

**Chinese and British Teachers' Emotional
Reactions Towards Students' Classroom
Behaviours**

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Abstract

The primary objective of this research is to investigate whether Chinese instructors who work in the UK experience different emotions in comparison with British instructors when facing students' disruptive behaviour. With the increase of the globalization, larger numbers of teachers are teaching abroad (Weber, 2007). Working as international teachers, this group of teachers' built-in beliefs and cultural values may be challenged by the new cultural context in which they work (Hofstede, 1986; Volet & Ang, 1998). Moreover, according to appraisal theory, when judging an antecedent to an emotion, a person's cultural beliefs and goals are drawn on (Lazarus, 1991; Frijda, 1986); as such, it can be assumed that, compared with local teachers, international teachers may experience different or more intense emotions due to their different beliefs and goals when they both confront the same students' behaviours (Sutton & Wheatley 2003). In order to examine this assumption, three phases of studies (a questionnaire survey with video scenarios, a diary study and interviews) were designed. The questionnaire survey with video scenarios of classroom misbehavior contained 47 Chinese and 52 British instructors/teachers as participants and discovered that teachers from China experienced a significantly higher level of anxiety and shame than British teachers. Interestingly, there is a trend showing that British instructors perceived students' misbehaviours were more troublesome than Chinese instructors, however, when they watched the video clips their emotional reactions to those behaviours in the classroom are less intensive than that of Chinese instructors in general. Finally, according to results from interview study, *the depth of tolerance, accountability and teacher's self-efficacy* could be factors that result in these differences discovered between British and Chinese instructors.

Key words: International instructors/teachers • Student misbehavior • Emotional experience • Appraisal theory

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Declaration

I declare that this thesis is a presentation of original work and I am the sole author. This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, University. All sources are acknowledged as References.

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Rationale

Since being a teacher involves doing massive emotional labour in maintaining the sound relationship with students (Hargreaves 2000; Chang 2009), teachers' emotions/emotional experiences are dramatically capturing the attention of researchers. In current educational psychologists' opinions (e.g. Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch & Barber, 2010; Schutz, Aultman, & Williams-Johnson, 2009), there are two important reasons leading to doing studies on the relation of teachers' emotions and students' classroom behaviours. On one hand, teachers' emotional well-being and job dissatisfaction are directly influenced by their emotional exhaustion, while the emotional exhaustion, as Friedman (2006) argues, originates from teachers' daily coping with students' classroom misbehaviours. As such it is pivotal to examine why and how students' misbehaviours can impair teachers' emotions in order to keep teachers from burnout. On the other hand, as Frenzel, Goetz, Lüdtke, Pekrun, and Sutton (2009) suggest, teachers' emotions can guide teaching behaviours, which are central to their interactions with students, as well as student learning. Their studies indicate that teachers' emotional enjoyment and students' engagement are mutually beneficial. Which means if a sound emotional relationship is built between the teacher and students, both the teacher's emotional well-being and students learning can be improved (Meyer 2009, Hargreaves, 2000). Therefore, for both teachers' and students' benefits, research on teachers' classroom emotional experience is widely called for.

After recognising the vital reasons of investigating teachers' emotions in educational context, one essential step of doing research on teachers' emotions, which emotion researchers should be aware of is understanding how teachers' emotions can be triggered. According to Frenzel, Goetz, Stephens, and Jacob (2009), a teacher can experience an

emotion when judging to what extent the perceived students' performance meet his/her teaching goals. That is to say, through appraising encounters (e.g. students' behaviours) in their teaching environment, teachers can have either positive emotions (when goal is congruent) or negative emotions (when goal is incongruent) and these emotions, in turn, result in students' reactions in the classroom (Frenzel et al., 2009). This means teachers' appraisals of students behaviours play a key role in their emotional experience (Hargreaves, 2000; Sutton & Wheatley 2003).

Furthermore, as mentioned above, comprehensive studies of emotional relationship between teachers and students are in high demand, and they are least developed in cross-cultural contexts (Denzin, 2009; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Chang, 2009; Meyer, 2009). According to Weber (2007), with the increase of globalization, larger numbers of teachers are teaching abroad, which means this group of teachers (e.g. Chinese teachers who teach in UK) are confronting a more culturally diverse teaching context. Moreover, as Schutz, Crowder, and White (2001) state, individuals' goals, values and beliefs are socially constructed and culturally influenced: as such the international teachers' original cultural norms and values may be different from that of their students and local teachers. As appraisal theorists (Kemper & Lazarus, 1992) argue, an emotion is triggered by appraising antecedents according to one's own goals or beliefs; therefore, it can be suggested that in comparison with domestic teachers, international teachers may generate different emotions when they judge similar students' disruptive behaviours. However, few studies have been found examining this issue of teachers' emotional experience. The international teacher's emotional well-being and job satisfaction have been overlooked in mainstream emotion studies in the long term. Thus, in order to help this group of teachers teach in the culturally diverse context successfully and prevent them from burnout, there

is a clear need for educational psychologists to conduct empirical research on these teachers' emotional experience.

1.2 Background

Teacher emotion

In teachers' daily interactions with students in the classroom, their emotions change at all times (Hargreaves, 2000). For example, at one time, an teacher may be happy if he sees a student very engaged in the classroom; however, this feeling can all of sudden turn to anger if he notices another two students start to fight in the class. This scenario demonstrates that teachers may frequently experience a highly varied range of emotions in their teaching context (Schutz, Cross, Hong & Osbon, 2007). Therefore, as Chang (2009) argues, teaching depletes a great deal of emotional labour from teachers. That is to say, in order to teach well, the teacher has to pay massive emotional energy in his/her class and gradually he may become emotionally exhausted (Tsouloupas et al., 2010) and this can be an alarm for the teacher's burnout and his/her early retirement (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001).

Although, based on the discussion above, teachers' emotions are significant in guiding their teaching, studies on teachers' emotions were not popular until the late 1990s (Sutton & Wheatley 2003). Integrated empirical research is still scarce in terms of discussing the relationship between teachers' discrete emotional experience and their burnout, let alone in cross-cultural contexts. Thus, for preventing the drain of teaching profession and gaining a wider view of teachers' emotions, larger amount of research is urgently needed in the field of understanding teachers' (especially international teachers') emotional experience.

Student behaviours

According to Tsouloupas et al., (2010), student incivility makes a significant contribution to teachers' burnout. These incivilities refer to students' disruptive behaviours (also named as misbehaviours) in a learning environment and in this thesis, the terms 'disruptive behaviour' and 'misbehaviour' are used interchangeably. As a study done by Ingersoll (2001) reported, thirty percent of the four hundred teachers who left the teaching profession identified students' misbehaviours as the main cause of their dropping out. Students' problematic behaviours in the classroom can affect teachers' instructional process and emotions directly (Gu Lai & Ye, 2011). As Clark (2008) suggests, when students make a demeaning offense related to the teacher's respect, negative emotions (e.g. anger, fear or hostility) can be elicited by the teacher him/herself.

Furthermore, according to the study conducted by Alberts, Hazen and Theobald (2010), international teachers reported being faced with more hostile students' behaviours than other groups (e.g. white-male teachers). The possible reason for this result is that teachers from vulnerable groups, may have different power dynamics when compared with native-born teachers; perhaps evidence of deep-rooted systemic problems such as racism and sexism (Alberts et al., 2010). This may suggest that, if their visas depend on their employment, these teachers may become more sensitive to students' misbehaviours which can challenge their working opportunity. Therefore, they feel more targeted by students.

Culture and emotion

Culture "is something that is shared within social groups" (Hwang & Matsumoto, 2013, p.22). People sharing the same cultural meanings show a readiness to understand what is happening and to respond accordingly, even if they do not know what is guiding their responses (Lazarus, 1991). This statement may exactly describe the role of culture in psychological studies.

According to Hofstede (2003), there are five dimensions or values of culture. They are individualism versus collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity versus femininity and long- versus short-term orientation. As some researchers (e.g. Hofstede & Bond, 1984) have mentioned, these values are universal across cultures. Based on this point of view, some psychologists (e.g. Mesquita, Frijda & Scherer, 1997) have argued that cultural differences may barely impact on a person's emotions. However, other emotion researchers (e.g. Kitayama, Markus, & Kurokawa, 2000) disagree with this idea by saying that although good feelings may be the same for everyone, how and when they are experienced may differ from culture to culture. This happens because, even when accepting that the cultural dimensions are ubiquitous, different cultures accord values different priorities (Markus & Kitayama 1994b). Specifically, if two teachers have different cultural value system, when they judge students' misbehaviours against these values, most likely, different emotional experiences will be generated by each. This emoting process can be illustrated by the appraisal theory which will be discussed in the next section.

Appraisal theory

As many researchers (e.g. Lazarus 1991; Mesquita Frijda & Scherer, 1997; Schutz & Decuir 2002) agree, the emotion process contains judgments, which means teachers' appraisal of encounters influences their emotional experience (Schutz, Aultman & William-Johnson 2009). Thus, the role of appraisal theory in this study should be evaluated. According to Roseman and Smith (2001), appraisal can be regarded as a perception of the effectiveness of goals' achievement. As such the primary level of appraisal relates to goal relevance, goal congruence and ego-involvement (Lazarus 1991). To be more precise, goal relevance describes to what extent an external factor is important to personal goals. Then, goal congruence predicts people's positive or negative

emotions by judging if what happening is coherent to people's goals. Finally, the ego-involvement shows how much of one's self is involved in the judgment (Schutz, Aultman & William-Johnson 2009; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Based on these features, appraisal theory illustrates the reason why individually different emotion can be generated when people face the same encounter, which is the core concept of understanding cultural influences in teachers' emotional experiences (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003).

The Gap

The preceding section outlined the background to the present study. The remainder of this chapter will highlight several research gaps and present the rationale for this work.

On one side, the importance of studying teacher emotion has been recognized by educational psychologists in the recent two decades (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003) and it is not difficult to find research (e.g. Smylie 1999; Näring, Vlerick & Van de Ven., 2012) which examines the link between teachers' emotional exhaustions and teachers' burnout. However, according to the findings in a review study conducted by Chang (2009), most of the recent emotional research talks about emotional exhaustion on a general level, and little work has been done to discover the relationship between teachers' discrete emotions and their teaching or burnout. As Lazarus (1991) and Chang and Davis (2009) argue, experiencing specific types of concrete emotions long-term can lead to forming a habitual appraisal pattern. In other words, if a teacher repeatedly experiences some negative emotions, he may build a tendency to judge future students' behaviours in a negative way and this is the beginning of the emotional exhaustion (Chang, 2009). Thus, for improving teachers' emotional well-being effectively, it is pivotal for researchers to conduct sophisticated studies into the root of burnout. In order to fulfil this aim, the process of how an emotion is elicited needs to be looked at. At this stage, the dominant trigger of teachers' unpleasant emotions (student misbehaviours), should be the first factor

examined. The present research aims to bridge the disconnect between instructors' daily experiences of particular emotions and the drain of teaching profession.

On the other side, according to the appraisal theory, when teachers appraise students' misbehaviours, they make the judgment based on their inherent goals and beliefs, and as Schutz et al., (2001) propose, one's built-in goals and beliefs are culturally formed. Then, it can be supposed that when an international teacher (e.g. Chinese teacher) judges an antecedent, his/her original cultural beliefs and goals can be challenged by the new teaching context. As such he may experience different or more intense emotions in comparison with domestic teachers. However, few studies have been conducted to enable us to unpack what concrete emotional experiences this group of teachers has experienced. Are they happy with their culturally different students? Are they satisfied with the new teaching context? All these questions become the focus points of the present research.

Thus, the aim of this study is to investigate the relationships between students' misbehaviours, teacher emotions, and teachers' built-in cultural values in order to try to establish the mutual influence happening within these three components. The results of this study contribute to completing the map which future educational psychologists can draw on to find thorough ideas of or solutions for teachers' emotional issues in cross-cultural contexts.

1.3 Research questions

Based on the discussion above, the hypothesis is proposed for the present research that Chinese teachers who work in the UK may report higher intensity of negative emotions than local British teachers when they confront student misbehaviours. According to this hypothesis, the following research questions are composed.

Main question:

Do British teachers and Chinese teachers experience different emotions when they encounter the same students' behaviours?

Sub-questions:

- *If the answer of the main question is yes, then to what extent do they differ?*
 - *How and why do these two groups of teachers' emotional experiences differ?*
- *If the answer is no, then why there is no difference?*
- *What factors relate to the differences/similarities between British teachers' and Chinese teachers' emotional experience?*

1.4 Structure of the rest of the thesis

Chapter Two: Literature review

This chapter contains the main review of background literature of the research and it is discussed in three parts. In the first part, literature on the relationship between students' behaviour and teachers' emotions are examined. It is developed through the following steps. Firstly, it examines the significance of the concept of emotion in this research. Secondly, it addresses the importance of emotion, particularly teachers' emotion, in education by reviewing factors (e.g. student misbehaviours) which can influence teachers' emotional experience. Thirdly, the role of culture in emotion is the core topic in the third part of the literature review. The definition of cultural in psychological domain and cultural dimensions compose the first section of this part. It is followed by the second section where the cultural influence in appraisal theory is depicted, and the final section is going to propose hypotheses for this study. The last part of the literature review is about reviews on methodology and identification of the gap.

Chapter Three: Methodology

In this chapter, an overview of the research design is presented. In brief, Chinese and British university teachers, both of whom teach in the UK, are recruited as sample in this research. The sample size is 99 participants in total. Following this, the procedure of the research is described. It consists of three main field studies: 1) An electronic survey is used to measure teachers' general perceptions on students' misbehaviours and their immediate emotional reactions to 5 behavioural scenarios; 2) Semi-structured interviews are employed to establish the reasons why and how those emotions are elicited; 3) A diary study is conducted to examine teachers' emotional experience longitudinally in order to establish trends in emotional response. The data analysis is outlined in the last part of the methodology.

Chapter Four: Study one—Questionnaire survey

This chapter focuses on reporting the questionnaire study. It provides details of the sample, instruments (e.g. incivility scale and video clips scenarios-based questionnaire), procedure, results, and discussion sections. Results of this study are analysed and interpreted. They are presented according to the sequence of research questions, and the extent to which these results answer the questions are discussed. Representative data are highlighted, and extreme data are deleted but some of them are mentioned in discussion section.

Chapter Five: Study two—Diary study

In this chapter, the sample, the methodology (self-report diary forms), the procedure, and the results of the diary study element are presented alongside a discussion.

Chapter Six: Study three—Interview study

The details of interview study are illustrated in this chapter using the same structure: the sample, the methodology (semi-structured interviews), the procedure, and the results. A discussion, particularly of the qualitative results, is presented.

Chapter Seven: Discussions and Applications

This chapter provides a discussion of the findings as a whole. The implications of the present study are also examined, before limitations of this research and suggestions for future studies are summarized at the end of the discussion. This chapter also re-addresses the aim of the present study and highlights the important findings and shows a map for future studies.

Chapter Eight: Conclusion

This chapter highlights key findings and implications of the research. It reflects how the present research offers a unique contribution to the field.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 About emotion

2.1.1 Definition of emotion

Although there are a host of views on the definition of emotion, Zemach (2001) points out that they can be divided into two streams. One group (e.g. Kenny, 1963; De Sousa, 1990) standing with Spinoza contends that emotion is an attitude which involves judgment and one's belief deliberately. However, the other group (e.g. Davidson, 1976) which advocates Hume's view perceives emotion as a non-intentional feeling. They assert that the emotion only contains a phenomenal quality and nothing else (Zemach 2001). While many studies (e.g. Friedman & Farber 1992; Maslach *et al.*, 2001; Schult, Aultman, and

William-Johnson, 2009) have revealed that the emoting process is influenced by individual value, goal and belief, it is not surprising to see the latter group's view "is currently out of favour" (Zemach 2001, p.197).

Another debate made on the definition of emotion is whether emotion should be defined from the outside or inside. More precisely, some researchers (e.g. Darwin, 1872/1998; Öhman, 1986; Cacioppo, Berntson, Larsen, Poehlmann & Ito, 2000) perceive emotions as biological responses to events happening in the environment, which means they can be observed through expressions and behaviours or measured by testing physiological activities (e.g. heart beat and blood pressure) (Niedenthal, Krauth-Gruber & Ric, 2006). For example, when anger or fear is felt, the portion of the adrenal glands in a body would go up and this may result in physical reactions (e.g. fight) to deal with emergent situations (Lazarus 1991). As such emotions are also known as action tendencies (Arnold, 1960). However, this definition cannot effectively describe some emotions (e.g. sadness or hopelessness) which, to some extent, are non-active and do not have obvious relational expressions (Lazarus, 1991). As a result, some other researchers (e.g. Johnson-Laird, Oatley, 1989; Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1990) suggested studying emotion as inner mental state. As Frijda (1986) and Lazarus (1991) point out, emotion is a cognitive process which involves a range of evaluations on antecedents happening in the environment. An emotion is elicited when an individual makes judgment of an event according to his/her own needs, goals and beliefs (Scherer 1988). Thus, emotion can be conceived as psychological experience when it is approached from the inside (Lazarus, 1991). A group of researchers (e.g. Campos, Barrett, 1984; Frijda, 1986) finally proposed that these two, external and internal, definitions of emotion should be paralleled, which means emotions are not "single 'things'" (Niedenthal et al., 2006, p.6) but a combination of different processes (Niedenthal et al., 2006). Therefore, a widely accepted definition of

emotion sounds like emotions are “episodic, relatively short-term, biologically-based patterns of perception, experience, physiology, action, and communication that occurs in response to specific physical and social challenges and opportunities” (Keltner & Gross, 1999, p.468).

However, since the present research approaches emotion from the inside by investigating teachers’ subjective emotional experience and perceived antecedents of those emotions, emotion will be mainly regarded as a series of cognitive processes in this review.

2.1.2 Components

As discussed in previous section, many researchers (e.g. Lazarus, 1991; Frijda, 1986; Mesquita Frijda & Scherer, 1997) start to agree that emotions are composed of separate processes and the emoting process involves complicated transactions between these subsystems (Lazarus, 1991; Planalp, 1999). Therefore, in order to understand the concept of emotion thoroughly, it is necessary to have a discussion of these component processes. Moreover, as Mesquita et al., (1997) stated, every component may have independent variations in different cultures, as such when discussing explicit cultural influences on emotions, each of the components also need to be examined carefully.

As proposed by Mesquita et al., (1997), the following subsystems usually compose emotions: “a) antecedent event, b) subjective experience, c) appraisal, d) physiological change, e) change in action readiness, f) behavior, g) change in cognitive functioning and belief and h) regulatory processes” (p.260). Since these aspects of emotion processes are differentially activated they surely have independence from each other, which means one’s change does not necessarily trigger another’s function; although, as discussed above, one’s strong passion in action readiness may active his/her physiological change, these components can also be influential to each other (Mesquita et

al., 1997). Based on this point of view, Shweder (1993) argues that, for discovering difference in people's emotional functions, the first thing to do is to know how particularly the question should be asked. Because, if the emotion is just being examined as a whole, it is very difficult to specify what differences lie in people's emotional life and it is easier to be biased by social perspectives (e.g. cultural stereotypes) (Shweder, 1993; Mesquita et al., 1997). Therefore, in order to make the difference make sense it is pivotal to investigate these emotional components individually.

Since the present research focuses on the aspect of teachers' emotions, a short version of emotional components is summarised by drawing on the work of Sutton and Wheatley (2006). They related five typical factors to studies of teachers' emotions. Three of these components: antecedents (student classroom behaviour), appraisal and subjective experience (teachers' emotional experiences) are emphasised, as they are key elements being studied in the present research.

2.1.2.1 Antecedent

According to Frijda (1986), events and thoughts that can elicit emotions are regarded as antecedents. However, the same event may trigger different emotions from time to time, which means there are many other factors affecting the generation of discrete emotions as well. Factors, such as settings in which this event happens, one's adaptation level, and his/her expectation at the time, can always make a difference in creating an emotion (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991). Thus, the key feature of this component that needs to be understood is it is not exactly what happened out there triggers people's emotion, but what has been perceived by this person's mind activates emotions (Mesquita et al., 1997).

Theoretical background

There are three main theories describing emotional stimuli. Firstly, the specific-stimulus theory indicates that some emotions can be elicited by particular stimuli. For example, threat can trigger fear and offense can induce anger (Watson, 1913; Frijda, 1986). This theory may explain some emotional behaviours of lower intelligent animals, however, it is not quite effective in interpreting human emotions that intricate with high level of cognitive activities (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991). As Gray (1971) points out a person's fear can be provoked by many factors including the loss of support, darkness, unfamiliar surroundings and the latent loss of valued things. Therefore, the specific-stimulus theory is weak in depicting antecedents of emotion to a larger extent. Secondly, based on sensory experience, some researchers (Young, 1977) note that the light or moderate stimuli usually cause pleasant feelings (e.g. a soft touch or light sweetness makes people feel comfortable) and those strong or intense ones can trigger unpleasant feelings. For example, a punch can make a person angry or scared (Young, 1977; Borg, 1998). This viewpoint is named as intensity theories (Tomkins, 1966; Young, 1977). However, the degree of the stimuli's intensity, sometimes, is too ambiguous to define (Frijda, 1986). As such, it is implausible to tell which difference in the stimulus intensity designates an emotion (Hebb, 1946; Leuba, 1955; Berlyne, 1960). Thirdly, a positive emotion can occur if a stimulus meets one's expectation or rewards one's motive, while a negative emotion can turn up if this stimulus fails to satisfy a person's desire or mismatches with his/her goals (Brown & Farber, 1951; Lazarus, 1991). This statement reflects the so-called match-mismatch theory, which infers emotion as a production of the interaction between stimuli and people's dispositional entities (e.g. beliefs, goals, expectations and values) (Scherer, 1988; Raïevsky & Michaud, 2009). The following

section will discuss different types of antecedents and explore further the interactional relationship between situational and dispositional antecedents.

Situational and dispositional antecedents

As is widely noted in the literature, an emotion usually is not elicited by a single antecedent (Frijda, 1986; Mesquita et al., 1997; Niedenthal et al., 2006). Especially, when the emotion becomes more specific, more factors are involved in designating it (Smith & Pope, 1992). For instance, a person may not feel fear if he sees a crime on the news but things become different if he realises he is the target of the criminal in real life. That is to say, what is happening in front of a person's eyes is not the only factor that causes an emotion. This person's own judgement of the situation also works as a designator (Lazarus, 1991; Scherer, 1993; Frijda, 1986). As such, the stimuli that take place in the environment are regarded as situational antecedents and a person's own perceptions or judgements are seen as dispositional antecedents of emotions (Diefendorff, Croyle & Gosserand, 2005; Smith & Pope, 1992).

As discussed in Frijda's (1986) book, there are several types of situational antecedents. Events that can trigger positive emotions are perceived as positive stimuli. These events usually satisfy one's anticipation or make the person achieve greater success (Lazarus, 1991, Pekrun, 2006). In addition, to what extent this person can have positive feelings depends on how unexpected the event is, how controllable it is under his/her ability, and how beneficial it is for him to achieve his/her goal (Scherer, 1988; Pekrun, Frenzel, Goetz, & Perry, 2011; Schutz, Aultman, & Williams-Johnson, 2009). That is to say, if the event fails to meet this person's goal or coping competence, the same event can also become a negative antecedent which is defined by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) as a situation, which is perceived in that person's own eyes, surpasses his/her control or puts him in danger, and then makes him feel negatively (Schutz et al., 2009; Roseman, 1996).

