多細節將在第二部分中呈現。

如果有問題怎麼辦？

在此期間，您若有任何問題或不滿，我們都會盡力處理與配合。詳細的處理方式在第二部分會有進一步的說明。

第一部分結束。如果您對第一部分中的資訊有興趣並且考慮參與，請在作出任何決定之前閱讀第二部分中的其他資訊。

第二部分

誰資助這項研究？

這項研究計畫由台灣教育部留學獎學金資助。

如果我不想繼續參與研究，會發生什麼？

參與這項研究完全是自願的，拒絕參與不會以任何方式影響您。如果您決定參加這項研究，您需要簽署一份同意書，表明您已經同意參加。如果您同意參加，您可以隨時退出此研究。您有權完全退出研究，並在您退出後拒絕研究人員進一步聯繫。

如果我想提出投訴，我應該聯繫誰？

若您在研究期間遭受到任何的傷害或不平等的對待，請向以下人員投訴，英國華威大學資深行政人員:

單位名稱: 學術倫理既相關事務部門 (Research & Impact Services)
地址: University House, University of Warwick, Coventry, CV4 8UW, UK
電子郵件: researchgovernance@warwick.ac.uk
電話: + 44 024 76 522746

個資處理和機密性

您的個資將根據“2018 年歐盟通用資料保護規則”（GDPR）進行處理。

您的個人資料將被匿名。資料匿名意指，能夠識別出您的個人資料的各種訊息會被永久刪除，您在此研究中所留下的個資將無法再被其他第三方識別。在這項研究中，您學校的名稱和位置，教師和學生的姓名，以及任何其他個人數據將被匿名。

匿名數據將被儲存於公開學術資料庫，並在研究人員的博士論文，研討會議和國際期刊中公開分享。非匿名數據將存儲在只有研究人員可以提取的線上加密硬碟中。您的數據將被保存十年，然後從加密中刪除。

如果您的個人數據將與任何第三方共享，則只有在您明確同意的情況下才能完成。您的數據將繼續按照 2018 年歐盟通用資料保護規則（GDPR）進行處理。

個資保護聲明

為了進行上述研究，英國華威大學將處理您的個人數據。在 GDPR 的法律規範下，您的個人數據被用於“公共利益的任務”。您可以填寫已提供給您的同意書，以表明您同意在本研究中使用您的個人資料。對於您的個資，您還擁有其他權利，包括更正，刪除，異議和數據移植的權利。

如果我改變主意，該怎麼辦？

您可以在研究的任何時候自由退出，無需說明理由，退出研究不會以任何方式影響你。您可以在 2019 年 5 月 31 日以前，將您的個資從研究中取回。此後您的個資將無法被取回，因為所有的個資都已匿名化處理，無法再做辨識。

研究結果會如何處理？

研究完成後，您將收到本研究結果的副本。預計研究結果將會發表於英語教學相關的國際期刊，並將在國際會議上發表研究成果。

誰審查了這項研究？

本研究已經通過英國華威大學人文社會科學研究倫理委員會（HSSREC）的審查與通過。

如果我想了解更多有關該研究的信息，該怎麼辦?

如果您對本研究的任何方面有任何疑問，請直接聯繫：

研究員：I-Chen Hsieh（I-C.Hsieh@warwick.ac.uk）

指導教授：Steve Mann 博士（Steve.Mann@warwick.ac.uk）

非常感謝您花時間閱讀此研究參與者訊息書

Appendix 6: Participation consent form (updated version)

研究參與者同意書

2020 年 2 月

研究計畫: 政策定位與教學實踐—台灣英語教師身分識別與主體能動性之語言人類學研究

研究者姓名: 謝宜臻

請勾選

1. 我確認我已閱讀並理解上述研究提供的訊息。我已思考過這些訊息，提出問題並得到令我滿意的回答。 ☐

2. 我明白我的參與是自願的。我可隨時自由退出此研究。我的健康、安全、教育等各項合法權利均不會受到影響。 ☐

3. 我同意接受採訪，觀察和錄影，並且我知道所有記錄的數據都將保存在加密的儲存硬碟上。 ☐

4. 根據華威大學的研究數據管理政策，我明白我的數據將被安全存儲至少 10 年。 ☐

參與者姓名	日期	簽名
研究者姓名	日期	簽名

Appendix 7: Participant information sheet (updated version)

研究參與者說明書

2020 年 2 月

研究計畫: 政策定位與教學實踐—台灣英語教師身分識別與主體能動性之語言人類學研究

研究者姓名: 謝宜臻

前言

誠摯邀請您參與此一研究項目。在您決定之前，您需要明白此研究的目的以及其細節。請花時間仔細閱讀以下信息。若有任何不清楚的內容，或者需要更多資訊，歡迎與研究者討論，花些時間來決定您是否願意參加。