Another three types of situational antecedents mentioned in Frijda's book are "Stimuli for automatic arousal" (p.286), "Activating stimuli" (p.289) and "The elicitation of moods" (p.289). The first one results in automatic arousal which is not necessarily an emotion (Frijda, 1986). These stimuli usually are sudden disruptions in ongoing events and cause a person's immediate reaction. For example, if a player is interrupted with no warning during a game, his/her reaction does not need to be emotional. It can be his/her attention for readjustment. The last two stimuli are lack of systematic study and hard to define, since their cognitive connections with specific emotions are ambiguous (Castrén, 2005). For example, beautiful sunshine and vivid music can activate one's positive feelings, and illness can put this person in negative mood, even though they are not directly related to this person's internal goals of the day (Castrén, 2005; Frijda, 1986). This causality may be explained from the physiological and pharmacological view which is, however, not relevant to the present research. In modern psychological studies (Gagnon & Peretz, 2003; Niedenthal & Setterlund 1994; Schwarz & Clore 1983; Philippot, 1993), stimuli like scented substances, the sound, pictures, word scenarios and recalled memories all have been used as situational antecedents to elicit research participants' emotions (Niedenthal, et al; 2006).

When it comes to dispositional antecedents, *concern* becomes the key disposition that is involved in the generation of an emotion (Frijda, 1986; Frijda, 2007). More precisely, when a person encounters a situation, he assesses this situation according to a built-in criterion and this criterion can be called *concern* (Klinger, 1975). It works as a goal that guides the person to pursue or to avoid the certain circumstance and decides if a positive or negative emotion is going to be felt (Bagozzi & Pieters, 1998; Pekrun et al, 2011). As discussed in the previous part, a given event does not necessarily invoke emotions. It happens only when the situation arouses a latent concern/goal of the body,

and after the concern is wakened, a series of complex cognitive processes will be going on to produce an emotion (Frijda, 1986; Bagozzi & Pieters, 1998). This cognitive process is perceived as *appraisal* and the interaction between situational and dispositional antecedents consists of the fundamental knowledge to understand appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991; Smith & Pope, 1992; Roseman & Smith, 2001; Scherer, 1993). However, researchers in modern times, for instance Roseman (1996) and Karasawa (1995), still like to study cognitive causes and phenomenological reasons of emotions in a separate way. Studies like this may easily overlook the importance or function of each kind of antecedent in the generation of emotions. Therefore, for gaining a better understanding of emotions, studies which examine the effects of both situational and dispositional antecedents in triggering emotions are in high demand (Frijda, 1986; Goetz, Frenzel, Stoeger, Hall, 2010; Uphill & Jones, 2007)

2.1.2.2 Appraisal theory

Definition of appraisal

As appraisal theorists (e.g. Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Scherer, 1984; Moors Ellsworth, Scherer & Frijda, 2013) note, emotions are generated and discerned through a person's subjective judgement of events or objects against several criteria and these criteria are defined by this person's concern (Frijda, 2007; Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991; Scherer, 1999). This process of judgements can be seen as appraisal (Moors et al., 2013; Scherer, 2001). As different people may have different needs, values, beliefs and current goals which all can be perceived as one's concern, one of the core inspirations of the appraisal theory is that different people may generate different feelings when they face the same event due to their different priority in concerns (Scherer, 2001; Moors et al., 2013; Niedenthal et al., 2006). In addition, under the influence of dispositional antecedents,

one's appraisals can also determine the intensity of his/her emotional experiences (Moors et al., 2013; Scherer, 2001).

There is a debate among appraisal theorists about whether appraisals should be seen as antecedents or components of emotions (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Pekrun, 2006). Several theorists (Roseman, 1991; Smith & Lazarus, 1993) consider that appraisals should be perceived as antecedents of emotions in light of their studies in which appraisals were controlled to measure emotional reactions. However, other appraisal theorists (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Kappas, 1991) argue that appraisal is a part of the emotion producing process. As the emoting process is automatic and unconscious, the cognition procedure can hardly be separated from the emotion (Bargh, 2013; Scherer, 2007). For example, when a person is robbed, his/her sudden feeling is fear or anger rather than a series of clear judgements of the situation. Finally, Roseman and Smith (2001) propose that appraisals can be antecedents, components or consequences of emotions. It depends on the objective of a study. If the research focuses on examining cognition process, appraisals can be studied as causes of emotion; and if the target of the research is emotion, then, appraisals should be perceived as components (Ellsworth & Scherer 2003).

History of appraisal theory

Although early ideas of judgements and emotions can be traced back to the work of Aristotle, Spinoza and Hume; Magda Arnold (1960) is the first person who termed the process *appraisal* (Roseman & Smith, 2001; Ellsworth & Scherer 2003). In 1966, Lazarus made a powerful statement that appraisal processes can be divided into two levels: primary and secondary. In the primary level, a person judges the relevance of the event to himself and in the secondary level he assesses his/her competence in coping with the encounter (Lazarus, 1966). The development of appraisal theory flourished in the

1980s. The theoretical concept of appraisal approach was formed through a number of studies that were done by independent researchers (Ellsworth & Scherer 2003; Moors et al., 2013). In Table 1.1 (from Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; p.573), appraisal dimensions proposed by different theorists are listed and compared. It can be noticed that some of the appraisal theorists (e.g., Scherer 1984) proposed more and some of them (e.g., Roseman 1984) put forward fewer variables (or dimensions) of human appraisals. As Ellsworth and Scherer (2003) point out, the core appraisal dimension that was suggested by a lot of the theorists is the evaluation of goal congruency or need satisfaction; since this judgment regulates the necessity or directions of further appraisals. Following the core dimension, several central variables, including novelty, valence, agency (or accountability) and norms/values, were summarised in Table 1.1 as well (Scherer, 1999b; Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003). Further detailed appraisal variables, for example certainty, which was related to goals/needs, were proposed by some theorists to illustrate the function of appraisal in distinguishing emotions (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003).

As discussed above, specific emotions are provoked by a series of evaluations of the current situation. These evaluations involve in, for example, judging the importance of the event to oneself, assessing the pleasantness of it, and deciding whether oneself has the competence to deal with the situation or not (Scherer, 1999; Lazarus, 1991; Niedenthal et al., 2006). According to appraisal theorists (Scherer, 1984; Frijda 1986; Smith, 1989; Lazarus, 1991), these processes of judgements can be perceived as dimensions (or variables) of the appraisal. Then, the question follows of how many appraisal variables are needed when a researcher tries to depict emotions. As Scherer (1999) and Moors et al (2013) suggest, the numbers of appraisal dimensions that are used to explain emotions depend on the number and the aspects of the emotions that the

research aims to examine. Based on this point of view, the following appraisal dimensions are included in this review.

Table 2.1 Comparative overview of major appraisal dimensions as postulated by different theorists.

	Frijda (1986)	Roseman (1984)	Scherer (1984)	Smith/Ellsworth(1985)
Novelty	Change		Novelty	Attentional activity
Valence	Familiarity		suddenness familiarity	
	Valence		Intrinsic	pleasantness
	Focality	Appetitive/	Goal	Importance
Goals/Needs	Certainty	Certainty	concern	
Agency	Intent/self-	Agency	outcome	Certainty
			cause: agent	Human agency
			cause:	
Norms/Values	Value		Compatibility	Legitimacy
			external	
			internal	

Note. From Ellsworth, P. C., & Scherer, K. R. (2003). Appraisal processes in emotion. In *Handbook of affective sciences*, 572, V595. Ed Scherer, K. R., Johnstone, T., & Klasmeyer, G. (2003). *Handbook of affective sciences*. New York: Oxford.

Dimensions of appraisal

As discussed in 2.1.1, the present research approaches emotions internally and focuses on the subjective emotional experiences; as such dimensions related to a person’s *goals*, perceptions of *blame* (also known as agency or accountability), and *coping potential* (or control) are used to study teachers’ emotions. Moreover, since one of the key objectives of the present research is to study the emotions of international teachers who are facing a different teaching context, the dimensions of *certainty* and cultural *norms/values* are included in this review as well.

Although there is no certain sequence of the happening of each appraisal, there is a general consensus among appraisal theorists (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Lazarus, 1991; Scherer, 2001) on the primitive and complex level of appraisals.

Goals

In Lazarus's (1991) work in which appraisal dimensions were divided into two types--- primary and secondary; the appraisals of *goal relevance* and *goal congruence* are essential evaluations (Lazarus, 1999; Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003). More specifically, *goal relevance* depicts to what extent an external factor is important to personal goals. If the encounter is seen as significant to the person, then emotions are potentially to be aroused. Taking an example from the education context, if a student misbehaves in a class and this misbehaviour disturbs the teacher's teaching; then significant attentions may be aroused from the teacher since what is happening is relevant to achieving his/her teaching goals. Later, *goal congruence* predicts people's positive or negative emotions by judging if the event is coherent to people's goal. Returning to the example, as the student's behaviour violates the teachers' teaching goals, some negative feelings are going to arise in this teacher. (Schutz, Aultman & William-Johnson 2009; Sutton & Wheatley, 2006).

Certainty

This variable of appraisal illustrates to what extent a person understands what is going on in front of him and is confident with the current situation (Roseman, 1984; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Also, the level of the uncertainty depends on the predictability and probability of the situation (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003). The more the event can be predicted, the less uncertain that the person may feel. This dimension of appraisal narrows emotions down to a smaller set. As in the example discussed above, if the student's disruptive behaviour has already been perceived as a negative emotional trigger, but the teacher is not sure what he has to do with the situation; then the likelihood of fear or anxiety being felt is high (Frijda, Kuipers & Ter Schure, 1989).

Agency

When talking about *agency*, it goes to the secondary appraisal, as Lazarus (1991) distinguishes individual emotions and illustrates how a person would cope with the situation. As Ellsworth and Scherer (2003) indicate, before deciding what coping strategy should be used it is crucial to judge who/what causes the situation. As such *agency* (or *accountability*) describes a person's judgment of who should be responsible/credited for the failure/success of achieving a goal (Smith & Lazarus 1993; Frenzel et al., 2009b). Returning again to the example, if the teacher allocates the blame to the student's lack of cooperation after seeing the failure of his/her teaching goal, then anger is highly likely to occur.

Coping potential

Control indicates whether a person perceives himself capable of managing goal congruence/incongruence (Lazarus & Folkman 1984). Since this dimension of appraisal is related to the generation of achievement emotions, Pekrun et al (2007) proposed several sub-types of this dimension to study students' test-related emotions. These types include situation-outcome expectancies (outcomes will happen without any interventions), action-control and action-outcome expectancies (one perceives him/herself has the ability to make an influence and one believes his/her action can generate/inhibit the outcome), and total outcome expectancy (the appraisal of the overall controllability of the outcome after taking all the other expectancies into account). At this stage, if the teacher has low self-efficacy, which means he does not believe he can control the student's lack of cooperation, then anxiety may be felt, otherwise, anger is facilitated if the teacher takes a more attacking coping strategy (Bandura, 1977; 1982).

Values/Norms

As mentioned earlier, appraisals are made against a person's built-in goals. However, these goals are usually formed by social contexts (Kappas, 1996; Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003). A member of a social group usually pays a lot of attention to reactions from other group members, in order to adapt himself into society (Cosmides & Tooby, 2000; Darwin, Ekman & Prodger, 1998). Thus, these social norms are formed from continuously proper reactions from the majority of the group members to one's behaviour (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003). If these norms are violated and being judged as one's own fault, emotions like guilt or shame can be elicited (Frijda et al, 1989; Lazarus, 1991).

The implication of appraisal theory

With different appraisal dimensions added or changed, people's emotional experiences continuously flow in their minds (Lazarus, 1966; Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Lambie & Marcel, 2002). This feature of appraisals emphasises the importance of subjective perceptions in eliciting an emotion (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991). It connects situational and dispositional antecedents, and then explains why different emotions can be generated when different people face a similar stimulus (Frijda, 1986; Moor, et al., 2013). In detail, as Schutz, Crowder, and White (2001) argue, a person's personal values/tastes are shaped by the society or culture which he/she grows up. In addition, social goals, norms and beliefs can vary from culture to culture (Markus & Kitayama, 1991, Imada & Ellsworth, 2011). Therefore, it can be assumed that people with different cultural backgrounds may have different emotional reactions to a similar situation (Sutton & Wheatley, 2006; Imada & Ellsworth, 2011). It can be seen that appraisal theory has a great implication in studying the impact of individual and cultural differences of emotional responses (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Moors et al, 2013; Sutton & Wheatley, 2006; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). In the present research, it becomes the core theoretical framework in understanding the relationship between cultural backgrounds and emotional experiences.

However, research on cultural differences on emotions is quite under-developed (Hwang & Matsumoto, 2013; Kitayama, Markus, & Kurokawa, 2000). Although appraisal theory can be used as a bridge to connect culture effects and emotions, it is a psychological theory focusing on cognitive processes in emotions; as such many questions about the cultural influences on emotional experiences still cannot be solved by it (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003). Culture effects need to be taken into account in investigating the differences on emotions. Several possibilities for the appearance of cultural differences were suggested by Ellsworth and Scherer (2003). Firstly, differences happen because some appraisals dimensions that were put forward by theorists are lacking in some cultures. Secondly, the patterns of appraisals may vary in different cultures. For example, some appraisal dimensions may be valued more in some cultures. Thirdly, some culturally-specific sub-dimensions of appraisals may not have been discovered by the appraisal theorists yet. All these presumptions remain mostly unexplained. Therefore, studies examining cultural differences in the scope of appraisal theory on emotional experiences are in high demand in this area. Furthermore, those dimensions of appraisals to some extent can predict individual emotions, which has an important implication in studying discrete emotions. As a result, psychologists from different sub-areas widely apply this theory to other domains (Moors et al, 2013).

2.1.2.3 Subjective experience

What is emotional experience?

There are three theories describing the nature of emotional experience. Firstly, the central theory advocates that the subjective experience is the central notion of emotion (Titchener, 1908; Wundt, 1896, 1916, as cited in Buxton, 2013). It is the cause of following responses from the organism. For example, people cry because they feel sad. Secondly, the peripheral theory stands on the opposite of the central theory. It denoted that people's

affective experiences were elicited from body sensations or responses (James, 1884; Lange, 1912/1895; LeDoux, 1996, 2000). Specifically, a person may feel upset because he is in pain. However, this theory failed to explain causations of emotional experiences in most occasions. For example, it can hardly make sense if we say we get the feeling of fear because we run. As such, the third theory—cognitive theory was proposed by theorists (Oatley & Johnson-Laird, 1987; Lazarus, 1966) to build up the connection between inner cognitions and outer physical changes in emotional experiences. It recognises the role of cognitions in emotion elicitation. The feeling of anger can contain the awareness of a demeaning offense as a component and also can contain the awareness of body arousal (Lazarus, 1991). As Frijda (1986) argues, this theory endeavours to explaining experiences and distinguishing emotional cognitions from non-emotional cognitions and is largely adopted by appraisal theorists (Arnold, 1960; Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991)

As it was discussed in section 1.1, the emotion contains a variety of components. Therefore, the emotional experience can be defined as subjective awareness of a series of certain emotional components (Frijda, 1986; Mesquita et al., 1997). It can include the awareness of “a) appraisal; b) state of action readiness; c) physiological upset; or d) further cognitive components, notably cognitive connotation and implications and e) evaluations of one’s emotions” (Mesquita et al., 1997, p.273). This means the emotional experience is a composite of several components as well (Lambie & Marcel, 2002) and different emotions match to a certain variety of these awareness (Frijda, 1986). This definition of emotional experiences helps emotion psychologists identify the discrete emotion (Lazarus, 1991; Mesquita et al., 1997), which is discussed into detail in section 2.3.1. In addition, Frijda (1986) proposes a short version of the elements of emotional experiences. She states that emotional experience has three key elements. They are

“elementary *feelings*”, “body sensations” and “ideas associated to the stimuli” (p.179). Based on the cognitive theory of emotional experience, elementary “feelings” play a core role in distinguishing the emotional experiences from non-emotional experiences and also can explain why an emotional experience can differ from another, because it indicates the conscious awareness of affects (Frijda, 1986, 2001).

Since the present study tries to identify differences between different teachers’ emotional experiences, it focuses on examining the awareness of subjective feelings in the current research. It investigates participants’ emotional experiences through their subjective reports on a scale. In addition, for finding possible explanations for the differences, the emoting processes was investigated through asking participants’ introspective memories in interview studies. That is to say the current research also studied the emotional experiences as subjective awareness of appraisals.

Features of emotional experiences

As it was argued in Frijda’s (1986) book, the nature of emotional experiences contains reflexive and irreflexive consciousness. The reflexive consciousness refers to the awareness of the importance of the object to oneself. The main focus locates on a person’s subjectivity. While, the irreflexive consciousness implies the realisation of the outside phenomenon or situation. Lambie and Marcel (2002) also indicate that the consciousness in emotional experiences can be divided into two levels. The first level involves phenomenology, and the second level involves awareness. All these statements signal that the emotional experience has its subjectivity and also its objectivity. This leaves cautions to researchers who want to study emotional experience. They had better get a clear idea about which characteristic of emotional experiences that they intend to focus on before they start the research; otherwise, they may be unclear on research methods and results (Lambie & Marcel, 2002).

Furthermore, as the emotional experience has many components, Frijda (1986) summarised three ways to perceive this experience. Firstly, emotion experiences can be perceived as experiences of the situation. Secondly, emotion experiences can be seen as experiences of automatic arousal. Thirdly, emotion experiences can be regarded as experiences of the action and action tendency. The last two perceptions mainly involve the biological definition of human emotion which is not the path that is taken by the present research to approach to emotions. Therefore, the emotional experience is discussed as the experience of situation here. In detail, the situation mentioned here does not only mean the circumstance that trigger emotions, it also refers to the meanings which the situation carries with itself to the person whom the meaning can make an impact on (Frijda, 2007). For example, the overwhelming-ness of a tragic situation to a person is subjected to this person's toughness. That is to say, the subjective experience of an emotion is bounded with a person's own traits and beliefs. Therefore, the emotional experiences of one situation can be structured as cognitions of the importance of the situation to oneself, cognitions of the freedom that situation grants the person to take actions and the assessment of the desirability of the results (Frijda, 1986, 2007). In other words, emotional experiences can be seen as results of a series of cognitive appraisals. This structure is also named as "situational meaning structure (p.194)" of emotional experience (Frijda, 1986).

Another feature of subjective emotional experience is that not all the constituents appear when one has emotions (Mesquita & Frijda, 1992). As Mesquita, et al (1997) argue, even the core hedonic or painful feeling can be missing in some situations. For example, according to Levy (1975), Tahitians may have the feeling of fatigue when they confront losses or frightening situations. Although psychologists were not sure if that fatigue was equal to sad feelings in other cultures, it can be assumed certain components

of emotional experiences sometimes can be lacked in different cultures. This feature has implications in understanding culturally differences in people's emotional experiences.

Intensity of subjective experience

It is a bit problematic to simply put forward the idea of the intensity of emotional experiences, as it is difficult to draw the line between each level of feeling. Whether the emotion of fury is more intense than the emotion of anger is hard to define, especially in different people. However, there are several parameters which can be used to explain the intensity of emotional experiences as accurately as possible (Frijda, 2005, 2007). According to the situational meaning structure proposed in preceding section, the relevance and the significance of the event to people can be seen as some of the parameters (Lazarus, 1991; Frijda, 1986). In addition, the physiological change, the sense of impulsion and the judgement of the ability to cope can all vary by degrees. Thus, they also can be perceived as indicators of the intensity of emotional experience (Frijda, 1986; Niedenthal et al., 2006; Desmet, 2005).

Since emotional experiences have many aspects and levels of intensity (e.g. physiological changes, action readiness, and cognitive appraisals), it is very questionable practice to use a single measurement to gauge all the components of emotional experiences at the same time (Niedenthal et al., 2006; Frenzel et al., 2016). Therefore, Desmet (2005) argues that for measuring each constituent of the emotion, a specific type of instrument should be applied in order to make research results more meaningful. As such the current research measures people's the intensity of emotional experience by using their subjective judgements of the situation as parameters. More detailed discussions about methods used to gauging emotions are made in Chapter 3 (see 3.2).

2.1.2.4 Other components

Thirdly, according to Mesquita et al., (1997), mental feelings can result in physiological change, such as blood pressure, body temperature and heart rate (Pittam and Scherer, 1993). Thus, physiological change also plays a part in emotion process.

Fourthly, physical changes or movements (e.g. facial expressions) resulting from the experience of emotions are seen as emotional expressions (Darwin, 1998). They can be applied to predict one's feeling. In classroom contexts, for instance, students may react differently after sensing anger or joy from their teachers' facial changes (Sutton, 2000b).

The final components being discussed here is action tendencies. They are also known as action readiness or response tendencies (Mesquita et al., 1997; Lazarus, 1991). They illustrate how people intend to react to a feeling. Although, in some cases people can control their actions, these tendencies can shortly put a strong impact on people's long-term emotional regulation (Sutton, 2000b).

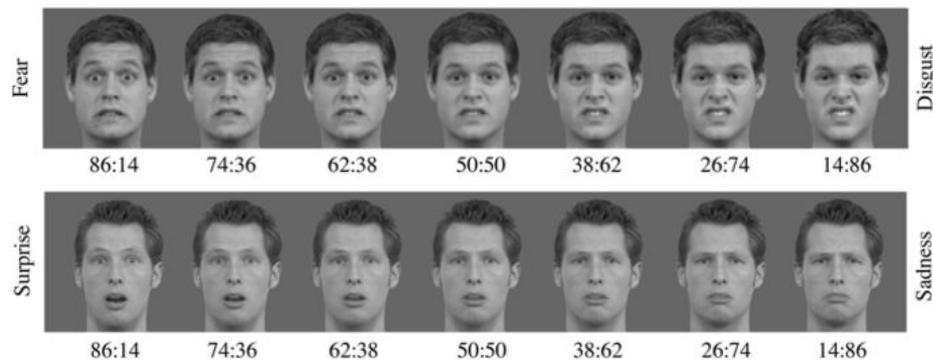
2.1.3 Discrete emotions---the experience of different emotions

2.1.3.1 Accounts of discrete emotions

In recent times, lots of debates have been had on whether there is a countable number of basic emotions and how to distinguish one emotion from another. According to *basic emotion model* (Ekman 1984; Johnson-Laird & Oatley, 1992), humans have a set of inborn emotions which are coded in their genes and these emotions can be viewed as automatic affective responses to certain eliciting events (Plutchik, 1984). Although in different basic emotion theorists' (e.g., Ekman 1984, 1992; Izard 1977, 1993; Ortony & Turner, 1990) opinions, there are different numbers of basic emotions, five emotions are generally agreed as basic. They are fear, disgust, sadness, anger and joy, and other emotions can be perceived as a blend of the basic emotions; for example, depression can be seen as a combination of sadness and anxiety (Ekman 1984; Johnson-Laird & Oatley,

1992; Plutchik, 1984). However, the shortcomings of this model of emotion structure is obvious. Firstly, it does not specify the cause of antecedents to basic emotions, as such it is very weak in explaining the process of one emotion changing to another (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003). Secondly, this model can hardly define what emotions can be named as basic emotions and what cannot be (Grandjean, Sander & Scherer, 2008; Niedenthal et al., 2006). Thirdly, this model makes individual emotions too independent from each other; however, as many emotion researchers (Padgett, & Cottrell, 1998; Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003) argue, the dividing line between each emotion is very ambiguous. As it was presented in the report of Daudelin-Peltier, Forget, Blais, Deschênes & Fiset (2017), the face continua (see Figure 2.1) of facial expressions of morphed emotions indicate that there is no clear boundary between the emotion of fear and disgust and the emotion of surprise and sadness. These drawbacks of basic emotion model push emotion researchers to find wider ways to explain individual emotions. Later on, several emotion theorists (Barrett & Russell, 1999; Larsen & Diener, 1992; Russell, 1980; Posner, Russell & Peterson, 2005) proposed the *dimensional feeling model* to describe the experienced emotions. Although there were many dimensions (e.g., engagement-disengagement, tension-relaxation and pleasantness-unpleasantness) being put forward early in the development, nowadays two dimensions have become the most popular ones being endorsed by dimensional modelling theorists (Barret & Russell, 1999; Tellegen, Watson & Clark, 1999; Grandjean et al., 2008). According to a circumplex (see Figure 2.2) proposed by Russell (1980) and Feldman (1995), the first dimension is arousal including activation and deactivation as polar and the second dimension is valence which infers a contingency from positive/pleasant to negative/unpleasant valence (Russell 1980, 2003; Feldman, 1995).

Figure 2.1 Examples of continua of emotions.



Note. From Daudelin-Peltier, C., Forget, H., Blais, C., Deschênes, A., & Fiset, D. (2017). The effect of acute social stress on the recognition of facial expression of emotions. *Scientific Reports*, 7(1), 1036.

This circumplex describes states which are named as core affect by Russell (1980, 2003). Core affect can be regarded as core feelings of good or bad, active or de-active experiences. It is a pre-conscious mood which floats along the axes on the circumplex, and is influenced by many personal and environmental factors (Russell & Pratt, 1980; Russell & Snodgrass, 1987). Although the dimensional feeling model recognises the floating and continuous characteristics of emotions, it has many drawbacks as well (Grandjean et al., 2008). As Niedenthal et al., (2006) point out, this model rarely indicates the mechanism of the emoting process. It does not explain the connection between cognitive judgement patterns and emotional response, as such it is not very effective in predicting discrete emotions and identifying the reason for differences among emotional experiences. In addition, it overlooks the multi-components of emotions, as it mainly defines emotions as subjective experiences.

Since the first two models are not strong in answering the questions of why emotions can change fast if the elicitor has a subtle change and why different people may have different emotional experience even if they see the same encounter (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Grandjean et al., 2008), several emotion theorists (Arnold 1960; Lazarus,

1991; Scherer, 1984, 2001) suggest a *componential appraisal model* to view the emotion as a composite of several components and a dynamic episode. In this model, the determination of one emotion can be perceived as a series of changes in all of its sub-components (e.g., antecedents, physiological reaction and cognition); and the evocation and distinction of emotions are determined by appraisals of (Frijda, 1986, 2007; Scherer, 2001). The benefits of viewing emotions through this model include a) studying on specific components of emotions can make the prediction of discrete emotion systematic (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Mesquita et al, 1997); b) it becomes easy to understand and study the dynamic changes of emotions if emotions are perceived as “appraisal-driven responses” (Grandjean et al., 2008, p.485,); c) the variations of emotional experiences across individuals and cultures can be interpreted explicitly through analysing the appraisal mechanism underlies the generating process of emotions (Imada & Ellsworth, 2011; Kitayama, Markus, & Kurokawa, 2000; Lazarus, 1991).

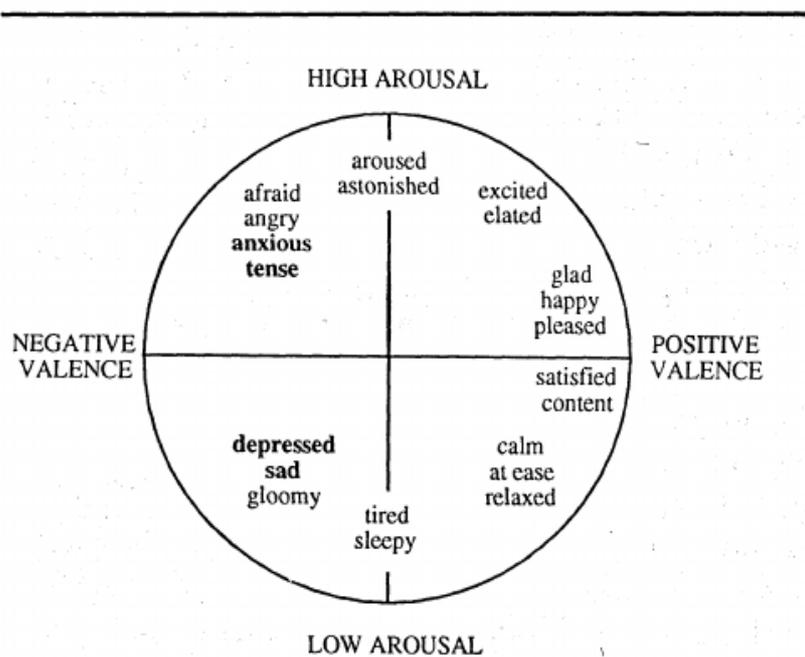
Finally, as the present research will incorporate concepts from different models to provide an integrative view to examine various emotional experiences of teachers from different cultural backgrounds, the following section introduces the integrated theoretical framework for the current research.

2.1.3.2 Emoting process.

Under the framework of appraisal theory, the emotional experience can be interpreted using three transactional processes (See Figure 1; Schutz et al., 2009). Affective tendency represents the expanding circle of the model, which is seen as an antecedent of one's intension of seeing this world (Schutz, et al., 2009). It works like a compass that navigates people's perception of an event to a predisposed direction (Rosenberg, 1998) and is mainly influenced by social-historical and individual factors (Schutz et al., 2009). In terms of social historical influences, one element-culture - plays a dominant role in

influencing humans' emotional experience (Pakingson, Fisher & Manstead, 2005). As Schutz, Crowder, and White (2001) state, individuals' goals, values and beliefs are socially constructed and culturally influenced, and these goals, values and beliefs are later largely drawn on when a person evaluates antecedents; as a consequence, people from different cultures potentially feel different in the same situation. The individual factors including "personal experience, temperament, and the behaviour activation/inhibition system" (Schutz *et al.*, 2009, p.198) are somehow socially constructed and can turn an affective tendency into a more particular type of feeling.

Figure 2.2 Valence/arousal circumplex model of mood adjectives/core effect



Note. From Feldman, L. A. (1995). Variations in the circumplex structure of mood. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 21(8), 806-817.

Core affect stays in the inner circle, which describes a person's unconscious state combining valence (pleasant-unpleasant) and arousal (active-inactive) (Russell, 1980, 2003; Russell & Barrett, 1999). It can be seen as "a continuous range of ever-present feeling states have the potential to become more prominent and intense based on the

person's judgment" (Schutz *et al.*, 2009, p.200). Similar to the feeling of temperature, the core affect may not be noticed if the teacher not asked (Russell, 2003). However, it has the potential to impact on the occurring of emotional episode. A core feeling may be located into a more specific spot on the map of core affect circumplex after more conscious appraisals of the eliciting event have been made (Russell, 2003; Grandjean *et al.*, 2008). For instance, if a teacher's mood is on the unpleasant valence and active arousal, a student's misbehaviour can result in the teacher's anger; on the contrary, if the teacher's core affect is in a peaceful and joyful state, then this student's misbehaviour may be turned into laughter (Schutz *et al.*, 2009). The concept of core affect supports the use of diary study in the present research. Since a teacher's temporary emotional experience can be biased by their daily unstable core affect, it is crucial to investigate teachers' emotion in a longitudinal way. In sum, core affect is a general state over one short period of time and can be specified into a particular emotion if the person meets an encounter (Schutz *et al.*, 2009).

The central section of the model is the emotional episode. It can be regarded as the fruit of a person's appraisal of an event (Pekrun, Frenzel & Perry, 2011). The generation of one specific emotion involves the two appraisal (primary and secondary) levels mentioned in the previous section (Schutz & Davis, 2000). The emotional episode, along with affective tendency and core affect, portrays the emoting process of teachers (Schutz *et al.*, 2009). To sum up, teachers, in order to achieve their teaching goals or preserve their social standards (e.g. cultural/individual values, beliefs and norms), compare what is occurring with what they expect to see and generate an emotion toward the situation (Schutz *et al.*, 2009).

The appraisal theory and transactional emoting process described above comprise the spine of the present research. They provide a scope to understand the relationship

between teachers' social/cultural background and their emotional reactions towards students' behaviours.

2.2 Teacher emotion

2.2.1 Why study teacher emotions.

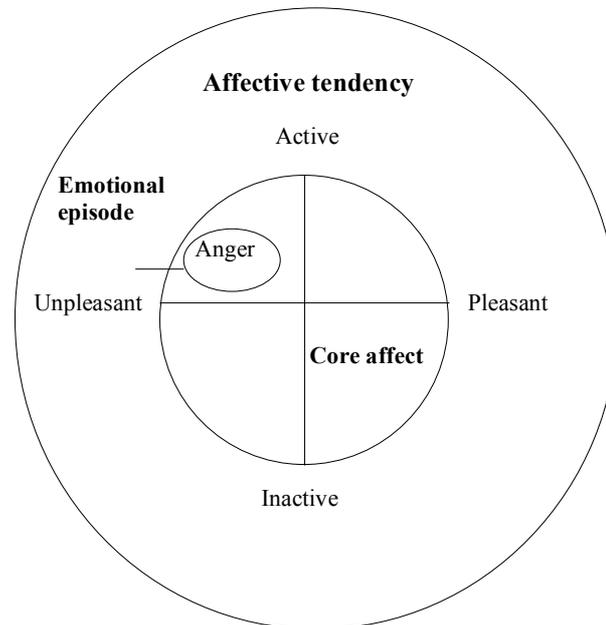
2.2.1.1 Teachers' emotion and teachers' well-being

Emotional labour in teaching.

Teaching is a job involving a large amount of interacting and communicating with students (Frenzel, Goetz, Lüdtke, Pekrun, & Sutton, 2009a). According to Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) and Hochschild (1983), professions which include interpersonal interactions need the worker to produce particular emotions in order to achieve the satisfaction from both server and receiver's sides. As such a teacher relies upon plenty of emotional interactions for doing a good teaching job. This process of work which includes controlling the emotional expression and suppression is named by Hochschild (1983) as emotional labour.

Similar to physical labour, emotional labour has two different characteristics (Hargreaves, 2000). On one hand, this labour can be enjoyable when the teacher manufactures his/her emotions for attaining his/her own goals; on the other hand, it can be very stressful when the teacher has to mask his/her feelings to fit other people's profits. The second feature of the emotional labour plays a vital role in teachers' burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001), which is going to be examined in the later part of this review.

Figure 2.3 Valence transactions among affective tendency, core affect and emotional episode



(Schutz et al., 2009, p. 197).

In terms of situations where the teacher needs to do emotional work, three main circumstances come to the centre of the discussion. Firstly, since the core responsibility of a teacher is teaching students (Diamond, Randolph & Spillane, 2004), a great deal of emotional work is demanded when the teacher tries to engage students and maintain order in the class at the same time. Secondly, as a member of the school system, a teacher has to deal with the emotional relationship between him/herself and the principal or other colleagues, so as to pursue a comfortable working environment (Burke & Greenglass, 1993). Thirdly, the interaction between the teacher and parents, which may be perceived by the teacher as unnecessary to his/her teaching work (Lasky, 2000), also consumes quite a lot of emotional labour out of the teacher (Hargreaves, 2000).

Emotional exhaustion and teachers' burnout

As discussed above, the teaching profession demands a teacher doing close and intimate

interactions with students, which exposes the teacher to a high variety of emotional experiences from happiness to fury (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006; Chang, 2009). It means that, in order to handle this complicated emotional work, a teacher has to apply a great number of mental energies into it, whereas this continuously consumptive work can drain his/her emotion sources (Klassen, & Chiu, 2011; Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch & Barber, 2010). As Näring, Vlerick and Van de Ven, (2012) and Brotheridge and Lee (2003) argue, this is the reason why the intense emotional labour is an essential factor contributing to emotional exhaustion.

Evers, Tomic and Brouwers (2004) describe emotional exhaustion as a state whereby a person runs out of emotional resources and consistently feels fatigued or passive regarding his/her work (Chang, 2009). A teacher who is in this state may be very stressed and lack confidence in dealing with relationships among students, parents and colleagues (Tsouloupas *et al.*, 2010) and this symptom puts massively negative impacts on the teacher's "job performance, work attitudes and employee behaviours" (Tsouloupas *et al.*, 2010, p.173-4) which are pivotal outcomes of a profession. This feature of emotional exhaustion makes it become the predominant indicator of teachers' burnout (Maslach *et al.*, 2001).

According to Maslach and Leiter (1997), burnout can be regarded as a psychological syndrome that a person loses motivation, passion and confidences in doing his/her job. Moreover, excepting emotional exhaustion, there are others two factors—cynicism and inefficacy - contributing to burnout as well (Maslach, Leiter, & Schaufeli, 2008). As Maslach *et al.*, (2001) described, cynicism implies that one starts to be apathetic to the surrounding others. In the teaching context, this would be a teacher who shows no concern to his/her students. In terms of the inefficacy, it can be perceived as a consequence of the exhaustion and depersonalization (Chang, 2009). Specifically, since a

person becomes worn out and indifferent to his/her work, he/she can hardly obtain the sense of achievement from what he/she is doing. As a result, he/she may lose the capability in coping with tasks in his/her job.

In recent research (e.g. Schutz, Aultman, & Williams-Johnson, 2009; Hughes, 2001; Morris & Feldman, 1996) on teachers' health and well-being, burnout is seen as a key contributor to teachers' early retirement and the drain of the teaching profession. Thus, in order to retain the stability of the teaching profession and improve teachers' well-being, a great deal more psychological and educational research is needed on teachers' emotional exhaustion and burnout.

2.2.1.2. The relationship between teachers' emotion and students' outcomes

Teachers' emotion and teaching behaviours

As Frijda (1986) and Lazarus (1991) argued, a person, in order to adapt him/herself to the changing environment, would manage his/her behaviours according to his/her feelings. Therefore, a teacher's manners are results of their emotional adaptations to the current situation (Frenzel, Goetz, Stephens, & Jacob, 2009b). This adaptation can be explained by evolutionary psychology which states that an adaptation raises the chance of survival (Cosmides & Tooby, 2000). In this respect, teachers' teaching behaviours are widely influenced by their emotions in the classroom (Hagenauer, & Volet, 2014; Hargreaves, 2005).

As Hargreaves (1998) notes, "good teaching is charged with positive emotions" (p. 835). This is because teachers with pleasant feelings show approach tendencies to difficult situations (Fredrickson, 2001). With the feeling of joy, teachers' thoughts on solving problems can be widened. Therefore, they can be more creative and energetic in their teaching process (Frenzel et al., 2009b). A study conducted by Sutton (2007)

revealed that teachers' reported high teaching effectiveness related to their expression of positive emotions in the classroom. By contrast, if teachers feel anxious in the class, they may try to avoid any changes and unexpected situations by sticking to the initial teaching plan; as a result, their teaching can be repetitive and boring.

Based on the discussion above, it can be assumed that teachers' emotions guide their instructional behaviours; as such more empirical research needs to be conducted to discover details of emotional influences on teaching.

Teachers' emotion and student learning

In a study implemented by Frenzel et al., (2009a), teachers' reported enjoyments was highly positively correlated with students' rating of their teaching behaviours (e.g. elaboration, comprehensibility, and autonomy support) and also related to students' perceived emotional support. This result can parallel with the finding discovered in another study conducted by Frenzel *et al.*, (2009a), which depicted that teachers' emotion can be transmitted to students in the class. For example, teachers' enjoyment of the class can be expressed as enthusiasm in teaching and it would be showed through teaching behaviours, such as smiling and making jokes. Then, students can sense these behaviours and translate them into positive feelings of themselves. Under this circumstance, a sound emotional understanding occurs between teachers and students.

Moreover, as Hargreaves (2000) and Klassen, Perry, and Frenzel, (2012) put forward, emotional understanding plays a pivotal role in building teacher and student relationships. A sound teacher-student relationship, according to Meyer and Turner (2002), can promote student learning. To be more precise, if students enjoy interactions with the teacher, they would be confident to approach to the teacher for help; however, if they do not, they may take an avoidance strategy to the teacher when confronting

problems (Meyer & Turner, 2002). That is to say, students' outcomes are related to their relationship with the teacher. As such in order to improve student achievement, teacher emotion that acts as a mediator of teaching and student learning requires a deeper investigation.

2.2.2 Antecedents of teacher emotion

As it was discussed in section 1.2.1, factors that can trigger human emotions can be assigned into two main kinds. They are called situational antecedents and dispositional antecedents. In this section, what factors/events can be allocated into these two kinds of antecedents in education context are discussed.

2.2.2.1 Situational antecedents of teachers' emotions: Three main factors relating to teachers' emotional experience

According to a framework built by Chang (2009), factors that influence teachers' emotional experiences can be categorised into three groups: "individual factors, organizational factors, and transactional factors" (p. 198).

To begin with, individual factors indicate "who" can be emotionally drained. These factors include teachers' demographic background (e.g. age, gender, and country of birth) or personality (Friedman & Farber, 1992). Although research results were incoherent when it came to the influences of age or gender on teacher emotion (Friedman & Farber, 1992; Zabel & Zabel; 2001), some consistent findings were discovered through studies on the influence of personal traits on teacher emotion (Friedman & Farber 1992). For example, teachers who had low self-esteem or higher expectations were more apt to experience emotional exhaustion (Maslach *et al.*, 2001). Factors from this group can usually be distributed to dispositional antecedents.

Next, organisational factors depict “what” can put impact on teachers’ emotions (Chang, 2009). Under the organisational culture, three main factors, as mentioned in previous section, mainly influence teachers’ emotional experience. The first one is students’ classroom behaviours. This element is the most direct and dominant cause of teachers’ emotions (Pines, 2002; Evers *et al.*, 2004). The second one is the institutional context. A school’s economic status, principal and colleagues’ support and the amount of workload they all relate to teachers’ emotional experience and exhaustion (Brissie, Hoover-Dempsey & Bassler, 1988; Maslach *et al.*, 2001). The last factor is parents’ cooperation. This factor may put more influence on beginning teachers who are inexperienced and unconfident in dealing with interpersonal relationship with parents (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Varah, Theune & Parker, 1986). The factors from the environment which trigger teachers’ emotions can be perceived as situational antecedents.

At last, the transactional factor describes “who” can experience positive/negative emotions under “which” circumstance (Chang, 2009). It illustrates “the relationship between individual factors with organizational factors” (p.201) and explains why in front of the same student misbehaviour, some teachers may feel frustrated while some others may not. According to Friedman (1995) and Lazarus, (1991), teachers judge encounters (situational antecedents) against their own goals and belief (dispositional antecedents), as such when dealing with disruptive student behaviours, some teachers get burnout whereas some others are fine and the process of making this judgment can be interpreted through the scope of appraisal theory which is examined in section 2.3.

In summary, although there are three situational factors can influence teachers’ emotional experiences, the current research focuses on the dominant one—students’ classroom behaviours which directly relate to teachers’ teaching practice and put most

influences on teachers' emotions for getting a better understanding of teacher burnout and a deeper insight of teachers' concrete emotional experience (Spilt *et al.*, 2011).

Reviews on students' misbehaviour

Students' classroom behaviours, especially misbehaviours or uncivil behaviours which are taken as situational triggers of teachers' emotions, are reviewed in this section.

To start with, incivility, which is defined by Berger (2000) as disrespectful or rude behaviours against others. When it comes to an education setting, this term can be interpreted as students' disturbing actions which interrupt the learning environment (e.g. teaching, instructors, classmates) (Morrissette, 2001; Burke, Karl, Peluchette & Evans, 2014). According to the media reports in the United Kingdom (UK), the deterioration of students' classroom behaviours in the UK is increasing and this trend makes a wide influence on the higher education classroom (Association of Teachers and Lecturers, 2011; Department for Education, 2013; Department for Education, 2014; Department for Education and Skills, 2005; Tahir, 2007). Through conducting the National Student Conduct Survey, Lee (2007) discovered that lecturers in British higher education underwent a high level of students' uncivil behaviours, including explicit rudeness, aggression, and physical abuse; and these disruptions from students put university staff under severe stress and impede their abilities in doing good jobs (Keating, 2016). All these news and reports indicate the urgent need for studying how students' incivilities influence university staff's emotional experiences and their mental well-being.

As Alberts, Hazen and Theobald (2010) state, classroom incivility is a serious problem which brings harm to teachers and students mutual relationship. The following sections highlight the importance of this issue.

Firstly, according to a study conducted by Royce (2000), more than 80% of 1500 faculty at Indiana University reported that they had experienced, as listed in the survey,

23 of 30 uncivil behaviours. Another more recently conducted study showed that nearly half (47%) of the faculty in a university in Pennsylvania reported classroom disturbance occurring as frequently as several times per week to several times per term (Black, Wygonik, & Frey, 2011). These data indicate the high prevalence of student incivility on university campuses (Burke et al., 2014).

Secondly, students' problematic behaviours in the classroom can affect teachers' instructional process and emotions directly (Gu Lai & Ye, 2011). As Clark (2008) suggests, when students commit a demeaning offense related to the instructor's respect, negative emotions (e.g. anger, fear or hostility) can be elicited by the teacher him/herself. Thus, from this sense, teachers' emotional well-being can be heavily influenced by the uncivil behaviours of students.

Thirdly, student incivility also makes a contribution to teacher burnout. According to a study done by Ingersoll (2001), thirty percent of the four hundred teachers who quit the teaching profession recognized students' misbehaviours as one of the reasons resulting in their dropping out.

Moreover, in terms of types of incivility in classroom, Feldmann's (2001) research should be drawn on. He allocated uncivil behaviours into four groups according to the intensity of the incivility. Thus, from low intensity to high intensity, they are annoyances, "terrorism", intimidation and threats. As Burke et al., (2014) point out, the most frequently reported student misbehaviours can be clarified in the "low intensity" groups. For instance, arriving late, having side conversations during the class, playing with phones are common misbehaviours happening in the classroom context. For the "high intensity" group, actions such as threatening the instructor and violent abuse of the teacher are cited in literature (Feldmann's, 2001), however, these behaviours are not experienced by teachers quite as often. Under the British higher education setting,

Keating (2016) has summarised several popular types of students' misbehaviours from previous literature. They are behaviours of "persistent chatting, making sarcastic comments, arriving late, preparing to leave early, students participating in non-class relevant activities, use of mobile phones and technology, domination of discussion, disrespect, cheating, skipping class and acting bored or apathetic" (p.42).

Based on the review above, it can be argued that student misbehaviour influences teachers/instructors' career and emotion well-being profoundly (Alberts, Hazen & Theobald, 2010). However, few empirical studies have been done to examine how students' problematic behaviours work as antecedents of teacher emotional experience (Frenzel et al., 2009b; Chang, 2009). Thus, the present research suggests using appraisal theory as a theoretical framework to understand how teachers' perceived students' misbehaviour relate to their emotional experience.

2.2.2.2 Dispositional antecedents of teacher emotion

As discussed in section 1.2.1, a person's concern in a situation would become the main dispositional antecedent for eliciting emotions, and under the context of education, a teacher's specific concern for a situation would be heavily shaped by beliefs, identities and goals that are held by him/her by that time (Schutz, Cross, Hong & Osbon 2007). In the section below, the details of how these three factors work as antecedents in affecting teachers' emotions are discussed.

Teacher belief

Beliefs can be defined as people's conscious or unconscious built-in values that shape their ways of thinking and behaving (Borg, 2001).

According to Vartuli (2005), teacher belief is the heart of teaching; as such it plays a pivotal role in guiding teachers' teaching behaviour and mapping teachers' emotional experiences in the classroom. (Schutz, et al., 2007; Xu, 2012; Vartuli, 2005). That is to

say, it works as standards when teachers make evaluations or judgement of situations in teaching and then makes the occasions have certain sense to the teacher (Schutz, et al., 2007).

Like all other beliefs, teachers' beliefs have two sides. One side refers to their beliefs about the outside world and the other side involves their beliefs about their inner selves (Foley, 2001). In a teaching context, teachers' beliefs related to the outside include their concerns about students, classrooms, and the teaching materials they have prepared (Raths, 2001). For example, a teacher may believe all students can learn in his/her class and students' diversity in his/her classroom would be an advantage rather than an issue.