第一部分

這份研究是關於什麼？

此研究的目的是在 108 課綱與雙語國家政策的脈絡下，探討台灣英語教師身分識別與主體能動性。

我必須參加嗎？

這完全取決於您自己決定。在這份說明書中，我們會描述這項研究的目的、過程、隱私處理。如果您選擇參加，我們會請您簽署同意書以確認您已同意參加此研究。您隨時可以自由退出，無需說明理由。

如果我參加，會發生什麼事情？

研究者將會進入您的教室觀課並錄影，整個過程大約會持續一個月之久。課堂觀察後還有後續採訪，採訪問題主要是關於您對英語課堂中科技使用的看法。研究者會請您提供課堂上編寫的教材，以及在教師專業社群裡的分享資料，作為研究資料的一部分。您的參與將有助於研究人員對台灣英語老師的身分識別與主體能動性有更進一步的了解。在您的參與同意下，我們會將所有的口頭和書面資料以電子檔方式儲存。

參加這項研究有哪些可能的缺點，風險或不適？

參加本研究完全沒有風險或傷害。您可能遇到的唯一不適，是您可能不習慣有攝影機錄製整個過程。在這種情況下，攝影機放置的位置和研究人員所處的位置將會被仔細選擇，以免因相機和研究人員的存在，而干擾到您上課的情形。

參加這項研究有什麼好處？

您參加本研究將有助於英語師資培訓者、研究人員和教育政策決策者更充分地了解台灣英語老師的身分識別與主體能動性。

我的參與會保密嗎？

是。我們將遵循嚴格的道德和法律規範，所有關於您的資訊將得到保密處理。更多細節將在第二部分中呈現。

如果有問題怎麼辦？

在此期間，您若有任何問題或不滿，我們都會盡力處理與配合。詳細的處理方式在第二部分會有進一步的說明。

第一部分結束。如果您對第一部分中的資訊有興趣並且考慮參與，請在作出任何決定之前閱讀第二部分中的其他資訊。

第二部分

誰資助這項研究？

這項研究計畫由台灣教育部留學獎學金資助。

如果我不想繼續參與研究，會發生什麼？

參與這項研究完全是自願的，拒絕參與不會以任何方式影響您。如果您決定參加這項研究，您需要簽署一份同意書，表明您已經同意參加。如果您同意參加，您可以隨時退出此研究。您有權完全退出研究，並在您退出後拒絕研究人員進一步聯繫。

如果我想提出投訴，我應該聯繫誰？

若您在研究期間遭受到任何的傷害或不平等的對待，請向以下人員投訴，英國華威大學資深行政人員:

單位名稱: 學術倫理既相關事務部門 (Research & Impact Services)
地址: University House, University of Warwick, Coventry, CV4 8UW, UK
電子郵件: researchgovernance@warwick.ac.uk
電話: + 44 024 76 522746

個資處理和機密性

您的個資將根據“2018 年歐盟通用資料保護規則”（GDPR）進行處理。

您的個人資料將被匿名。資料匿名意指，能夠識別出您的個人資料的各種訊息會被永久刪除，您在此研究中所留下的個資將無法再被其他第三方識別。在這項研究中，您學校的名稱和位置，教師和學生的姓名，以及任何其他個人數據將被匿名。

匿名數據將被儲存於公開學術資料庫，並在研究人員的博士論文，研討會議和國際期刊中公開分享。非匿名數據將存儲在只有研究人員可以提取的線上加密硬碟中。您的數據將被保存十年，然後從加密硬碟中刪除。如果您的個人數據將與任何第三方共享，則只有在您明確同意的情況下才能完成。您的數據將繼續按照 2018 年歐盟通用資料保護規則（GDPR）進行處理。

個資保護聲明

為了進行上述研究，英國華威大學將處理您的個人數據。在 GDPR 的法律規範下，您的個人數據被用於“公共利益的任務”。您可以填寫已提供給您的同意書，以表明您同意在本研究中使用您的個人資料。對於您的個資，您還擁有其他權利，包括更正，刪除，異議和數據移植的權利。

如果我改變主意，該怎麼辦？

您可以在研究的任何時候自由退出，無需說明理由，退出研究不會以任何方式影響你。您可以在 2021 年 5 月 31 日以前，將您的個資從研究中取回。此後您的個資將無法被取回，因為所有的個資都已匿名化處理，無法再做辨識。

研究結果會如何處理？

研究完成後，您將收到本研究結果的副本。預計研究結果將會發表於英語教學相關的國際期刊，並將在國際會議上發表研究成果。

誰審查了這項研究？

本研究已經通過英國華威大學人文社會科學研究倫理委員會（HSSREC）的審查與通過。

如果我想了解更多有關該研究的信息，該怎麼辦?