Then, teachers' beliefs about themselves can be regarded as their self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982; Henson, 2001). According to Bandura (1994), perceived self-efficacy refers to one's beliefs about his/her ability in achieving certain goals. When it comes to teachers' self-efficacy, it means a teacher's evaluations of his/her competences in developing anticipated learning outcomes or performances from students (Hoy, 2000; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001, 2007). In a teaching context, there are three main efficacies that a teacher would hold in making the judgements. They are "efficacy for student engagement", "efficacy for instructional strategies" and "efficacy for classroom management" (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001, p.797) According to Ohio State teacher efficacy scale (OSTES) that was cited in Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's study (2001), teachers efficacy for student engagement included the evaluations of the extent to which a teacher can motivate the student to learn; teacher efficacy for instructional strategies focuses on judgement of the extent to which a teacher can organise and deliver the teaching materials successfully; and teacher efficacy for classroom management refers to the assessment of the extent to which a teacher can manage students' disruptive behaviours in the classroom.

As Bandura (1994) proposed, a person's self-efficacy mainly comes from four resources. Firstly, mastery experience is a resource which usually boosts a person's self-efficacy directly. If teachers achieve their teaching goals after hard work, their successes will make a strong ground for their belief of their competence in teaching. Secondly, social modelling indicates that a person may believe he can finish a task if he sees a peer who has similar competences as him achieve it. Thirdly, social persuasion means a person can be persuaded (by experienced people) to believe he/she has the capabilities to achieve a goal. By believing these persuasions, his/her self-confidence is enhanced. Fourthly, a person's physical and emotional states can influence his/her perceptions on his/her abilities as well. For instance, a bad mood (e.g. stress and depression) may make a teacher feel vulnerable in facing students' misbehaviours in the classroom and weaken his/her beliefs about his/her capability in tackling down the difficulties.

The beliefs held by teachers may change in accordance with the changes that have happened in all of the four resources (Henson, 2001). A little change in a teachers' life may make a change in their self-efficacy and then lead their emotional reactions into a different direction. For example, a teacher may be more confident in giving instructions with the accumulation of his/her working experiences (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). As a result, novice and experienced teachers may feel differently when facing similar classroom situations. As such, if a researcher would like to investigate what factors influence or differentiate teachers' emotional experiences, these self-efficacy sources in a teachers' background should be taken into account. Moreover, high level of self-efficacy assists teachers' teaching as teachers can perform better in teaching when they believe that they have the ability to achieve their goals (Bandura, 1977). As discussed before, teachers' self-efficacies are influenced by their emotional states/experiences in the classroom. Therefore, for improving their confidence in teaching and managing the class,

it is important to have an examination on teachers' emotional experiences and discover how these influence work.

At last, teachers' beliefs also make a wide influence on the following two dispositional factors.

Teachers' identity

According to Sachs (2005), identity refers to who the people think they are. It implies certain behaviours or ways of thinking that a person performs in a specific situation (Gee, 2001). Based on this definition, teacher's identity can be regarded as an internalised image that a teacher pictures for being a teacher (Anspal, Eisenschmidt, & Löfström, 2012). That is to say, teachers' perceived identity impacts the way they think and the way they feel (Sachs, 2005). As Schutz et al (2007) argue, teachers' identity and their emotional experiences have reciprocal relationships. Their certain beliefs about their own image would persuade how they feel in a situation, in turn, how they feel about an incident may re-shape that image of themselves. For example, a teacher who perceives him/herself as a professional authority in the class may deliberately avoid showing some emotions (e.g. anxiety) in front of his/her students and if, somehow, he or she has been triggered to show some inappropriate emotional reactions he/she may not consider him/herself to have a suitable level of professional competence. In other words, teachers' emotional experiences not only can be reflections of their perceived identities but also can re-shape their identities (Schutz et al, 2007).

Due to this reciprocal relationship, teachers' emotional experiences have huge potentials to restrict or extend the teachers' beliefs of themselves in performing professionally (Zembylas, 2003). Therefore, studying teachers' emotions has great implications in understanding teachers' identities, which deserves a lot more attention from educational

and psychological researchers in the future studies in this combined area (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009).

Teachers' goals

According to Ford (1992) and Schutz Crowder and White (2001), goals can be regarded as expectations; more specifically, as states that individuals in a society would like the world to be. A goal of a teacher can be formed by both the social context which the teacher lives in and personal traits (e.g. beliefs and identity) that are carried by this teacher (Schutz et al, 2001). It is a more specified dispositional antecedent and can be perceived as a core of a concern which directly relates to teachers' expectations and emotional experiences during teaching (Schutz et al, 2007). It explains specific transactions between events that happen in the classroom and teachers' emotional reactions to them (Schutz et al, 2007) and, just like the other cognitive relationships mentioned earlier, the influences between goals, beliefs, identities and emotions are mutual as well. It works as a reference point for directing teachers' thought and then to specify their emotional experiences during the teaching. In turn, teachers' particularly good or bad feelings may modify their goals for achieving a better teaching results. Based on this statement, the particular goal that teachers carry with them should be studied as a key component of dispositional antecedents, in order to get a better understanding of teachers' emotional experiences.

All these dispositions of teachers discussed above may make an influence on teachers' perceptions and judgements in the elicitation of teachers' emotions. However, little research can be found on examining how teachers' beliefs, identities, and goals can lead their emotions and to what extent these traits can make an influence.

2.2.3 Appraisals and teachers' emotional experiences

2.2.3.1 Teachers' subjective experience of emotions

As discussed in 2.2.1, teachers experience a high variety of emotions during their teaching. Simply, according to two dimensions of emotion valence, these emotions can be divided into positive and negative emotions (Watson & Clark, 1992).

Positive emotions

According a review made by Sutton and Wheatley (2003), the most common positive emotion that teachers experience was caring. Teachers, especially female teachers from elementary schools, reported higher frequencies of the feeling of love and caring (Woods & Jeffrey, 1996), although high school teachers or male teachers also indicated that they had the emotion of caring for their students (Hargreaves, 1998; Sutton, 2000a).

Other positive emotions commonly experienced by teachers were joy and satisfaction (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). These feelings came out when teachers saw their students' performance met their expectation (Sutton, 2000a; Frenzel *et al.*, 2009b). Moreover, teachers might feel excited if students made some unexpected progress (Nias, 1989).

In all, the sources of teachers' positive emotions could be students' cooperation, colleagues' support and parents' respect (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003) and these factors are discussed in the later section of part one.

Negative emotions

In terms of negative emotions in teachers' emotional experience, anger and frustration were the most popularly discussed in many studies (Chang, 2009; Frenzel *et al.*, 2009b; Sutton, 2000a; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Anger normally came out when teachers saw students' misbehaviours in the classroom (Spilt, Koomen & Thijs, 2011; Tsouloupas *et al.*, 2010) and it can be intensified by the teachers' tiredness and stress (Nias, 1989;

Sutton, 2000a; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Beginning teachers were easier to feel anxious due to the lack of experience (Coates & Thoresen, 1976; Varah, Theune & Parker, 1986).

Other negative emotions including helplessness, sadness and guilt might occur when teachers who had low self-efficacy faced un-controllable situations (Kelchtermans, 1996). As many educational psychologists (Carson, 2006; Chang, 2009; Van Horn, Schaufeli, & Enzmann, 1999) argue, unpleasant emotions are key factors that result in teachers' emotional exhaustions, and among these negative emotions, anger, anxiety, frustration, guilt/shame and sadness are main emotions leading to emotional exhaustion of teachers.

In the classroom setting, teachers' emotional experiences closely relate to students' performance (Frenzel, et al., 2009a; Chang, 2009). That is to say, teachers' expectations of the achievement of their teaching goals and outcomes of students' learning are resources of their emotions in the classroom. In addition, in an achievement related context, for example, a teacher teaching and engaging with his/her students in a classroom, people usually have expectations to achieve certain results of the activities; and no matter if they achieve their expectations or fail to attain them, some emotions relating to expectations would come out as consequences of cognitive activities and these emotions can be named as achievement emotions (Weiner, Russell & Lerman, 1979, Pekrun 2000). Pekrun, Goetz, Titz, and Perry (2002) have summarised several achievement related emotions in the academic setting by conducting 5 qualitative studies. Nine emotions emerged from their study and four of these emotions (pride, hope, enjoyment and relief) were positive and five of them (hopelessness, anger, anxiety, shame, and boredom) were negative.

Later, they categorised these emotions based on three main settings in education. These settings were, students "being in class, studying, and writing tests and exams" (p.3,

Pekrun, Goetz, & Perry, 2005). In details, the emotions frequently experienced by students in the classroom were “enjoyment, hope, pride, anger, anxiety, shame, hopelessness, and boredom” (p. 3, Pekrun et al., 2005). The emotions related to students’ learning were the same as those experienced in the classroom and the emotions experienced during tests were “enjoyment, hope, pride, relief, anger, anxiety, shame, and hopelessness” (p. 3, Pekrun et al., 2005).

However, in the current educational psychology domain, when it comes to achievement-related emotions, most of the research talks about emotions related to students’ learning and achievement and so little research can be found on the respect of teachers’ feelings about achievements during the instructions (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Pekrun et al., 2002). As Frenzel, et al., (2009a) have argued, teachers’ emotions in the classroom can transfer with students’ emotions because students’ academic emotions can be used as guidelines for teachers in planning their instructional environments (Pekrun, et al., 2002). As they are closely related to teachers’ teaching, they guide teachers’ teaching goals and method; and in a way, shape teachers’ expectations in teaching. Specifically, if a teacher wants his/her students to experience more positive emotions in academic activities, he/she may expect him/herself to deliver positive emotional influences first. Several research studies (Hargreaves, 2000; Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006; Skinner, & Belmont, 1993) reported that the teacher in the classroom would try to stay positive and let students sense the hope or enjoyment from him/her. In this sense, the academic emotions can transfer between the teacher and students.

Based on this transmission discovered by previous research, the current research decided to adopt achievement emotions discovered from academic setting (Pekrun et al., 2002) as investigation items and since the current study focused on teachers’ emotional experiences in the classroom setting, the class-related achievement emotions (anger,

anxiety, shame, hopelessness) were mainly adopted. The reasons for excluding the positive emotions are as follows. Firstly, as it was argued previously, it is the negative emotion which takes most of the responsibility for teachers' emotional exhaustion and mental burn-out. It would be more important and meaningful to examine how and why the teachers' feeling are drained out. Secondly, the situational antecedents which were selected in the present research for triggering teachers' emotions were students' misbehaviours, as such it may be inappropriate to assume teachers would have positive feelings when they confront students' incivilities in the classroom. Moreover, as the current research studied teachers' emotional reactions to students' misbehaviour or incivilities in the classroom, some other emotions were included into the present research in addition to the academic emotions in the classroom setting. Sadness was one of them, although it was allocated to test-related emotions by Pekrun et al., (2006), it was mentioned by several previous studies (Day & Leitch, 2001; Isenbarger, & Zembylas, 2006). For instance, according to a qualitative study done by Mishna, Scarcello, Pepler, and Wiener (2005) teachers would feel sad when they saw bullying behaviours in their class. Another emotion which was also examined in this research was annoyance, as it was proposed by many participants in the pilot study; and according to the hierarchical cluster of emotions proposed by Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson, & O'connor, (1987), it is close to the emotion of frustration which is one of the key factor leads to teachers' emotional worn-out.

2.2.3.2 Appraisal patterns and teachers' discrete emotions

As mentioned before, students' classroom behaviours would be sources for teachers' emotions, but what specific emotions teachers would feel at the moment of seeing those behaviour depends on their appraisals of those resources. As discussed in Section 2.1.2.2, human appraisals have many dimensions. Together, these dimensions determine or

differentiate discrete emotions when a person judges a situation. As Pekrun (2000, 2006) denotes, in the academic setting, the dimensions of subjective control (or coping potential) and subjective value (or norms and beliefs) are two main appraisal dimensions that involve in producing achievement-related emotions. Later through integrating

assumptions from expectancy-value approaches to emotions (Pekrun, 1992a; Turner & Schallert, 2001), attributional theories of achievement emotions (Weiner, 1985), theories of perceived control (Patrick, Skinner, & Connell, 1993; Perry, 1991), and models involving the effects of emotions on learning and performance (Fredrickson, 2001; Pekrun et al., 2002a; Zeidner, 1998). (p.316, Pekrun, 2006).

Pekrun (2006) and Pekrun et al. (2007) put forward the control-value theory to account for students' achievement related emotions. In the control dimension, expectancies and attributions become key factors in explaining the causal relationship of antecedent-activities, outcomes and feelings of oneself. For the appraisal dimension of value, perceived importance of actions and outcomes are vital elements in determining specific achievement emotions. To clearly explain how control and value dimensions designate discrete achievement emotions, Pekrun (2006) and Pekrun, Frenzel, Goetz and Perry (2007) firstly divide achievement emotions into two groups. One group involves emotions relating to activities and the other group refers to emotions relevant to outcomes of activities. The latter group can be subdivided into two types as well, i.e. prospective outcome emotions and retrospective outcome emotions. Key factors from control-value dimensions that can explain activity-related achievement emotions are people's attentions on their actions in doing the activity. A person's ability of controlling the attention during an activity can result in emotions of enjoyment, anger, frustration and boredom

(Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Further, the crucial factors of control dimension that relate to prospective outcome emotions (e.g., anticipatory joy, anticipatory relief, hope, hopelessness and anxiety) are people's expectancy on whether the success can be achieved or failure can be avoided, and factors relate to retrospective emotions (e.g., pride, shame, anger, sadness) are people's attribution of the cause of the outcomes (Pekrun, 2000, 2006).

Pekrun (2006) and Pekrun, et al., (2007)'s research on the relationship of control-value theory and achievement emotions explains production and specification of academic emotions in education setting. It is a pioneering contribution in applying psychology in education and has great implication in the creation and design of the current research.

Furthermore, as many appraisal theorists (Lazarus, 1991; Smith, & Ellsworth, 1985) argue, certain combination of appraisal dimensions can result in certain corresponding emotions (Demir, Desmet, & Hekkert 2009). That is to say, in spite of differences in situational antecedents, as long as the same appraisal dimensions are combined, the same emotion should be elicited and this combination can be defined as appraisal pattern (Roseman & Smith, 2001). Several appraisal theorists (Frijda, 1986, 2007; Ellsworth, & Smith, 1988; Lazarus, 1991, 2001) proposed several systematically appraisal patterns which can account for several positive and negative emotions. For example, Pekrun et al (2007) used appraisal dimensions of control and value to explain achievement emotions. However, although later they (see Frenzel et al, 2009) tried to expand the new theory in studying teachers' emotions from the perspective of teachers' achievements, limited appraisal dimensions (control and value) and emotions (enjoyment, anger and anxiety) that they included in that study restricted the efficiency in explaining teachers' emotional experiences to a wider extent (Frenzel et al, 2009). Therefore, in order to thoroughly

explain the theoretical mechanism of the generation of emotions that were adopted in this research, the present review draws on more systematic appraisal patterns that combine a higher variety of appraisal variables, in addition to the control-value theory.

Based on the table made by Chang (2009) and Chang and Davis (2009) and sequence of appraisals suggested by Lazarus (1991, 2001), Table 2.2 outlines appraisal patterns of the 6 emotions of teachers when they confront students' misbehaviours. In the first column on the left, five appraisal dimensions were listed. The last one of them, core relational theme, is the core belief that people behold when they feel this emotion (Lazarus, 1991, Chang, 2009; Pekrun, 2006) and it can be seen that for all six negative emotions the relevance and incongruence of a person's goals towards an antecedent are high (Lazarus, 1991).

Table 2.2 Appraisal patterns of discrete emotions

	Anger	Annoyance	Anxiety	Shame (guilt)	Sadness	Hopelessness
*Goal relevance	High	High	High	High	High	High
*Goal incongruence	High	Medium	High	High	High	High
*Agency	Other	Other/ Circumstance	Circumstance	Self	No blame/self	Circumstance
*Control potential	High	High	Low	High	Low	Low
*Core relational theme (Lazarus, 1991, 2001)	An unjustified demeaning offense against me and mine	Involves feeling disturbed or irritated by repeated behaviours	Facing uncertain, existential threat	Having transgressed a moral imperative	A sense of helplessness about restoration of the loss.	Having no desire for amelioration of a dreaded outcome

Note: Adapted from Chang, M. L. (2009). An appraisal perspective of teacher burnout: Examining the emotional work of teachers. *Educational psychology review*, 21(3), 193-218.

The following part of this section discusses the application of these patterns in accounting for teachers' emotions under an education setting.

Anger When a teacher sees students' misbehaviours in the classroom, some negative feelings would potentially come out. Under this circumstance, if the teacher thinks it is the student whom should be blamed, then, the emotion would be narrowed to anger or annoyance. Example scenarios could be, a student intentionally breaks rules of the class, a talented student fails to finish some tasks due to his/her laziness and some disrespectful words or behaviours target on the teacher (Brophy, & McCaslin 1992; Prawat, Byers & Anderson, 1983).

Annoyance The appraisal pattern of annoyance is quite similar to that of the anger. They both occur under the situation where the teacher perceived the goal incongruence as the students' fault. However, there are still factors differentiating these two emotions. As it was shown in Table 2.3, a teacher may feel annoyance rather than anger maybe because the level of the goal incongruence is not that high, which means the students' misbehaviours may not cause very bad influences in the class or severely disturb his/her teaching goals. Additionally, as Siegel (1986) has stated, annoyance is less intensive than anger; therefore, teachers may prefer to report this more socially acceptable emotion in a survey, because it may make them sound unprofessional if they report they feel anger in the class (Liljestrom, Roulston, & deMarrais, 2007). This preference was also found by Kassinove, Sukhodolsky, Tsytsarev, and Solovyova, (1997) who investigated 747 Americans and Russians and discovered the word of anger occurred less-frequently than annoyance in participants' reports.

Anxiety Anxiety happens when teachers feel uncertain about the situation. When a teacher faces some novel incidences in the class and s/he knows it is neither his/her nor the student's fault, the emotion of anxiety may occur, especially when the teacher thinks he has low competence in controlling the situation. For example, according to Bullough et al. (2006), when the teacher does not have enough materials for teaching they may feel

high level of anxiety, as questions from the students may be unexpected and out of his/her control. Additionally, this emotion is more frequently experienced by beginning teachers who lack experience (Coates, & Thoresen, 1976).

Shame As presented in Table 2.3, shame is felt if the teacher blames him/herself for goal incongruences. It is an emotion involving oneCoates, & Thoresen, teachers nor the student's fault, the emotion ofacher believes that he takes the responsibility for making students achieve excellences in the classroom, he may feel shame or guilt if that goal is failed, since he accuses himself for the failure. In addition, Hargreaves and Tuckers (1991) summarised four factors that could be resources for teachers' feeling shame. The first one is the commitment that a teacher takes for caring early-age children. The second one is traditional moral principles that rooted in teachers' professional mission. Thirdly, high demands of accountability in the class, and fourthly, the perfectionism of oneself are all could be reasons for teachers feel shame

Sadness Although sadness is comparatively less common emotion for teachers to show in the classroom (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003), there are several situations that may trigger this feeling of teachers. As Schutz, et al., (2009) note, the sadness comes out if the teacher is over-caring about the students. One teacher in their interviews mentioned she felt sad when she saw one of her talented student had been badly influenced by his poor family, and she could do nothing to help. This close bonding between students and teachers usually occurs in primary education setting (O'Connor, 2008; Jennings, & Greenberg, 2009). Another situation which may make the teacher feel sad is when the teacher's ego is demeaned but s/he has very low competence in coping or changing the situation and then his/her sense of helplessness in restoring the loss of self-esteem may make him/her feel sad (Lazarus, 2001). This circumstance usually happens among beginning teachers (Intrator, 2006).

Hopelessness As Pekrun (2006) argue, hope or hopelessness is an emotion that relates to outcome expectancy. For example, if a teacher has positive expectations about outcomes of his/her students' performance in the class and he has medium control on it then he would feel hopeful for the situation; on the contrary, if the teacher expects negative results/performances from the students and he has very low control about the outcome then hopelessness is highly about to be experienced by the teacher.

2.3 Cultural background and teacher emotion

2.3.1 Why study international teachers' emotion

With the increase in globalization, larger numbers of teachers have begun to teach abroad, and overseas students have become more common in teachers' domestic classrooms (Wlodkowski & Ginsberg, 1995; Weber, 2007). According to a policy briefing written by Universities UK (2007), in 2005/6 there were 31,477 non-UK nationals who worked as academics in British higher education institutions, constituting 19.1% of all academic staff, and this figure has continued growing. This implies a highly-culturally diverse teaching context in UK higher education. Teachers face students from many different countries and students meet lecturers from many different cultural backgrounds. Under this circumstance, if teachers and students are from different cultures, the collision of their different cultural norms and values may lead to confusion in teaching and learning (Hofstede, 1986; Volet & Ang, 1998).

The following research demonstrates the kinds of bafflement that international teachers can experience. Firstly, scenarios provided by Hofstede (1986) showed that

An American teacher at the foreign language institute in Beijing exclaimed in class, "You lovely girls, I love you." Her students were terrified. An Italian professor teaching in the United States complained bitterly about the fact that students were asked to formally evaluate his course. An Indian professor at an

African university saw a student arrive six weeks late for the curriculum, but had to admit him because he was from the same village as the dean. (p. 301)

These cultural misunderstandings can confuse the teacher's appraisal of the environment and increase the potential of them feeling negative emotions (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003).

Furthermore, according to a study conducted by Alberts, Hazen and Theobald (2010), international teachers reported facing more hostile student behaviours than others (e.g. white-male instructors). The possible reason for this was that instructors from vulnerable groups, the fruit of deep-rooted systemic problems such as racism or sexism, might have different power dynamics compared with native-born instructors. Specifically, if their visas depended on their employment, these instructors might become more sensitive to students' misbehaviour that may challenge their working opportunities (Alberts et al., 2010). Therefore, they felt more targeted by students.

Based on the questions discussed above, it can be assumed that working abroad, with the new cultural context, may challenge international teachers' built-in cultural values and beliefs (Hofstede, 1986); therefore, according to appraisal theory, they may generate inappropriate feelings by judging the new environment against their old standards (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Schutz et al., 2009). That is to say, international teachers may experience different or more intense emotions (e.g. anxiety, anger and enjoyment) than local teachers, and their emotional interactions with students can be quite complicated (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). This complexity does potential harm to teachers' emotions and career well-being. However, as Sutton and Wheatley (2003) and Chang (2009) note, little research has investigated and proven whether international teachers' emotional experiences are different from that of local teachers due to these perplexities. Thus, more systematic and empirical studies are highly demanded in this field.

Moreover, as Hofstede (1986) pointed out, in the past three decades educational research on international teachers mainly focused on those who were from developed countries (e.g. the United States or the United Kingdom) and taught in developing countries (e.g. China) (Barratt & Kontra, 2000; Bodycott & Walker, 2000). Nowadays, with the growth of the economy in developing countries (e.g. Allen, Qian, & Qian, 2005) and demand for cultural diversity in wealthy countries (Feachem, 2001), the group of teachers who come from developing countries and teach in western countries has grown (Starr, 2009; Stephens, 2014). However, since the comprehensive studies of all kinds of international teachers' emotional experience are still in high demand, the research on this group of teachers is least developed (Denzin, 2009; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Chang, 2009; Meyer, 2009). Due to this, the present research narrows its targeted population to Chinese teachers who teach in the UK.

2.3.2 The role of culture in emotion

2.3.2.1 Definition and constructs of culture

Although the term – culture has many different definitions in relation to different research areas (Eliot, 2010), this review takes the meaning describing its function in psychological research. As Triandis (1972) suggests culture is “transmitted and created content and patterns of values, ideas, and other symbolic meaningful systems” (p.4) that are “shared within social groups” (Hwang & Matsumoto, 2013, p.22) and shape people's behaviour to make them adapt to the group where they are embedded (Adler, 1927; Hofstede, 1980). The reason people commit to cultural norms and beliefs is that, through this kind of commitment, people can enhance their survival by receiving support from that group (Cosmides & Tooby, 2000; Lazarus, 1991). It is an innate feeling that infants are born with (Adler, 1927). Because of this adaptation, people sharing the same cultural meanings

show a readiness to understand what is happening and to respond accordingly, even if they do not know what is guiding their responses (Lazarus, 1991).

Hofstede (1980, 2001) analysed base data collected by the IBM Company from 116,000 employees across 40 different countries and proposed four cultural dimensions to illustrate values and norms across cultures.

1. *Individualism v.s. Collectivism* describes that, in some cultural groups, people are prone to sacrifice their own will or benefits in order to meet the group's needs. However, in some other cultures, people are encouraged to put their own desires over the group's.
2. *Power distance* depicts the degree to which less powerful members in a group are encouraged to accept inequality caused by social power. Culture having a long power distance makes less powerful persons dare not challenge the social status or benefits of strongly powerful persons.
3. *Uncertainty avoidance*, as an element of culture, indicates the extent to which people in a society can assent to ambiguous and unclear changes and accordingly stick with social beliefs or strategies to avoid said changes. Cultures with strong uncertainty avoidance may be more afraid of changes, as such people within these cultural groups are more aggressive, emotional and security-seeking when they confront uncertain situations.
4. *Masculinity v.s. Femininity* work as two poles of a cultural dimension. Societies which are perceived as more masculine emphasise success and money, and worship whatever is strong; while, societies which are more feminine may care more about the weak and small, and stress the interpersonal relationships.

Furthermore, Bond (1988) put forward a new questionnaire that consisted of "values suggested by Chinese scholars" (Hofstede, 2001, p.351) to measure students' cultural

attitudes across 23 countries, and from this study, Hofstede (2001) discovered a fifth cultural element: *long-term v.s. short-term orientation*. This dimension recognises the influence of Confucian dynamism on Eastern cultures and is used to identify differences in Eastern and Western thinking. The long- and short-term aspects reflect two poles of the teachings of Confucius, from “persistence and thrift to personal stability and respect for tradition” (p.351). As a result:

5. *Long- v.s. Short-Term Orientation* shows whether a society encourages people to enjoy the gratification of material and emotion for the sake of the present or the sake of the future. It also indicates the extent to which a society links its past to the present and challenges in the future. This fifth dimension is proposed to compliment the value missed in previous four dimensions.

As Hofstede (2003) points out, although the cultural dimensions/elements are universal across cultures, different cultural groups give different priority to values in the dimensions. As a result, cultural differences emerge (Mesquita, Frijda & Scherer, 1997).

2.3.2.2 Culture and antecedents

As Mesquita, et al., (1997) point out, there are similarities and differences in antecedent events of emotions across cultures and, based on their review, most of the similarities are in situational antecedents and most of the differences discovered are in dispositional antecedents. Next, these cultural variations will be discussed according to the two types of antecedents.

Culture influence on situational antecedents

Several researchers (Scherer, Summerfield, & Wallbott, 1983; Scherer, & Wallbott, 1994) have revealed that there are evident similarities in antecedents in different countries. Specifically, according to the recognition test done by Boucher and Brandt (1981, 1985) among 4 countries (America, Malaysia, Korea, and Samoa) in two

rounds, the participants in each cultural group could recognise over 65 percent of the antecedents of emotions (including anger, fear, joy sadness, and etc.) that were proposed by people from another cultural origin. This result became strong evidence for saying there are similarities in the events that cause certain emotions among all human beings (Mesquita et al., 1997).

Back to the education context, as was discussed in section 2.2.2.1, in the classroom setting the situational antecedents for teachers' emotions are mainly students' behaviours. Therefore, whether teachers from different countries face similar uncivil student behaviours in the classroom setting is a question that must be discussed (Ding, Li, Li, & Kulm, 2008). In 1988, Wheldall and Merrett investigated 198 British teachers from 32 schools and, based on the results, summarised 10 categories of student classroom misbehaviours (e.g. talking out of turn and unpunctuality). Later, investigating Chinese teachers' perceptions of students' misbehaviour, Ding, Li, Li, & Kulm (2008) adapted the questionnaire created by Wheldall and Merrett (1988). However, before they launched the survey, Ding, et al. conducted cognitive interviews to make the questionnaire fit the local setting and cultural norms. They interviewed eight teachers and found most of the classroom misbehaviours proposed by their participants met the categories suggested in Wheldall and Merrett's (1988) survey. However, Ding et al.'s study still discovered several items that were more adapted to the Chinese context. For example, they separate *students chattering* from *talking out of turn*, since in China the classroom rules are strict on order and Chinese teachers' thought calling out the answer broke the order, which was different from chattering (Ding, et al., 2008). That is to say, although in general situational antecedents for teachers in the classroom are similar across cultures, there are still differences in how the teachers interpret these antecedents.

Another cultural difference that could appear in situational antecedents is the possibility of the occurrence of the antecedents. More precisely, in different cultural contexts the frequency of the appearance of uncivil student behaviour may be different. Teachers in a nursing college in the mainland of China reported such behaviours with the following frequencies:

being unprepared for class (85%), sleeping in class (76%), acting bored or apathetic (75%), holding distracting conversations (66%), arriving late for class (60%), not paying attention (57%), and using cell phones or pagers during class (55%) (Clark, et al., 2010, as cited in Burke *et al.*, 2014, p.168.)

In comparison, a similar study conducted in the UK illustrated that the frequency of cell phone disturbance is 94%, much higher than in China, being late for class at 91.4% (also higher), and getting bored in the class at 82.4%, similar to that of China (Attwood, 2009). Based on these data, one issue may be put forward that when a teacher from a low frequency country works in a high frequency country, they may face problems in dealing with the uncivil behaviours which do not often occur in their domestic teaching context.

Cultural influences on dispositional antecedents

As discussed in section 2.1.2.1, the main dispositional antecedents for emotions are concerns that are held by the person at the time he or she sees the situational antecedent, and these concerns consist of the person's beliefs, goals, and identity which can also be called their values (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Pekrun, et al., 2007; Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991). Therefore, in this section discussing the relationship between culture and a teacher's dispositional antecedents the cultural influence on a person's values will be addressed.

As mentioned in the previous section, there are five cultural dimensions that appear among cultures and, as Mesquita, et al. (1997) argue, when it comes to individual

cultures, the different cultural groups may hold different values in each dimension. Accordingly, as the current research focuses on Chinese and British cultural groups, the core cultural values that are embraced by these two cultures are the centre of the discussion.

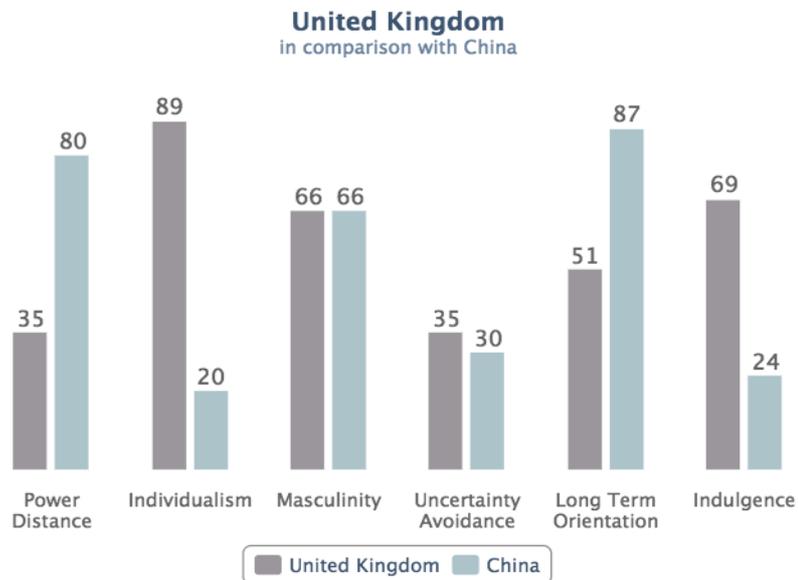
According to research done by Fan (2000) and The Chinese Culture Connection (1987), seventy-one values (see Appendix A) can be summarised as the core of Chinese culture and they are allocated into 8 classifications. In addition, the British Council (2002, 2013) lists five fundamental principles of British life in the handbook for new residents to the United Kingdom. They include: democracy, the rule of law, individual liberty, tolerance of those with different faiths and beliefs, and participation in community life. After the events of September 11, 2001 and July 7, 2005, social media (Telegraph Education, 2005) was used to advertise ten core British values among the society.

In the following paragraphs, these values are discussed and compared between Chinese and British groups based on the cultural values scores (see Figure 2.4) listed on the website of the Hofstede Centre (an organisation is co-founded by professor Geert Hofstede that offers managerial tools and certificate courses based on Hofstede's research for people who intend to conduct culture-related business; For more information, see link <https://geert-hofstede.com/the-hofstede-centre.html>).

To begin, China and the UK have the biggest difference on the respect of the dimension of *Individualism v.s. Collectivism*. The gap is 69 scores, based on Hofstede's analysis. Asians tend to show more national traits reflecting collectivism, as seeking harmony in society is one of the values cherished in Asian philosophy (Leu, Mesquita, & Ellsworth, 2005). This was not only revealed in Figure 2.4, but also in many cross-cultural studies (Triandis, et al., 1993; Brew, Hesketh, & Taylor, 2001; Mesquita, 2001). As Fan (2007) notes, Chinese people put group benefits above individual benefits, and are

keen on having a sense of belonging in the society, so the purpose of their social behaviours are usually group orientated. In contrast, Western culture emphasises individualism (Heine, Lehman, Markus, & Kitayama, 1999). People in these cultures are encouraged to be independent in thinking and behaving (Mesquita, 2001; Hofstede, 2003). As mentioned before, one of the fundamental principles of British life is individual liberty. The Telegraph’s report (2005) also points out that British values cherish personal freedom and ownership of private property.

Figure 2.3 The comparison between China and the UK on cultural values.



Note: This table is adapted from the website of Hofstede Centre. Retrieved, 28, Aug. 2016 from <https://geert-hofstede.com/united-kingdom.html>.

When it comes to the dimension of *power distance*, one of the big differences between Chinese and British national traits is Chinese people prefer to be governed by a leader, whereas British people believe in the rule of law (The Chinese Culture Connection, 1987; Home office, British council, 2013). The cultural value figure also shows this difference (45 points) between China and the UK. As Ho and Chiu (1994) state, in China, people are encouraged to be loyal to superiors and respect their authority. The

hierarchical relationship in social status is very clear and emphasised throughout society (Ho, & Chiu, 1994). However, in British culture the spirit of democracy is more valued and equality among people is emphasised (Parekh, 1992, 2007). As a Telegraph report (2005) reveals "the Saxon... never means anything seriously till he talks about justice and right.

For the dimension of *uncertainty avoidance*, both China and the UK have low scores, as shown in Figure 2.3; which means people from these two countries are generally not afraid of confronting ambiguous situations (Hofstede, 2003). The English term "muddling through" may be a good reflection of British people's attitude towards the unknown or difficult circumstances (Cornish, & Dorman, 2012; Parsons, 2002). The Chinese term "识时务者为俊杰" which translates as 'Those who suit their actions to the times are wise' shows the wisdom of ancient Chinese people for positively adapting themselves to new environments.

Chinese and British also show the same high levels (66 points) of *masculinity* as a cultural value. That is to say, both Chinese and British society value the success and the spirit of working hard. However, as the Hofstede Centre notes, this result may contradict modesty, which is commonly shown in the British society, and they suggest that this contradiction can be explained by the popularity of sarcasm or irony in British culture (Taylor, 2015), which implies British people tend to disguise the hardship of work or life with their particular sense of humour, "keep[ing] a stiff upper lip" when facing adversity (Machin, & Williams, 1998). In Chinese culture, hard work and persistence are key tenets (Harrell, 1985). This is reflected in the modern average daily hours (8.8 hours) of work through the whole year (Phillips, 2015; Wong, Li, & Song, 2007). The qualities that are shown on the feminine side of this dimension in the UK and China are also similar;

according to Fan (2007) and the Home Office (2013), the values of tolerance of others and community/family life are important to both Chinese and British cultures.

Long- v.s. short-term orientation, as a dimension of culture, is reflected in China with a higher level on the long-term orientation than in the UK. That means generally that Chinese people are more pragmatic. They would like to think about the far future and remain thrifty or persevering in preparing for the future. In this dimension, the British show an intermediate score, which means the traits of either extreme of this dimension cannot be determined among British society.

Based on the cultural values discussed above, some emotion theorists (e.g., Leu, et al., 2005; Markus, & Kitayama, 2001) proposed several cultural models of emotion to illustrate the influences of culture on emotions.

Dialectical v.s. Optimizing

Bond (1993) noted that Chinese people tended to feel less extreme emotions, because they believe that these emotions, such as pure joy and anger, were harmful to one's internal spirits; this is similar to the belief that extreme cold and hot are injurious to one's external body (Bagozzi, Wong, & Yi, 1999; Wu, 1982; Lin, 1981). This moderation in emotional experiences can be perceived as a dialectical model of emotions (Bagozzi, Wong, & Yi, 1999; Leu, et al., 2005; Niedenthal et al., 2006). The formation of this belief on feelings can be traced back to ancient Chinese philosophy—*Taoism*, which asserted that the whole world consisted of *Yin* (female) and *Yang* (male) and they should be equally balanced in order to keep the world stable and peaceful (Bond, 1993; Hofstede, 2001; Lin, 1981). According to Taoism and Buddhism, too much pursuit of happiness can result in unhappiness, as this pursuit makes a person surrender to his/her desires and then he would suffer from his/her greed (Lu, 2001; Lenoir, 2015). In modern China, this belief

was even applied as a meditation method to cure people's mental chaos (see Hsiao, Gau, Ingleton, & Shih, 2011).

In comparison, Western cultures usually show a tendency to experience optimistic emotions (Niedenthal, et al., 2006) and this tendency is named as the optimizing cultural model of emotions by Leu, et al., (2005). This model is established based on the humanist philosophy developed during the Renaissance (Taylor, 1999). The humanist philosophy advocates individualistic values and emphasises the right of a person to pursue happiness for his/her or her own sake (Nauert, 2006). Therefore, people from Western cultures would not tend to link extreme happiness to unhappiness, and they may experience or express extreme feelings more often than Asians (Niedenthal, et al., 2006). This difference on affective tendency may result in a difference on dispositional antecedent between Chinese and British teachers.

Engaging and Disengaging Emotions

Another two models which can describe the emotions under different cultures are socially engaging and socially disengaging models of emotions (Kitayama, Mesquita, & Karasawa, 2006). These models derive from collectivism and individualism, and mainly focus on explaining emotions that were elicited from social interactions (Kitayama, et al., 2006). More precisely, in a culture where collectivism is a salient value, people in the society may develop a socially interdependent identity (Gundlach, Zivnuska, & Stoner, 2006); which means when they have social interactions they think they have a duty to create group harmony with one another. As Fng (2000) argues, Chinese people try to give and gain "faces" (which can be understood as respect) to and from each other during social interactions. If this harmony is facilitated by a person, positive social emotions (e.g., respect and friendliness) from him/her would come out, and his/her "face" is enhanced; however, if the harmony is broken, certain negative emotions, for example

shame or guilt, would come out as a result of a sense of losing his/her “face” (Gausel, & Leach, 2011). This tendency in having emotions can be called the social engaged model of emotions (Kitayama, et al., 2006).

In contrast, people from a culture where individualism is the higher value in the society may have social independent identities (Kitayama, et al., 2006). A person with this identity would focus on his/her independent self more when engaged in social interactions. As a result, his/her emotional experiences in these interactions are mainly derived from situations where the independent self is enhanced (emotions such as pride may appear) or impeded (emotions such as anger or frustration may appear) (Mosquera, Manstead, & Fischer, 2000). This way of generating emotions can be perceived as the socially disengaging model (Kitayama, et al., 2006).

All of these cultural models of emotions illustrate how culture influences a person’s dispositional antecedents and then influences their emotional experiences.

2.3.2.3 Culture and appraisal

As many emotion researchers (e.g. Lazarus 1991; Markus & Kitayama 1994b) propose, culture can influence emotional experience and emotional expression, inasmuch as it shapes not only people’s beliefs but also displays rules of behaviour (Triandis, 1972; Mesquita et al., 1997). However, since the proposed research mainly focuses on examining teachers’ emotional experiences, the discussion of cultural influence on emotional expression is not included in this review.

As stated in Section 2.1.3, the core of emotional experience is the emotional episode, also referred to as the discrete emotion (Schutz *et al.*, 2009). Thus, for understanding the relationship between culture and emotional experience, it is essential to study how culture may influence the generation of an emotion. At this stage, appraisal theory offers a way to interpret this kind of influence.

In order to explain the role of culture in appraisal, Mesquita & Ellsworth (2001) put forward a model named the *universal-contingency*. More precisely, the universal part is the appraisal pattern and the corresponding emotion. For example, if a student's behaviour fails to meet the teacher's teaching goal (*goal-incongruence*) and the teacher thinks this is the student's fault (*accountability*) then anger probably comes into the teacher's mind. As Lazarus (1991) notes, this appraisal pattern and related emotions are universal, however, whether the teacher judges this failure as their own or the students' failure varies from teacher to teacher. This variation is defined as *contingency* (Mesquita & Ellsworth, 2001). Still in the same case, if an international teacher perceives the failure as the result of his/her bad teaching skills due to different cultural beliefs, anxiety or sadness is likely. This example illustrates that although basic emotions and the appraising process are universal, when and how an emotion is going to be elicited is different through cultures and the thing resulting in these different beliefs among cross-cultural teachers is called *value-priority* in culture, which is mentioned in the previous section. Hereby, the function of culture in appraisal is recognised.

2.3.2.4 Culture and subjective experiences

As discussed in Section 2.1.2.3, the emotional experience has the nature of reflexive consciousness. Based on this nature, Mesquita *et al.* (1997) argue that the emotional experience includes not only the awareness of several emotional components (see Section 2.1.2.3), but also “reflections of the fit between one's emotion and social norms or expectations, of expected social reactions to one's emotion, and of the implications of one's emotion for further social interactions” (p.273). This statement clearly indicates the adaptation function of emotion and depicts mutual influences between a person's emotional experience and the society where he or she lives. This has great implications for studying emotions cross-culturally. Taking teachers who teach

abroad as an example, since they are new to the cultural context where they teach, this group of teachers may not be sure if their emotional reactions to students' classroom behaviours fit into local social norms, and they may also have issues in judging/understanding the social reactions of the local society to their emotions. These uncertainties in social interactions may cause stress and anxiety for international teachers and may lead to extra emotional exhaustion for this group of teachers, in comparison with local teachers.

Although research on cross-cultural emotional experience is scattered, several pieces of empirical evidence can be found that have discovered differences in emotions across countries (Bond, 1993; Mesquita et al., 1997).

To begin, Stipek (1998) conducted research to inspect situations where Chinese and American students could feel pride, shame, and guilt. One hundred and one Chinese students and seventy-eight American students were measured through a questionnaire. The results indicated that, although both Chinese and American students reported feeling guiltier and more ashamed when they themselves were caught cheating in examination than when their siblings were caught, Americans felt a higher intensity of these emotions than Chinese. Difference appeared in the circumstance where Chinese respondents mentioned a higher intensity of the feeling of pride in seeing their children going to prestigious universities than seeing themselves attend; however, Americans felt equally proud in both situations. This difference indicates that when facing the same situation, Chinese might feel differently than Americans.

This assumption can be supported by research conducted by Matsumoto, et al. (2002) who revealed that Americans expressed stronger emotions than they felt, whereas, Japanese kept the same level of feeling and expression when it came to the intensity of emotions felt and expressed. In this research Matsumoto, et al. (2002) also compared two

cultural values (individualism-collectivism and status differentiation) between these two countries for uncovering factors accounting for this difference; however, no significant difference was found between American and Japanese perceived cultural norms.

Therefore, they called for further research on people's judgment processes in emotion to discover possible explanations for different feelings across cultures.

The research discussed above has implied that emotional experiences varied from culture to culture, however, little research can be found examining the emotions of persons who immigrate to a different cultural context. The collision of two cultures and the kind of emotional experiences it can bring to the immigrants is a less discussed question among cross-culture psychology researchers, and it is least developed in the domain of teacher emotion. This shortage results in the design of the present research.

2.4 Gap and research questions

2.4.1 The gap

After introducing the background of this research, several research gaps are defined in this section then, the significance of the present study is justified.

On one side, the importance of studying teacher emotion has been recognized by educational psychologists in recent decades (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003) and it is not difficult to find research (e.g. Smylie 1999; Näring, Vlerick & Van de Ven., 2012) that examines the link between teachers' emotional exhaustion and burnout. However, according to the findings in a review study conducted by Chang (2009), most of the recent emotional research discusses emotional exhaustion on a general level, and little literature discusses the discovery of the relationship between teachers' discrete emotions and their teaching or burnout. As Lazarus (1991) and Chang and Davis (2009) argue, experiencing specific types of concrete emotions long-term can lead to forming a habitual appraisal pattern. In other words, if a teacher repeatedly experiences some negative

emotions, he or she may build a tendency to judge future students' behaviours in a negative way, and this is the beginning of their emotional exhaustion (Chang, 2009). Thus, for improving teachers' emotional well-being effectively, it is pivotal for researchers to conduct sophisticated studies on the relationship between discrete emotions and teacher burnout. In order to fulfil this aim, the process of how an emotion is elicited needs to be examined. At this stage, the dominant trigger—students' misbehaviour and teachers' unpleasant emotions—should come as the first factor being examined. Most of the previous research (e.g., Frenzel et al., 2009a, 2009b; Meyer & Turner, 2002) did not distinguish the role of situational antecedents and dispositional antecedents in eliciting teachers' emotions. The unclarity of emotion antecedents sets limitations for interpreting their research findings. In addition, the scenarios that they (e.g., Hosotani, & Imai-Matsumura, 2011; Pekrun & Goetz, 2005; Schutz, et al., 2009) used were mainly word descriptions or participants' retrospective memories. However, as Zmud, Lee-Gosselin, Munizaga, and Carrasco (2013) argue, the audio or video scenarios can create a more realistic setting for participants to make decisions when filling in the survey. That is to say, letting teachers watch video clips, rather than read words, about students' behaviour can arouse their emotions more directly and realistically. In addition, according to Triandis, Chen, and Chan (1998) and Peng, Nisbett, and Wong, (1997), it is pivotal to use fixed scenarios in measuring cultural differences, since the unwanted interference from varied determinants of participants' decisions can be avoided in this way, and then the comparisons between different cultures would be more meaningful and reliable. Based on these suggestions from previous research, the current study uses the same video-clips of students' classroom behaviours as situational antecedents to measure both Chinese and British teachers' emotional reactions to see if there is a difference. This study aims to bridge the disconnect between specific antecedents that are faced or held by

teachers and their particular emotional reactions, and then contribute detailed reasons or explanations for teachers' emotional exhaustion.

On the other side, according to appraisal theory, when a teacher appraises students' misbehaviours, he or she makes the judgment based on his or her inherent goals and beliefs, and as Schutz et al. (2001) propose, one's built-in goals and beliefs are culturally formed. Then, it can be supposed that when an international teacher (e.g. a Chinese teacher) judges an antecedent, his or her original cultural beliefs and goals can be challenged by the new teaching context. As such, he or she may experience different or more intense emotions in comparison with domestic teachers. However, few studies have been applied to find the real emotional experiences that this group of teachers has lived. Would they feel intense and anxious when teaching in a new cultural context? Are they happy with their culturally different students? All these questions become motivations for conducting the present research.

In sum, the purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between students' misbehaviours, teacher emotions, and teachers' cultural background, and to try to disclose the mutual influence within these three components. The results of this study can not only help international teachers understand their emotional experiences and learn to regulate their emotions, but also help administrators discover appropriate training methods for international teachers. Moreover, it may make contributions in completing the map which future educational psychologists can draw on to find thorough ideas or solutions of teachers' emotional issues under cross-cultural contexts.