如果您對本研究的任何方面有任何疑問，請直接聯繫：

研究員：I-Chen Hsieh（I-C.Hsieh@warwick.ac.uk）
指導教授：Steve Mann 博士（Steve.Mann@warwick.ac.uk）

非常感謝您花時間閱讀此研究參與者訊息書

Appendix 8: Example of category generation (code-switching into Chinese)

Category	Function	Example
Curriculum assess	Check understanding	好所以聽得**懂我講什麼嗎**? 聽得**懂嗎**? 一點點? 好沒關係. 就聽. 所以他其實當初被霸凌. 因為他的鼻孔紅紅的. OK, do you understand me? understand? a little bit? OK no problem. just listen. So he was bullied cos of his red nose. but because of his nose.
	Pronunciation correction	不同的那個**喔**. 不同的發音**喔**. different. different pronunciation.
	Grammar acquisition	這個的話. 其實是一個比較. 因為其實他們現在在口語上面比較會講的是. It is time for someone to do something 那所以**呢**. 如果**你後面一定要用個子句的**話**呢**. 第一個它比較正式. 第二個的話. **你比較有一個**強烈. 更強烈一點的口氣. 要不然的話. **你**說 it is time for her to go there 就好**啦**. **你也不用一定要講**說. it is time that she…然後還要用過去式. actually. this type of sentence pattern is…in the form of spoken language. it is preferred to use 'It is time for someone to do something'. so if you prefer the form 'It is time that someone did something…'. for one. it is more formal. For another. it is more emphatic in tone. otherwise you can just say 'It is time for her to go there'. when you say 'It is time that she…'. you have to use past tense in that clause.
	Elicit responses	同學**你們知道這怎麼操作嗎**? 就是它是一個手環. **每**當**你睡著的時候**. your heart beat will slow down. yeah. will slow down. it will give some electric shock. then you will wake up. 就是給**你電擊**. 因為發現**你的心跳變慢的時候**. 它就把**你電擊醒過來**. you know how the invention functions? it is a bracelet when you fall asleep. because it can detect your slow

		hear beat. it will give you electric shock. so you will be awaken.
Classroom management	Disciplinary management	安靜. ((shh)) be quiet. ((Shh))
	Digital operation	下課前完成. 注意**你們的時間**. 請先檢查 photo gallery. 有沒有這一張.沒有的我等一下 會 Airdrop 給**你**. 好. 等一下我們會用這三張來讀第九課的課文.所以第九課是關於書籍. finish the task before the end of the class. pay attention to the time. please check if there is this image in the photo gallery. if not I can send it to you later via Airdrop. ok so make sure you have this image. we'll use the three images to read Lesson 9. It's about books.
	Dispel students' doubt	同學我們要來做一下配字幕的工作. 配字幕很簡單**啊**. 我絕對不會叫你做困難的事情啊. we are gonna make a caption for the video presentation. it's very easy to generate captions. there's no rocket science involved in my class.
Interpersonal relations	Co-membership	我自己都不想那樣打字了. 我幹嘛叫**你們** 這樣打**啊**. I don't want to type word by word either. so I would not impose on you what I myself don't desire.
	Personal experiences	它說. 當**你對人家表達感謝的時候**. 當**你對別人表達**感激. 它說 it's the most effective. ok? 對**啊**. 所以我常講說. 什麼教師節**卡片啊**. 什麼有的沒的. 都不用那個**啦**. 因為我們教書教那麼多年. 看到那種全班寫一張大**卡片**. 然後**每個人都非得寫不可**. 我都覺得算了算了. anyway. 當然也不是說. 同學都不真誠. 而是我覺得這種東西不要強迫. 因為強迫就不真誠了. the sentence means when you show your genuine gratitude. it's the most effective. ok? that's why I always tell students it's not worth bothering with Teacher's Day card. cos for many years. I've seen that

		some students write Teacher's Day card because they are forced to. I don't mind whether receiving your card or not. anyway I'm not saying that students are not genuine. I just think it's not genuine because it is done out of pressure.
	Build rapport	講得很好**喔**. **你可以走很慢**. 但沒關係. **你**絕對不能夠往回走. 不能退**步嘛**. **你要持續進步**. 即便**你走很慢**. 所以**你現在英文學不好**. 沒關係. 但**你還是要努力**. 對**吧**? **你總有一天會達到目標的**. this is well said. you can walk slowly. it's ok. but you can never walk back. you need to keep going though you walk slowly. like your English is not good now. but it's ok. you still need to work hard and you'll be there someday in the future. right?