2.4.2 Research questions

As it mentioned in the review, the generation of a teacher's emotions depends on judgement of antecedents (e.g. students' behaviours) that happen in their classroom (Frenzel, et al., 2009b; Lazarus, 1991). For making this judgement, the teacher needs to

draw on his or her innate beliefs or goals that are widely shaped by their cultural contexts (Schutz et al., 2001). Thus, it can be assumed that teachers from different cultural backgrounds may appraise students' behaviours differently; as a result, they can generate different emotions. This assumption has significant meaning in studying international teachers' emotions. Because, once it is supported, it illustrates that the international teachers' emotional experience could be dramatically different from that of teachers teaching domestically, and their emotional well-being may be weaker than that of the local teachers. However, so far, no detailed research has tested this hypothesis, nor is it known if international teachers would experience more positive or negative emotions in comparison to local teachers. Therefore, in order to examine the important assumption made above, the main research question of the present research is:

Do British instructors and Chinese instructors experience different emotions when they encounter the same student behaviours?

Furthermore, seeking an insight into teachers' emotional experience, it is crucial to discover the patterns of differences among teachers' emotional experiences and factors related to that difference. It can be supposed that when facing the same students' behaviours, these two groups of teachers may show different trends in experiencing some emotions. For testing this hypothesis, the sub-questions are proposed as:

If the answer to the main question is yes, then to what extent do they differ?

How and why do these two groups of teachers' emotional experiences differ?

If the answer is no, then why there is no difference?

Finally, for the purpose of building a deeper insight into factors that can influence teachers' emotion and provide appropriate explanations, as well as the differences and similarities on a wider background for future emotion studies in cross-cultural contexts, one further sub-question is put forward:

What factors relate to the differences/similarities between British instructors' and Chinese instructors' emotional experiences?

All of these questions guide the design of the methods used in this study, as is discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter 3 Methodology

Introduction

The last chapter reviewed the literature on teacher emotion, student misbehaviour, cultural values and appraisal theory. The aim of this chapter is to review and discuss methodological issues that relate to the present study and illustrate the design of this research. It starts with reviewing the literature on research paradigms and data collection methods (e.g. questionnaires). Following this section, the research questions and strategies of the design are stated in detail. Later, the three phases of the research process: on-line electronic survey, diary study, and interview survey, are discussed. This chapter concludes with discussions of the ethical consideration.

3.1 A Review of methodological methods

To begin, research paradigms are examined to demonstrate the rationale for the design of the present research. They are developed through the following three sections: quantitative paradigm, qualitative paradigm and mixed methods. After reviewing paradigms, data collection methods that fit in the present research are introduced. By discussing the advantages and disadvantages of the methods used in previous studies, this short review illustrates why this research employs mixed methods.

3.1.1 Research paradigms

According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), paradigms can be viewed as ‘basic belief systems (p.107)’. One system contains a set of basic beliefs which reflect an individual’s worldview. These beliefs define, shape and connect the world to their holder (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). They work as guidance for one’s ways of thinking and acting (Haq, 2014; Scotland, 2012; Mertens, 2005). Therefore, A paradigm that a researcher takes outlines how the targeted research phenomenon or population will be viewed and investigated.

As Guba and Lincoln (1994) and Mertens (2005) point out, a research paradigm composes of three main components. They are ontology, epistemology and methodology. These components define a paradigm and, together, shape a specific way of studying social realities (Creswell, 2002).

Ontology

According to Smith (2003), ontology “is the science of what is, of the kinds and structures of objects, properties, events, processes and relations in every area of reality” (p.155). When it comes to its assumptions in social research, ontology raises the question what is the reality of a social phenomenon that a researcher aims to investigate? (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Mertens, 2005). Different research paradigms hold different ontological assumptions (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000; Creswell, 2002; Scotland, 2012). For example, under the paradigm of positivism, the reality can be viewed as pure objective nature which is “external to individuals” (Cohen et al., 2000, p.5); and, it also can be seen as an outcome of human cognition in the perspective of constructivist paradigm.

Epistemology

Epistemology as a philosophical branch concerns the nature of knowledge (Cohen et al., 2000; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). It depicts how the knowledge is formed and “the relationship between the knower and the would-be known” (Mertens, 2005, p. 8). For instance, a researcher can see him/herself as an observer of the phenomenon or participants, if he/she asserts that the objectivity is the priority and the knowledge can be independent from the individuals’ interpretation (Creswell, 2002; Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Methodology

This component of paradigms illustrates approaches or strategies used in investigating a social phenomenon (Crotty, 1998; Creswell, 2002; Smith 2003). It depicts how the believed reality can be studied and the knowledge of would-be known can be created

(Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Under the guidance of methodology, many specific methods/ways can be developed to collect the data. Then a question can be raised: what will be the best method to be used to study the reality? The answer to this question is subject to what ontological and epistemological assumptions that are held by the researcher (Cohen et al., 2000; Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

As several scholars (e.g. Crotty, 1998; Cohen et al., 2000) argue, there is a progressive relationship underneath these three components. Precisely, one particular type of ontological assumptions give rise to its corresponding epistemological assumptions, and the be-held epistemological assumption navigate the methodological strategies for its holder, and finally, under the guidance of one methodological approach, specific instruments for collecting data are designed (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). That is to say, in each paradigm, a particular systematic way of studying the social reality is constructed. Three main paradigms that are widely used in educational research are summarised by Guba and Lincoln (1994) and Scotland (2012). The next section describes these three paradigms into details.

3.1.2 Positivism/Postpositivism

Positivism (or quantitative paradigm) is usually perceived as a research paradigm that studies the social world scientifically and quantitatively (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000; Alenezi, 2013). It assumes that the social reality can be examined “in the same way as the natural world” (Mertens 2005, p.8). The ontological assumption of this paradigm suggests that there is one reality existing no matter if the research discovers it or not (Pring, 2000). In terms of its epistemological assumption, the positivism proclaims that there should be no interactions between the researcher and the studied subject and the absolutely objective knowledge should be achieved through direct observation; and indiscernible substances cannot be accepted as demonstrating scientific knowledge

(Lincoln & Guba, 2000; Mertens, 2005; Scotland, 2012). For achieving this aim, positivists assert that quantitative research should be free from the researchers' own values. In short, positivistic science is "value-free" (p.21, Robson, 2011).

Later, several researchers (e.g. Proctor & Capaldi, 2008; Cohen et al., 2000) argue that it could be problematic to apply positivistic paradigm in the domain of social science, where the main research target is human behaviour. As Cohen et al. (2000) note, human nature involves enormously indefinable phenomena that dramatically contrast with the empirical regularities of natural science, thus, it is impractical to apply standard positivistic research to investigate these intangible social interactions among humans. Based on this argument, post-positivism is put forward. According to the ontological assumptions held by post-positivists (e.g. Phillips & Burbules, 2000), the reality is limited by the researcher's own knowledge, beliefs, and perspectives and as such the data or evidence discovered by the research are partial or fallible. According to post-positivism, the process of research is to find proper explanations for situations and these explanations can be challenged or even discarded if more sound evidence is found against them (Mertens, 2005). This assertion describes the characteristics of the quantitative paradigm in social science research in a subtler way. When it comes to its epistemological assumptions, the paradigm of post-positivism states that although the objectivity should be set as an ultimate goal for researchers to achieve, how the survey is conducted; what facts are focused upon; or how the data are interpreted are widely influenced by values held by the researchers and socio-political groups (e.g. research communities) (Cohen et al., 2000). This also means that quantitative research could not be completely 'value-free'. Since the present research examines teacher emotions in classroom contexts where multiple human interactions happen the design of this research allies with the view of post-positivism.

Methodology of positivism aims to discover the general causal law by doing empirical research on regularities (Creswell, 2009). For achieving this aim, empirical tests, including true experimentations and correlational tests are usually used to discover prediction and generalisation of causes of phenomena (Scotland, 2012). However, as several social science researchers (e.g. Campbell & Stanley, 1966; Creswell, 2009; Mertens, 2005) argue, directly applying these research methods which are used in natural science into social research is not appropriate. Because, it is impossible to control all the interfering variables that come from participants' background when doing studies of human's social behaviours (Mertens, 2005). Therefore, based on ontological and epistemological assumptions of post-positivism, post-positivists create quasi-experimental research methods to adapt the scientific research methods into social research. Moreover, specific research instruments that are used widely in this paradigm are closed-end questionnaire, standard test and structured observation (Cohen et al., 2000; Haq, 2014; Pring, 2000). Data collected through these methods are mainly quantitative although qualitative methods still can be employed under this research paradigm.

Several strengths of quantitative research owing to which it has been adapted in the present research. Firstly, quantitative research can test hypotheses or already-built theories by doing deductive investigation. Secondly, since results of quantitative research are numerical, they are relatively independent from researchers' subjective opinions. Therefore, using this method can lessen bias that influences the reliability of the research. Furthermore, quantitative research is quite helpful in searching a large population, which lets the research findings be generalised to a larger extent. Finally, applying quantitative methods to collect data is comparatively quick and the analysis of the data is less time-consuming, due to the employability of computer software (e.g. SPSS). This

characteristic of quantitative methods makes the research more efficient (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

There are some obvious weaknesses of quantitative research, making it imperfect for some research circumstances. More precisely, although the data collected by quantitative methods are objective and general, they do not show reasons contributing to specific results from individuals and interactive relationships between participants and the research. In addition, quantitative research mainly focuses on hypotheses and theory testing, and this may result in overlooking phenomena that can generate new theories or hypotheses (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Thus, for making up for the shortcomings of quantitative research, qualitative research should be considered in studying social phenomena.

3.1.3 Constructivism/Interpretivism

As Denzin and Lincoln (2011) state, the constructive paradigm (also known as qualitative or interpretive paradigm) involves investigating the world through a naturalistic and interpretive lens. According to ontological assumptions of interpretivism, social realities or social episodes (e.g. situational behaviours) are constructed via human interactions and have no meaning if human beings' interpretations of them are not understood (Robin, 2011). That is to say, there are multiple realities existing due to different interpretations of different people and constructivists deny the existence of an objective reality (Mertens, 2005).

Constructive epistemology notes the knowledge is created through the interaction between the knower's consciousness and the would-be known object (Mertens, 2005; Scotland, 2012). It emphasises human's subjectivity in generating knowledge. It assumes the world does not have meaning until people construct it (Crotty, 1998). Interpretivism asserts that people behave actively and creatively in their social interactions. This means

each individual may act uniquely, based on his or her own interpretation, to make the event meaningful. In addition, as Thomas (1928, as cited in Cohen et al., 2000) pointed out, a situation becomes real to a person when the person believes that it is real and his or her reaction to the situation relies on this belief. Thus, from this point of view, researchers have to pay great attention to the reality discovered by qualitative research, because this reality is subjective and multi-layered. As a result, when employing qualitative research methods, the strengths and weaknesses need to be understood thoroughly by the researcher.

Constructive methodology aims to investigate the world through individuals' perceptions. It claims that although positivistic research depicts objective facts in a social context, the questions like how these facts come into being and why they can make sense to people in this context need to be answered by examining human's understanding of the situation. Thus, qualitative research plays a key role in the study of the social world (e.g. in social psychology and education) (Cohen et al., 2000).

As Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) suggest, qualitative methods provide strengths in, firstly, understanding complicated social phenomena. They help the researcher comprehend participants' personal experiences of a situation. Through this kind of research, the reason why and how one phenomenon could happen may be uncovered. Secondly, since personal behaviour is highly influenced by the context where they are embedded and this context is quite changeable, via studying people's interpretation of the event, the special contextual factors related to the phenomenon may be discovered. Lastly, qualitative methods can be used to investigate the social world inductively. Which means, after summarising many interpretations of a phenomenon, some new expounding theories could be produced by research.

Furthermore, if a researcher wants to make research data more valid and reliable, he or she should be aware of the weaknesses of using qualitative research. To be more precise, the knowledge generated in qualitative research may not be widely generalizable, as the findings are subjective within a specific sample. Moreover, since the transcription of qualitative data is based on the researcher's interpretation and understanding, results of the research could contain bias from the researcher. Last but not the least, doing qualitative research may take a longer time than doing quantitative; because in qualitative research, data are collected individually from participants, one at a time, and the analysis of data may need to be done manually.

3.1.4 Transformative paradigm

The transformative paradigm (also known as critical paradigm or feminism) emerges due to the awareness of the dominant research paradigms were mainly proposed by white, able-bodied, male researchers (Mertens, 2005). The perspectives of the minority or marginalised social groups are overlooked in the mainstream social research (Crotty, 1998; Mertens, 2005). The objectivity previously defined in social research may be biased by the researchers' gender and ethic (Gilligan, 1982). Therefore, for reflecting diversities in social reality, feminists develop this third paradigm to make the voice of researchers from minority groups heard (Mertens, 2005). This paradigm judges the reality that is addressed by the powerful communities and tries to make people critically review their social estates (Freire, 1970)

The ontological position of this paradigm is similar to that of constructivism. It accepts the multiple realities in social research (Mertens, 2005). In addition to that, this paradigm emphasises the influence from values of society, gender, culture, politics and ethics on the reality (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In other words, the reality is built in a historical realism (Scotland, 2012). Therefore, when a researcher tries to investigate a

social phenomenon, he/she should critically examine what is going to be taken as real, since the reality can be shaped by participants' historical backgrounds (Mertens, 2005).

Critical epistemology stands with subjectivism, which means knowledge cannot be independent from its knower. It is determined and influenced by the social power that is held by the would-be knower (Cohen et al., 2000). As Crotty (1998) states, the meaning of the world already exists and people born into a society to inhabit the pre-existing knowledge. As such Siegel (2006) puts forward that research interests can be developed from researchers' race, culture, and gender and the relationship between the researcher and participants can be interactive (Mertens, 2005).

Methodology of this paradigm is guided by aims of revealing injustice, questioning the conventional social states and empowering the disempowered (Crotty, 1998). It seeks for changes for the existing inequality (Freire, 1970). Therefore, researchers who take this paradigm usually have preconceived starting views about the marginalized research targets already. Moreover, as Mertens (2005) point out, research methods used under this framework are pluralistic. The empiricists who borrow this framework to study the world are inclined to employ quantitative research methods. They stand in line with post-positivists to avoid biases from racism, cultural stereotypes, and sexism in conducting the research (Harding, 1992). Other social researchers who aims to discover "diverse voices" (Mertens, 2005, p.26) from the minority may examine realities through interpretive ways. Interviews, observations and open-ended questionnaires all can be used to generate qualitative data.

Although critical paradigm is good at discovering overlooked realities, there are several shortcomings of this framework as well. Firstly, the core aim of this paradigm is to make a change in the society. However, not every change will be welcomed by current social conventions (Giroux, 2011). Thus, the researcher may not get the support from the

community where they intend to conduct the research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Second, since another aim of using this paradigm is to make the voice of minority or marginalised groups heard, the researcher may bias participants by over selling them the benefits of joining the research (Scotland, 2012). Participants may try to please the researcher by giving the responses that he/she wants to have to gain those benefits. Thirdly, researchers who use this paradigm may recruit participants stereotypically and overlook participants' own perceptions of their identities in the phenomenon (Scotland, 2012).

3.1.5 Pragmatism

Mixed methods paradigm, also known as multi-strategy research or multi-method research is created under the philosophical framework of pragmatism (Bryman, 2006; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Beliefs of pragmatism claim that the world is not dualistic. Different ways (e.g. observation, experiments, human experience) of research can be useful as long as they help the researcher gain a better understanding of the researched world (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Pragmatists advocate that research approaches should be value-oriented; the methods being used should aim to discover practical consequences that can prove the values.

Based on this view, mixed methods research combines quantitative and qualitative methods to fulfil the multiple purposes of a study. As Johnson & Onwuegbuzie (2004) state, qualitative data, such as texts and narratives, can make numerical data become meaningful and, in turn, quantitative data can give objective proof of the qualitative data (e.g. words and opinions). Therefore, applying mixed methods can help the researcher gain a deeper insight, which may be missed in research using a single method, of one phenomenon. As a consequence, the conclusions driven in mixed methods research can be more reliable and generalizable. In addition, by incorporating mixed methods, the

research can not only test hypotheses or theories but also generate grounded theories. All these strengths of mixed methods contribute to the design of the present research.

Although mixed methods research neutralises the demerits of both quantitative and qualitative methods, there are still several shortcomings of this research method. Firstly, it may be difficult for a single researcher to conduct complicated mixed methods in one study. Secondly, the data collected from both quantitative and qualitative methods may be complex and conflicting. Thirdly, doing mixed methods research can be time-consuming and expensive (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Thus, when a researcher designs a mixed method study, he or she needs to bear these weaknesses in mind in order to maximise the efficiency of his or her research.

To sum up, as Cohen et al., (2000) point out, each research paradigm has its own merits and demerits in studying the social reality. What is the best framework for a research to use is based on this researcher's own research purposes. The current research takes the ontological and epistemological positions from the critical research paradigm. The reasons are as follows. Firstly, the aim of the current research is to discover emotional experiences of the minority teacher group (Chinese teachers who work in British universities) and reveal possible explanation for the social phenomenon through participants' own interpretations. Secondly, the emotional experiences which are examined in studies are based on teachers' subjective reports. As such, the reality is shaped by participants' different cultural backgrounds and ethics. Thirdly, the research interests of the current studies directly come from the researcher herself who is also a member of the targeted minority group. Therefore, a preconceived view has already been carried by the researcher when designing this research.

Furthermore, the methodology which is employed in the present research is from mix-methods. Since the ultimate aim of the present research is to test the assumption of

whether Chinese teachers' emotional experiences are different from those of British teachers without the influence from cultural stereotypes; the quantitative method is used as it is strong in examining pre-set assumptions and avoiding the bias from researchers' subjective values. Secondly, the research strives to discover the perceived influences on teachers' emotional experiences of student disruptive behaviours; thus it is quite appropriate to employ qualitative methods to collect teachers' own interpretation of their experiences. Through this mix-method design the goals of this research can be accomplished in an effective way.

3.2 A review of mixed data collection methods

As it was addressed in previous section, the current research takes a mixed research methodology to investigate the social phenomenon. According to Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, and Hanson (2003), four criteria can be used to design the mixed methods. Different types of mixed methods are differentiated by the sequence of implementing quantitative and qualitative methods; the priority of quantitative and qualitative methods in the design; the time when the quantitative and qualitative results are combined; and their theoretical foundations (Creswell et al., 2003). As such in this section, six types of mixed methods are reviewed along with these four criteria, for providing a solid methodological background for the present research.

3.2.1 Sequential explanatory design

In this type of mixed method, quantitative data collection and analysis comes first and later the qualitative data is collected to provide explanation for the quantitative findings (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006). Usually, it is the quantitative data take the priority in this design. The integration of two different types of data happens during the interpretation stage of the research. As Creswell et al., (2003) note, this type of mixed

methods design can or cannot be led by a theoretical base. It depends on the researcher's research purpose.

The design of this type of mixed method is quite straightforward. It is particularly good at confirming hypotheses and explaining surprising findings (Ivankova et al., 2006). In addition, since the implementing process of this mixed methods design is quite clear, reporting data collected from this framework can be easy and distinct. However, one big shortcoming of using this framework is time-consuming. As the two processes are separated clearly, the qualitative process can not be started until the quantitative section is finished. Another weakness is this design generates large amount of work for a single researcher if he/she gives the equal priority to both quantitative and qualitative process.

3.2.2 Sequential exploratory design

The sequential exploratory design is similar to the previous type. In this mixed method framework, there is also a specific generating sequence of two types of data but this time is the qualitative method coming first and followed by the quantitative method (Cameron, 2009). In this framework, the priority is preferably given to the qualitative study. Similar to explanatory design, quantitative and qualitative results are combined in the discussion stage (Creswell et al., 2003). It is not necessary to apply this framework under a theoretical perspective.

The main aim of this mixed method type is to explore social phenomena. It studies the social reality in an inductive way. It is useful in discovering theories or identifying emerging elements from the researched sample and generalising the qualitative findings to larger population (Cameron, 2009). It also can be useful for a researcher who wants to create and test a new instrument (Creswell et al., 2003). There are also several drawbacks of using this mixed method framework. In addition to the weakness of taking a long time of implementing, researchers may also find the

quantitative phase is hard to be constructed due to the limited generalisation of qualitative findings.

3.2.3 Sequential transformative design

In sequential transformative framework, there are also two separated phases of studies which come in order. However, unlike the previous two frameworks, the order of quantitative and qualitative studies is not fixed. The priority of data collection can be given to either quantitative or qualitative process or even both (Creswell et al., 2003). Data collected from different process are merged in the interpretation stage. This type of mixed method is theory-driven. It emphasises the importance of theoretical perspective in guiding the study (Terrell, 2012).

The aim of this framework is to assist researchers to attain their theoretical perspective effectively in studying a phenomenon. Through using the sequential transformative mixed methods, researchers can gain understandings of people from diverse groups in a more flexible way (Terrell, 2012). This design also shares the advantages and disadvantages of the previous two sequential designs. One particular weakness of using this design is there is a lack of guidance in literature about how to analyse data effectively to fit in the theoretical perspective.

3.2.4 Concurrent triangulation design

This type of mixed methods design aims to use two methods to answer the same research questions at the same time (Greene & Caracelli, 1997). Both quantitative and qualitative methods are used to collect data concurrently. Ideally, the priority is assigned to two different methods equally. The data are integrated during interpretation stage. This design may or may not be driven by theoretical foundations (Creswell et al., 2003).

According to Creswell et al., (2003), this framework is widely known to most researchers, as it can generate considerable and well-validated data in a relatively short

period of time. However, several disadvantages of this framework also need to be addressed. Firstly, it can result in a mess for early-stage researchers since it requires sophisticated researching and analysing skills to organise and compare data from two distinct methods at the same time. Secondly, it may cause confusions for researchers, when discrepancies appear among different types of data and the solution is unclear (Creswell et al., 2003).

3.2.5 Concurrent nested design

The concurrent nested design is like the previous framework which aims to generate quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously. However, in this framework, the priority is given to one type of method and the other type is nested in the design to either answer a research question from a different dimension or explore extra information from a different level (Tashakkori, & Teddlie, 1998). The integration of quantitative and qualitative data happens during the analysis stage. This framework can be used whether there is theoretical guidance or not.

This framework shares the strengths with the concurrent triangulation design. For example, it is also a time-saving design, because different types of data can be gathered during one data collection phase. Moreover, it can provide researchers different angles to view the data. For instance, if a qualitative method embeds some quantified data to describe the participants, the interpretation of the results will be multi-dimensional (Creswell et al., 2003; Morse, 1991). The demerits of this design include unequal evidence may be discovered from each research method; and it demands researchers' excellent data analysis abilities in transforming one type of data into another (Creswell et al., 2003).

3.2.6 Concurrent transformative design

This last type of mixed methods design indicates that the use of a specific concurrent mixed methods design is driven by researchers' theoretical positions (Terrell, 2012). For fulfilling different research purposes the choice of concurrent designs can be different and fluid as long as it fits in the researcher's theoretical paradigm. As such this design contains the features of the previous two concurrent design. The priority can be assigned to either quantitative or qualitative process or both. The data from different collection methods usually mixed during the analysis, but still it can change according to the researcher's different research aims (Creswell et al., 2003). It also shares all the advantages and disadvantages of the other two concurrent mixed methods framework, but may be more beneficial for researchers who already take the transformative research paradigm (Creswell et al., 2003).

To conclude, as my research takes the theoretical framework of transformative paradigm, I decided to use the sequential transformative design to study the target social phenomenon. Moreover, since the objective of the present research is to test one proposed assumption and tries to provide possible explanations for the finding, I followed the sequential explanatory design by conducting a quantitative study first and then a qualitative study. But I gave these two processes equal priority.

3.2.7 Review of survey instrument

In this section, the methods involved in collecting data are reviewed, and those suitable for the present research are examined in particular.

According to Robson (2011), survey is a widely used "non-experimental fixed research design" (p.242), which normally uses descriptive methods to investigate individuals, social groups, and communities. Through describing, comparing, and analysing substances, the survey tries to depict a social phenomenon or event that consists

of these researched entities. The complexity of a survey is varied based on the purposes of the investigation. Specifically, a survey could be a simple design which describes some existing situations or it could be multi-level research that tests a relationship between social events (Cohen et al., 2000).

There are many features of surveys. First, a survey can be applied to obtain standardized data, since it asks the same questions for all the participants. Second, the survey is good at producing descriptive, explanatory and even interpretative information, as it can detect the correlation between variables and show the pattern of this correlation. Third, it contains varied ways to gather data, for example, ranking, multiple choice and open-end questions. Finally, doing surveys can capture numerical data which can be analysed statistically.

According to Blair, Czaja and Blair (2013) four approaches are commonly used to collect data in surveys. They are postal questionnaires, internet surveys, face-to-face interviews and telephone interviews. Compared with postal questionnaires and face-to-face interviews, the internet surveys and telephone interviews have the following merits in gathering data, and these merits lead to these two approaches being adapted in the present research. Firstly, the internet survey can not only use word documents, but also contain various response sources, such as pictures, audio resources and video-clips. This merit is very important to the designed research as this research adapts film-clips as scenarios to investigate teachers' emotional experiences (details are discussed in section 3.5.3). Secondly, both on-line survey and telephone interviews are low cost, because they avoid the expenditure of traveling, paper, printing and postage utilised in postal survey and face-to-face interviews. Thirdly, the methods chosen in the current research make the speed of the survey relatively faster, as no time is wasted on travel.

The advantages of employing surveys should be mentioned in order to illustrate the design of the research. To begin, since a survey usually recruits a large number of participants, its data may represent a broader population. This also means that the results of surveys have higher generalizability. Secondly, a survey can capture massive data within a one-shot process, thus doing research with surveys can be less time-consuming and costly (Cohen et al., 2000). Thirdly, self-administered surveys (e.g. postal or on-line surveys) can make the research quite efficient, as they can reach a huge range of participants within a very short time period. Moreover, the interview survey can ensure participants' engagement and, as a result, increase the response rate (Robson, 2011).

Although surveys have strength in researching the targeted population, some general disadvantages of this data collection method need to be noted. For instance, its data simply relies on people's responses that can be influenced by respondents' characteristics (e.g. belief, memory and experience). Furthermore, participants may respond to the survey by drawing on the social desirability, which means they may prefer to show their socially acceptable side to the researcher. In sum, all these weaknesses of surveys can result in bias in the research.

3.3 Research design and strategy

As discussed in the review, every research method has its own characteristics and purposes in practical application, thus a single method can hardly collect research data comprehensively and thoroughly. It is, therefore, more appropriate to combine quantitative and qualitative research together. Based on this point of view, multiple methods are employed in this research, so as to ensure the validity and reliability of the research results.

The present research aims to investigate the targeted research questions through three phases of study. The first phase is an electronic survey which contains two steps.

Firstly, a questionnaire was used to measure teachers' perspectives on students' misbehaviours and, secondly, a behavioural scenario is employed to gauge teachers' instant emotional reactions. In phase two, a diary survey was conducted to examine the tendency of teachers' emotional experiences. The third phase of the research was a semi-structured interview, which was employed to explore the specific factors influencing teachers process of emoting.

Although the present research is developed in three phases, these phases are internally connected. To be more specific, the aims of examining teachers' perceptions of students' misbehaviours at the beginning of the research is to find if one type of students' misbehaviour means the same thing to teachers across cultures. As discussed in the literature review, teachers from different nations may have different perspectives on students' misbehaviour (Riley, Lewis & Wang, 2012). Some behaviours of students may be perceived as more uncivil by teachers from one country than teachers from other countries. For example, as it was presented in BBC documentary series 'Are our kids tough enough?', Chinese teachers were stressed out by seeing British students not respecting teachers' authority (e.g. eating and talking loud) in the class (Xu, 2016). As such, this factor indicates the potential of experiencing different emotions among local teachers and international teachers. As such, the aim of the first step of phase one was to find possible explanations for the different/similar emotional experiences discovered in the next few rounds of studies. The second step of phase one was a survey using scenarios to investigate teachers' temporary emotional experiences. In this survey teachers are asked to watch the same video clips. By doing so, some interruptive/irrelevant variables can be avoided, and then the difference among their emotional reactions can be more significant and meaningful.

Although the distinction between mood and emotion are not very clear (Ekman, 1994), Beedie, Terry and Lane (2005) put forward that the main differences between these two states mainly lie in these two factors: cause and duration. As it was discussed in Section 2.1.3.2, mood does not have a specific cause. It lasts for a long term as a background feeling. However, an emotion can be seen as an instant reaction to a specific situation (Beedie et al., 2005). Therefore, teachers' instant emotional reactions that have been measured in phase one can be influenced by their background mood or, as identified by Russel (2003), the core affect on that day. In other words, teachers' emotional experiences may happen by chance; therefore, in order to make their emotional experiences be more reliable, the trend of teacher's emotions needs to be examined. This is why a diary study is conducted to measure teachers' emotional experience over a five-weekday period in phase two. The emotional tendencies discovered in this phase of research are stable and provide convincing data for discussing teachers' emotional experience.

Furthermore, although the hypotheses of the present research have been made under the framework of appraisal theory, the first two phases do not directly examine how these two groups of teachers make their judgments. Thus an interview survey was conducted to gather details of the factors influencing their appraisal of students' behaviours. With support from the qualitative data collected in this phase, the reasons for difference/similarity, which appear between British teachers and Chinese teachers, can be explored. This makes the research provide an integrated view of teachers' emotional experiences in the cross-cultural context.

In terms of the strategy of the design, the first phase of the research is used to answer the main research questions. The second phase is designed to answer how teachers' emotional experiences are different or similar, by showing the tendency of their

emotional experience. The third phase supposes to answer why they have this kind of emotional experience and what factors are involved in the emoting process.

3.4 Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to refine the research instruments. In order to align with the three phases of the main study, the pilot study was developed in three stages, and each stage aimed to test the instruments used in each research phase.

Participants

Participants involved in the pilot study were recruited by using a convenience sampling method, through which the nearest individuals were collected as participants to save time and expenditure. Therefore, all of these respondents were from a local university. Eight Chinese teachers and six British teachers were included in the pilot study and they were diverse, coming from different departments.

Stage One

The instrument used in the first phase of the research was a questionnaire containing a scenario-based scale. Firstly, the adapted items, which were originally developed by Wheldall and Merrett (1988) and refined by Ding, Li, Li, and Kulm (2008), are used to gauge teachers' perceptions of students' misbehaviour. The instrument used in Ding et al.'s (2008) study contains sixteen items for measuring teachers' perspectives. However, as Ding et al. (2008) argued, in different research contexts, common student misbehaviours may be different. Therefore, when employing Wheldall and Merrett's (1988) questionnaire, the researcher needs to choose the appropriate items for the specific group of teachers, in order to improve the validity of the instrument. For achieving this goal, the draft questionnaire was dispatched through email to test what misbehaviours were not important to teachers included in this research setting. Within this email, extra

sheets were provided to participants to allow them to note the weaknesses of the instruments or add new items (e.g. misbehaviours that they think are important but are not shown in the instrument) to the questionnaire. Based on this piloting, a revised questionnaire was produced to ensure the construct validity and reliability of the main study; meanwhile, useful information for selecting effective behavioural video-clips was also collected. Later, these teachers were invited to participate in the scenario survey as well.

Stage Two

The diary form was piloted by inviting six of the above participants to complete it over two weeks. Participants were asked to rate six items, three of which were designed to examine their perceptions about students' behaviours in their own classes while the other three tested their emotional feelings. They were to note them down immediately after each class that they taught in those five days. The response in this piloting step reflected the effectiveness of using this diary form. Moreover, concerning the participants' responses, this pilot suggested that the researcher might need to keep track of participants' diaries in case they forgot or responded inefficiently.

Stage Three

After piloting the diary form, the same group of participants was recruited to join a short interview to test the semi-structured interview schedule. The interview lasted 10-15 minutes and mainly focused on finding possible explanations for participants' responses to the electronic survey and diary study, and potential cultural influences on their emotional experiences.

In phase three conducted telephone interviews. In this pilot study, all participants were interviewed via telephone in order to test the effectiveness of using a semi-structured interview schedule. For keeping the research consistent, interviews were

mainly conducted in English, however when some Chinese participants struggled with expressing their feelings in English the researcher interviewed them in their first language. After the interview, respondents were asked to put forward issues they noticed or suggestions for the interview schedule and the interviewing tactics that the researcher used. Problems raised were unclear sentences that the researcher spoke in the interview as English is also her second language and participants forgetting what were those items in the questionnaire.

3.4.1 Preliminary Data of pilot questionnaire study

There were several aims of the first step of the pilot study. Firstly, it tried to give a preliminary answer to research questions “*Do British teachers and Chinese teachers experience different emotions when they encounter the same students’ behaviours? If yes, how do they differ?*”. Secondly it targeted on testing the usefulness of the survey website. Thirdly, through participants’ feedback, it aimed to evaluate the effectiveness of the questionnaire to see how accurate it is in measuring teachers’ perceptions and emotional reactions.

3.4.2 Method

Participants

Participants in this pilot study were 14 teachers recruited in York. Out of the total respondents, there were 8 (53.3%) Chinese teachers (Group 1) and 6 (46.7%) British teachers (Group 2). They represented teachers from 8 subjects. In Group 1, teachers were aged 25-42, with a mean of 28.8 years ($SD = 5.55$), and out of the total number of participants, 4 (50.0%) were female. The mean year of teaching experience of group one was 1.75 ($SD = 1.17$), and the mean class-size of their classes was 20.75 ($SD = 13.79$). To be participants in this pilot study, respondents had to be either expatriate teachers or native British teachers who have teaching experience in the UK, therefore, Group 1

participants were all native-born Chinese and were postgraduates who taught at a local university.

In Group 2, the mean age of participants was 34.33 years ($SD = 11.94$) and they ranged from 23 to 50. Many more females than males joined the study; out of the total 5 (83.3%) were females, whereas 1 (16.7%) was male. The mean years of teaching experience of respondents in this group was 4.18 ($SD = 2.56$). Their class-size was a bit smaller than that of Group 1, with the mean of 17.17 ($SD = 4.62$). Participants in this group were all native-born British teachers with teaching experience in universities or local schools.

Procedure

An email that contained an invitation and basic information about the pilot study was sent to a range of Postgraduates Who Teach (PGWT) at one local university. Participants joined the study by following a link included in the email to a Qualtrics survey. After opening the website, respondents were requested to read the information page that included the background of the research and a consent form. They were informed that by filling in and finishing this online questionnaire they gave their consent to this study. Moreover, within the email, they were also instructed that they needed to access the survey website at least once over the following three weeks, otherwise, it would expire.

The online questionnaire consisted of three parts and was estimated to take participants 10 minutes to complete. Based on the records showed on the Qualtrics website, 22 respondents opened the survey, however, only 14 completed it and one finished with some data missing. Therefore, the response rate of this survey was 63.6 percent.

In addition, since this was a pilot study, participants were invited to give feedback on the instrument itself. They instructed to give the researcher their suggestions or

comments on the survey by replying to the original email after they completed the questionnaire.

Measurement

This online questionnaire comprised three parts. The first part used eight questions to collect demographic information about participants. The second section gauged teachers' perspectives on students' behaviours, with questions adapted from the questionnaire used by Ding, Li, Li and Kulm (2008) and created by Wheldall and Merrett (1988) originally. The original questionnaire was designed to measure teachers' perceptions on classroom management. After conducting two modifying studies among 244 Chinese teachers, Ding et al. (2008) created a new version which was adapted to the Chinese cultural context. Since the original questionnaire examined a sample under the secondary schools context and, according to the results of a pre-pilot study, items that were irrelevant or difficult for university teachers/teachers to understand were changed or deleted in this pilot study. Teachers' perceptions were measured through their reported rate and frequency of 17 troublesome student behaviours (e.g. sleeping, eating or drinking and talking out of turn). Firstly, the degree of troublesome was measured using a 5-point scale starting from "1=Not troublesome at all" to "5=Very troublesome"; and secondly, a 6-point scale (from "1=Rarely" to "6=Every class>5 times") was applied to gauge the frequency of these behaviours in their classes.

Next, five behavioural video clips were adopted as scenarios to evaluate teachers' emotional reactions towards students' classroom behaviours, including:

- interrupting the teacher with irrelevant questions;
- playing on the phone;
- arriving late;
- sleeping in the class; and

- joking with each other

The original video was downloaded from YouTube and cut into five short video clips by the researcher. The average length of each video was 10-15 seconds. Behaviours selected were either reported as mostly experienced or troublesome by participants in the pre-pilot study; therefore, they were chosen for use in the pilot study. Following each video there was a 5-point Likert scale (starting from “1= very low” to “5=very high”) provided to let respondents rate their intensity of feelings. This scale is adapted from the Achievement Emotions Questionnaire (AEQ) created by Pekrun, et al. (2005). Originally this questionnaire was designed to assess college students’ emotions in academic situations and, later, it was validated in the Chinese cultural context by Frenzel, Thrash, Pekrun and Goetz (2007). Previous research (e.g. Frenzel, et al., 2009a) also proved the validity and reliability of this questionnaire in measuring teachers’ emotions. There were eight emotions (e.g. pride, happiness, anger and anxiety) included in the AEQ, however, in this pilot study behavioural videos that displayed students’ misbehaviour, as extremely positive emotions (e.g. pride and happiness) were excluded from this scale.

Analysis tactics

In conducting the analysis, 8 respondents who did not complete the questionnaire were deleted from the dataset, and participants’ information was numbered and coded. As a process of preliminary data analysis, some variables were composited as new in order to make the results clearer and concentrated on the stated research question.

Descriptive statistics (e.g. frequency, percentage and central tendency) were applied to illustrate, for example, teachers’ most frequently experienced student behaviour and the proportion of teachers who report one particular misbehaviour as being most troublesome, etc. It can also depict correlations between teachers’ perspectives of students’ behaviour and their emotional experiences.

Inferential statistics were used to measure differences and correlations between the groups. Teachers' emotions towards the video were first compared across the two groups, using country of birth and gender as independent variables. Means of each group were calculated and compared by using one-way ANOVA. Furthermore, relationships between teachers' perception of students' behaviours and teachers' temporary emotional experiences were explored by calculating bivariate correlations.

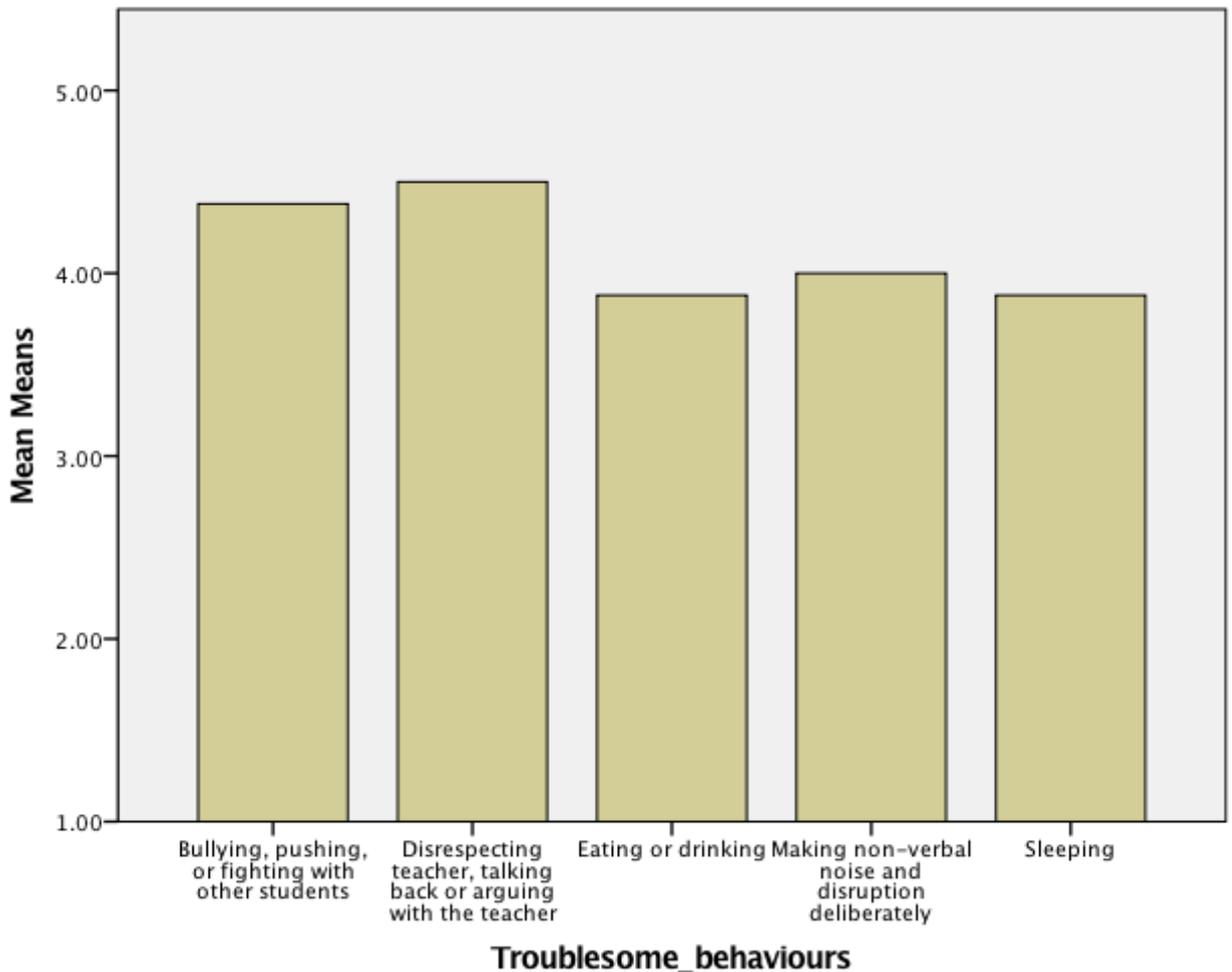
3.4.3 Results

Teachers' perceptions of students' behaviours

Chart 1 illustrates the five most troublesome behaviours perceived by Chinese teachers. *Disrespecting, talking back or arguing with teachers* stood at the top of these five behaviours with a mean at 4.50. Following was *bullying, pushing or fighting with other students* ($M= 4.38$). The third most troublesome ($M= 4.00$) behaviour was *making non-verbal noise and disruption deliberately*. The last two most troublesome behaviours shared the same rate ($M= 3.88$) and were *eating or drinking* and *sleeping in class*.

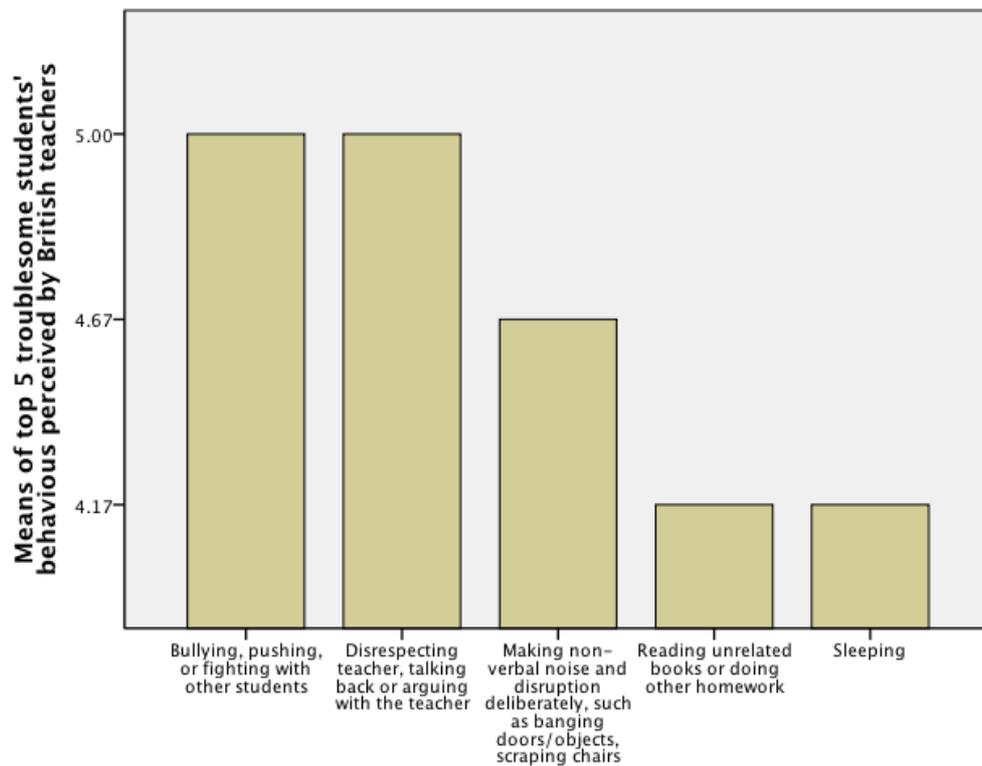
In comparison with Figure 3.1, Figure 3.2 indicated that British teachers perceived two behaviours as the most troublesome as *disrespecting, talking back or arguing with teachers* and *bullying, pushing or fighting with other students* had the same high rate ($M= 5.00$). In third place, was *making non-verbal noise and disruption deliberately* ($M= 4.67$). However, *reading unrelated books or doing other homework* ($M= 4.17$), instead of *eating or drinking*, came into the top five most troublesome behaviours according to British teachers' rating. Similar to Chinese teachers' ratings, the last troublesome behaviour was also *sleeping in the class* ($M= 4.17$), as shown in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.1 Chinese teachers' perception of troublesome behaviours.



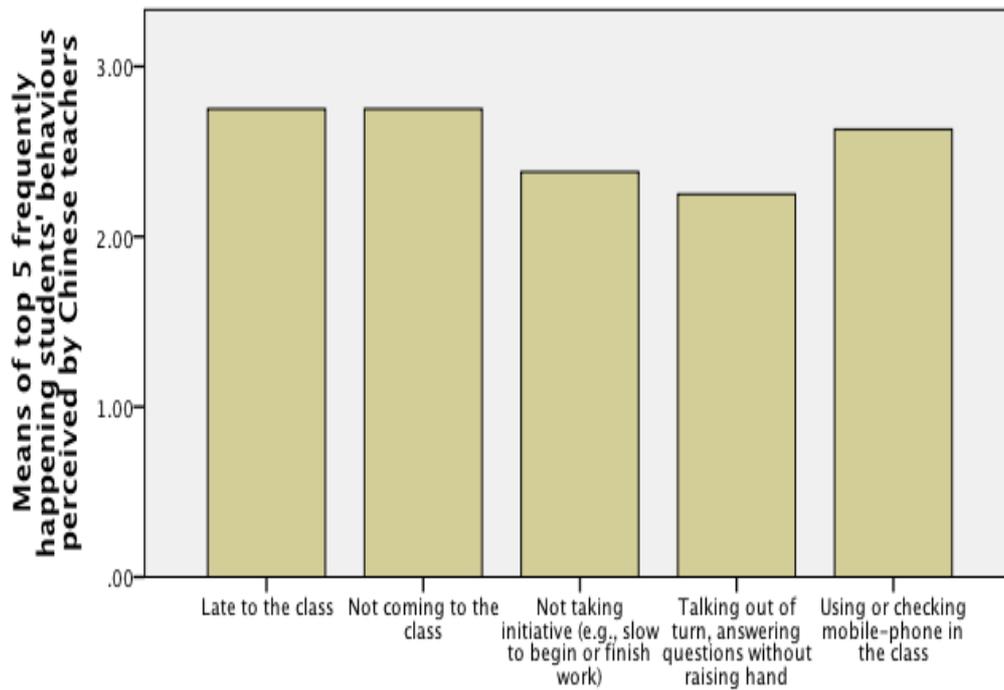
In terms of the most frequent student behaviours as perceived by teachers, there were some obvious differences between Chinese teachers and British teachers (See chart 3 and chart 4). The top 3 most frequent behaviours in Chinese teachers' perception were being *late to the class*, *not coming to the class* and *using or checking mobile-phone* with means at 2.75, 2.75 and 2.63, respectively. However, none of these behaviours were in the top 3 in British teachers' ratings. According to chart 2, *sitting in the class and never answer question* ($M = 3.00$), *talking out of turn* ($M = 2.83$) and *not completing homework* ($M = 2.67$) were regarded as the top three most frequent student behaviours by British teachers.

Figure 3.2 British teachers' perceptions of troublesome behaviours.



In order to determine whether teachers' perceptions of students' behaviour varied from culture to culture, one-way ANOVA was used to test the significance of the differences observed in data. No statistically significant effect of cultural background was found on teachers' perceptions of troublesomeness, $F(1, 12) = 0.298, p = .595$ and frequency, $F(1, 12) = 0.009, p = .926$ in general.

Figure 3.3 Chinese teachers' perceptions of frequency.



Teachers' emotional experience

Mean differences

Means and standard deviations of negative emotions including anger, anxiety, hopelessness, shame and sadness towards each video are presented in Table 3.1. A one-way between groups ANOVA revealed that there was no significant difference between Chinese teachers' (CT) and British teachers' (BT) negative emotional reactions to each behavioural scenario, while a significant difference was discovered in terms of the positive emotion (relief).

Figure 3.4 British teachers' perceptions of frequency.

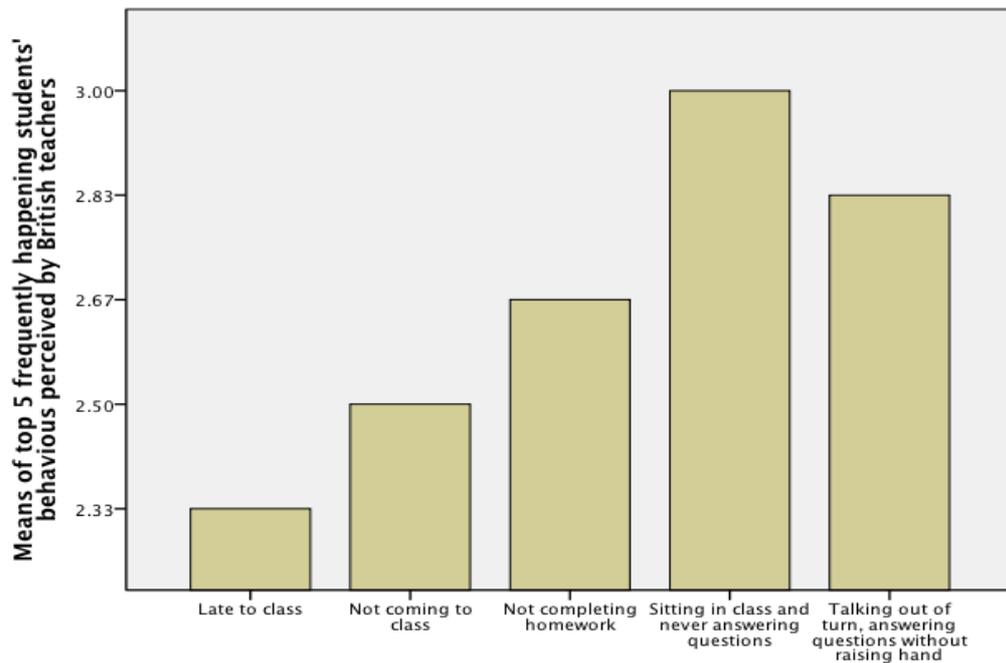


Table 3.1 Means and Standard Deviations of Negative Emotions for Each Video

	<i>CT (n = 8)</i>		<i>BT (n = 6)</i>		η^2	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Video 1	2.10	1.25	1.33	.21	-	.17
Video 2	2.08	.98	2.10	.30	-	.95
Video 3	1.93	1.01	2.23	.74	-	.54
Video 4	2.48	1.13	2.43	.57	-	.94
Video 5	2.03	.98	2.33	.97	-	.57

Note: video 1 = Arriving late, video 2 = Playing on the phone, video 3 = Interrupting the teacher with irrelevant questions, video 4 = Joking with each other, video 5 = Sleeping in the class.

According to Table 3.2, Chinese teachers ($M = 2.00$, $SD = .93$) reported significantly higher levels of relief when seeing the student behaviour of playing on the phone than British teachers ($M = 1.00$, $SD = .00$), $F(1, 12) = 6.86$, $p = .022$, $\eta^2 = .364$.

Table 3.2 Means and Standard Deviations of Positive Emotion (Relief) for Each Video

	<i>CT (n = 8)</i>		<i>BT (n = 6)</i>		η^2	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Video 1	1.63	.92	2.00	.21	-	.58
Video 2*	2.00	.93	1.00	.000	.364	.02
Video 3	1.75	.886	1.00	.000	-	.06
Video 4	1.75	.886	1.00	.000	-	.06
Video 5	1.63	.916	1.00	.000	-	.12

* $p < 0.05$

Table 3.3 illustrates the means and standard deviations of each emotion across the videos. Teachers from Britain ($M = 3.63, SD = .34$) showed a much stronger feeling of anger than teachers from China ($M = 2.43, SD = 1.08$), as the one-way ANOVA discovered the difference between these two groups on feeling of anger was significant, $F(1, 12) = 6.90, p = .022, \eta^2 = .365$.

In summary, there were significant differences between Chinese teachers' and British teachers' temporary emotional experiences. Teachers from Britain experienced higher levels of anger across all situations and teachers from China reported a stronger positive feeling when they saw students play on the phone.

Correlations

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was employed to evaluate the relationship between teachers' country of birth and their emotional experience across videos. Teachers from China were coded as "1" and teachers from Britain were coded as "2". A significant positive correlation was revealed between teachers' cultural origin and their feelings of anger, $r = .60, n = 14, p < .05$. (See below).

Table 3.3 Means and Standard Deviation for Each Emotion across Five Videos

	CT (n = 8)		BT (n = 6)		η^2	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Anger*	2.43	1.08	3.63	.34	.365	.02
Anxiety	2.33	1.03	1.70	.67	-	.22
Hopeless	2.13	1.06	1.63	.79	-	.36
Relief	1.75	.82	1.20	.31	-	.15
Shame	1.73	.84	1.13	.21	-	.12
Sadness	2.00	1.01	2.33	.94	-	.54

* $p < 0.05$

Table 3.4 Between-Group Correlation for Teachers' Country of Birth and Each Emotion across Videos

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Country of birth	-	0.60*	-0.35	-0.26	-0.41	-0.43	0.18
2 Anger	-	-	0.40	0.31	0.21	0.23	0.58*
3 Anxiety	-	-	-	0.79**	0.78**	0.80**	0.65*
4 Hopelessness	-	-	-	-	0.70**	0.74**	0.82**
5 Relief	-	-	-	-	-	0.94**	0.53
6 Shame	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.58*
7 Sadness	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

In terms of the relationship between teachers' years of teaching experience and their emotional reaction to students' behaviour, a significant negative correlation ($r = -0.73$, $n = 8$, $p < .05$) was discovered in Chinese group (See Table 3.5). Chinese teachers with longer teaching experience reported a lower intensity of negative emotion in behavioural

scenario 2 – *playing on the phone*. However, in the BT group no significant relationship was found between teachers’ teaching experience and the intensity of negative feelings towards these five student behaviours.

Table 3.5 Within-Group Correlation for Teachers’ Years of Teaching and Negative Emotion of Each Video

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Years of teaching		-0.27	-0.73*	-0.43	-0.57	-0.52
2 Video one	-0.58		0.28	0.87**	0.70	0.86**
3 Video two	-0.28	0.26		0.59	0.78*	0.68
4 Video three	-0.02	0.23	0.66		0.81*	0.96**
5 Video four	0.51	-0.93**	0.07	0.13		0.92**
6 Video five	-0.25	-0.07	0.76	0.78	0.42	

Note. Correlations for the Chinese teachers are above the diagonal and correlations for the British teachers are below the diagonal. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 3.6 depicts the relationships between six variables for each group. In the BT group, teachers’ feelings of anger were strongly positively related to their years of teaching experience, $r = .85$, $n = 6$, $p < .05$. Which means with the increase of time in teaching, British teachers reported intensity of anger raised as well. Moreover, for the Chinese teachers group, all emotions were significantly positively correlated with each other, except the relationship between anger and relief, as shown in Table 3.6. The strongest correlation was seen between relief and shame, $r = .97$, $n = 8$, $p < .01$, and the relationship between hopelessness and sadness was the second strongest, $r = .96$, $n = 8$, $p < .01$; following it was the correlation between anxiety and sadness, $r = .95$, $n = 8$, $p < .01$.

Conversely, in the British teachers group, few correlations were disclosed across emotions, except the one between sadness and hopelessness, $r = .83$, $n = 6$, $p < .05$.

Table 3.6 Within-Group Correlation for Teachers' Years of Teaching and Each Emotion across Videos

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Years of teaching		-0.43	-0.61	-0.55	-0.61	-0.55	-0.51
2 Anger	0.85*		0.93**	0.81*	0.68	0.73*	0.88**
3 Anxiety	0.06	0.23		0.91**	0.79*	0.83*	0.95**
4 Hopelessness	-0.26	-0.36	0.37		0.83*	0.86**	0.96**
5 Relief	-0.35	0.15	0.58	0.07		0.97**	0.86**
6 Shame	-0.05	-0.07	0.58	0.07	0.25		0.87**
7 Sadness	-0.31	-0.41	0.40	0.83*	0.14	0.55	

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Correlations for the Chinese teachers are above the diagonal and correlations for the British teachers are below the diagonal.

At last, after testing the correlation co-efficiency between composite teachers' emotional reactions towards these five behavioural videos and composite teachers' perceptions of these five behaviours measured in the previous section, no significant relationship was disclosed between these two variables for both groups.

3.4.4 Discussion

Through doing this pilot, the researcher had a preliminary understanding of the target research population. Also the research instrument was refined based on participants' responses and their constructive feedback on the data collection means. For example, the emotion of annoyance was not in the original AEQ, but based on the pilot study several

teachers suggested this emotion as it was more frequently appeared in their daily teaching. Moreover, the item relief was excluded from the scale since teachers mentioned when facing negative students' behaviours they can hardly felt relief.

This step of pilot study gives a opening view about the targeted sample and showed primary findings about the research. The further design of instruments used in the main study highly drew on the results discovered in this report.

3.5 Ethical considerations

3.5.1 Ethical issues

As I study teachers' emotional experiences which is kind of sensitive, I consider the ethical issues carefully in the pilot and main study. Teachers were informed that the questionnaire and diary form were anonymous and there might be challenges for their feelings when they rating the emotion scales. Before conducting any studies, an ethical issues audit form (see Appendix D) was filled in carefully and sent to the Ethics Committee of the Department of Education at the University of York. After the first and second approval, an approval email was received by the committee to me. For the questionnaire study, participants were recruited through responding to an invitation email. In this email, in addition to a survey link, an information letter describing the study and a consent form were attached. Participants for diary study and interview study were recruited through their voluntary willingness. Moreover, in addition to contacting the teachers individually, an inform letter was also sent to the Heads of Confucius Institutions to give them a notice of the ongoing research on their teachers.

3.5.2 Consent form, confidentiality and anonymity

Questionnaire study: An informed consent form (see Appendix E) was presented in the front page of the online questionnaire. It illustrated the details of the research purpose and

procedures. Participants were informed how to join the study and what efforts had been made to protect their confidentiality. For example, the results from their responses would only be reported aggregately. In addition, they had also been informed their participations were voluntary. They retained all right to quit the study at any stages and the right to withdraw their response up to 10 days after data collection. Their anonymity would be remained in this thesis, any conferences presentations and publications. On the next page of the on-line questionnaire before they could fill in the questions, participants were informed by completing this online questionnaire they gave their consent to join the study.

Diary study: An informed consent form which was similar to the one used in questionnaire study was embedded in the diary form to address the research purpose and confidentiality to the participants. Again, participants were informed they would gave me their consents by completing the diary form. Additionally, participants were asked to create a unique code to keep their anonymity in the 5-week dairy study.

Interview study: For conducting interview study, an informed consent form was sent to participants who had volunteered themselves to join the study. Similar to the previous two studies, this form indicated the aim of this interview study and addressed their rights of joining it. They were informed how the data would be collected what efforts had been to made to minimise any possible discomforts they might get during the interview. During the interview, I strictly followed the interview protocol and collected participants' verbal consents at the beginning of each interview. As Holliday (2007) addresses, since in interview studies researchers need to be presented or have interactions with participants, they should be aware of their influences on participants and be sensitive to the way that they collect the data. I carefully took this advice and showed sensitivity to participants.

For instance, during the interview with Frank, he was encouraged to give deeper thoughts on the point that he proposed on why British teachers would suppressed their rating on emotion scales. But, with the conversation going, he said he felt uncomfortable with what he said as he thought those words might fall in cultural stereotypes. At that point, I realised my prompting questions might give him unnecessary pressures; therefore, I immediately stop that question and told him no answer was right or wrong in this interview, as we were just trying our best to interpret the phenomenon.

3.5.3 Storage and protection of data

The data from questionnaire study and diary study were stored in passwords-secured database and laptop. No one else but the primary researcher gained the access codes. In terms of management and storage of interview data, the electronic data were stored on a password-protected computer, and paper materials were stored in a locked cabinet to which only the researcher had access. Names uttered during audio recordings were cut from the copy of the audio recording and the original recording was destroyed. Pseudonyms were used to protect participants' anonymity in the paper work. All paper data and any electronic data that identifies individuals were destroyed after the completion of the research.

Chapter 4 Study One: Questionnaire survey

4.1 Sample

4.1.1 Rationale

Chinese and British teachers who teach at the Confucius Institute and in universities in the UK are the targeted sample in this research. According to an OECD report (2009),

modern globalisation drives a lot of international cooperation and cross-cultural exchange into higher education; as a result, more and more international faculty flow into British universities. Under this trend, the Chinese government has set up many Confucius Institutes (see Appendix B for the official introduction of Confucius Institute, information from the website of Education Section, the Consulate-general of the People's Republic of China in Manchester) in British universities, which aim to teach Chinese language and introduce Chinese culture to students across the UK, and as a result, a large number of Chinese teachers are centralized in these institutes. Additionally, I, the researcher of the current study, came originally from China, and worked as a Postgraduate Who Teach (PGWT) in a University in UK. I directly encountered or observed some Chinese colleagues of mine facing emotional issues that were evoked by cultural differences in the classroom. This personal experience strengthens my interest in choosing higher education as the research setting.

Based on the above reasons, this research targets British universities as the research site. Twenty-five Confucius Institutes were invited to join this research. Correspondingly, universities (including the London School of Economics and Political Science, the Universities of Edinburgh, Southampton, Ulster, Cardiff, Sheffield, Glasgow, Liverpool, Nottingham, Manchester London South Bank, Goldsmiths, University College London and SOAS, etc.) where the Confucius Institutes are embedded were also invited. Moreover, universities (e.g. Oxford and Leeds) which have the faculty of Chinese Language were recruited as well. However, Chinese participants were not limited to this faculty; teachers from any other department whose names were identified as Chinese were invited to join the questionnaire survey.

In order to increase the sample's representativeness of the research population, at least one university was selected from each of the four nations (England, Scotland, Wales

and Northern Ireland) of the United Kingdom. In addition, since the present research focuses on teachers' emotions in general, the results may not be very generalizable if it only includes teachers from a certain kind of subject. Therefore, teachers from a high variety of subjects (e.g. Finance, History, Mathematics, Music and Education) were contacted.

4.1.2 Criteria

Participants were recruited based on the following criteria:

1. Currently teaching or have teaching experience in Confucius Institutes or universities in the UK.
2. Perceive their cultural heritage is either British or Chinese, and they have to have an either British or Chinese nationality.

There were two reasons for making these criteria. Firstly, in order to maximise the size of the sample, the study included both teachers who were currently teaching and teachers who were not teaching at the moment but had teaching experience. As the questionnaire study focuses on examining teachers' perceptions and their instant emotional reactions to the video scenario, whether they were doing the teaching job at the moment of the study would not influence the meaning of the results at this stage. Secondly, for clearly defining the sample of this study, the second criterion was made to specify which two cultural groups of people can join the research and to exclude cases that were too complicated. For example, some teachers may have British nationality, but do not feel they have the British cultural background and if these people were included in the research, it may be difficult to argue the meaning of the research results.

4.1.3 Access to the sample

Participants were recruited through several ways. Firstly, the contact information of Confucius Institutes was found on the website of the Education Section, Embassy of the

People's Republic of China. Invitation emails (see Appendix C) containing a brief introduction to the research and a support letter from my supervisor were sent to the directors of each Confucius Institute. Later, similar invitation emails were sent to individual departments through contacting their administrators or Heads of Department in each university. Secondly, social media sites (e.g. Facebook) were also used to reach participants; an advertisement with the survey link was posted in relevant social groups (e.g. York Education PhDs) on the websites. Moreover, there is potential that snowball sampling happened as well because, in the invitation email, a suggestion was made to circulate the survey to people whom they know would be interested. At the final stage of the sample recruitment, invitation emails were sent to individual teachers whose contact information could be found on the University webpage, as initial recruitment methods did not get enough participants for this research.

4.1.4 Limitation of the sample

As most of the Confucius Institutes are set up in high-ranking universities in the UK (see Times Higher Education World University Rankings 2016-2017), the sample setting is limited to highly-ranked universities. In addition, not all the institutions or individuals that were contacted responded and, as such, the sample may be biased by participants' own preference and convenience.

4.1.5 Description of participants

Participants in this study were 99 teachers recruited from 25 Confucius institutes and 30 universities (see Appendix D for names of these institutions) in the UK (see Table 4.1). Out of the total respondents, there were 42 (42.42%) Chinese teachers and 57 (57.68%) British teachers. They represented teachers from the 4 nations of the UK.

In the Chinese group, teachers were aged between 24 and 63, with a mean age of 31.74 years ($SD=8.456$), and of all participants in this group, 53.19 per cent were female.

The mean of years of teaching experience of this group was 4.30 ($SD=6.54$), and the average age of their students was 21.22 ($SD=10.22$, $min=8$, $max=80$) years. At last, the average size of their classes was 36.71 ($SD=47.61$) students.

In the British group, the mean age of participants was 46.04 years ($SD=13.951$) and ranged from 22 to 71. Much more males than females joined the study. It can be seen from Table 4.1, out of the total, 61.54 % British Participants were male whereas 38.46% were females. The mean of years of teaching of respondents in this group was 14.88 ($SD=12.71$), which is significantly higher than that of Chinese teachers with a result showed by a one-way ANOVA test ($F(1, 97) = 37.02$, $p < .0001$, $\eta^2 = .276$). The mean age of British participants' students was 20.05 ($SD=2.67$) and, compared with Chinese group, it had a smaller range which was from 9 to 25. The average class-size of this group was a bit bigger than that of Chinese group with the mean of 46.31 ($SD=51.22$).

It can be seen that a big gap (14.30-year differences) of age showed up between British and Chinese teachers. One reason that may account for this gap is according to the official website of the Confucius Institutes Headquarter (Hanban), fresh graduates and postgraduates are welcomed to apply to be their teachers; and also the site lists one recruiting criterion is applicants' age should be between 22-50. As a result, the average age of teachers who work in the Confucius Institutes may be low. A similar gap (10.58 years) appeared in terms of the years of teaching between Chinese teachers' and British teachers' and in addition to the reason of young age, it also can be explained by the Confucius Institutes' recruitment rules, as they usually sign a 1-2 years' contract with the candidates. Although they may continue the contract for a short term, this rule does not allow teachers to stay very long in this job.

Table 4.1 Demographic information of the sample

	Chinese	British	Total
N	47	52	99
Gender	F=25, M=22	F=20, M=32	F=45, M=54
Age (mean)	31.74	46.04	39.25
Years of teaching in UK (mean)	4.30	14.88	9.85
Average age of students taught currently (mean)	21.22	20.05	20.58
Average class size (mean)	36.71	46.31	41.81

4.2 Measurement

An online questionnaire (See Appendix F) is used in this survey to measure teachers' perceptions of students' behaviours and their emotional reactions. This survey contains three parts. In the first part, participants' demographic information is collected.

Eight items:

1. Gender
2. Your age
3. Years of teaching in UK
4. Main subjects of teaching (e.g. Maths)
5. Average age of students taught currently
6. Average class size
7. Country of birth (e.g. the UK)
8. Ethnicity/cultural heritage (e.g. British)

The items were designed to identify categorical groups and gather participants' features. The data gathered were also used to show the sample's representativeness of the population. These eight items were adapted from a study conducted by Klassen, et al. (2008) where they compared Canadian teachers' and Singaporean teachers' beliefs and motivations. It was a cross-cultural study that examined teachers' psychological facets as such, the instruments they used had great implications for the design of the current instrument. All the items in the first part focused on three aspects of teachers' backgrounds. Items 1 to 3 extracted the information of teachers' teaching experience and items 3 to 5 gathered the data about teachers' teaching context. The last two items were used to identify teachers' cultural groups.

In the second part of the survey, teachers' perceptions of students' classroom misbehaviours were measured, as their perceptions may work as predictors for their emotional experience. This section helps the researcher to explore explanations for results discovered about teachers' emotional reactions. This section was adapted from a questionnaire which was used in Ding, Li, Li, and Kulm's (2008) study to measure teachers' perceptions of students' classroom misbehaviour. In Ding et al.'s (2008) research, they conducted two modifying studies with 244 Chinese teachers to refine the questionnaire that was originally created by Wheldall and Merrett (1988) and developed by Houghton, Wheldall and Merrett (1988) and Ho and Leung (2002), to make it more appropriately adapted to the Chinese cultural context. In addition, because the original questionnaire was designed to examine teachers' perceptions of classroom management in the secondary school context, the first and third parts of Ding et al.'s (2008) questionnaire which ask teachers' opinions about how to control/manage their class did not relate to the core research aim of the present study. As such the present study only adapts the second section, which examines teachers' perceptions of troublesome-ness and

frequency of misbehaviours. According to Houghton et al. (1988), the concept of troublesome-ness in the classroom setting can be understood as to what extent students' misbehaviour cause difficulties or annoyance for the teacher. Moreover, some misbehaviours (e.g. being *late in from playtime or lunch break*) included in Ding et al.'s (2008) and Wheldall and Merrett's (1988) questionnaire may not be proper for the university classroom context. As a result, these items were identified and changed or removed from the present questionnaire based on the results and feedback from the pilot study. Finally, in this part of the survey, teachers' perceptions were measured through their rating of the frequency of 17 troublesome student behaviours (e.g. sleeping, eating or drinking and talking out of turn). Firstly, the degree of troublesome was measured using a 5-point scale starting from "1=Not troublesome at all" to "5=Very troublesome"; and secondly, a 6-point scale (from "1=Rarely" to "6=Every class >5 times") was applied to gauge the frequency of these behaviours happening in their classes.

The third part of the questionnaire used video scenarios to evaluate teachers' emotional reactions towards students' classroom misbehaviours. Participants were asked to watch five video clips showing different student misbehaviours in the classroom. The five scenarios included 1) interrupting the teacher with irrelevant questions; 2) playing on the phone; 3) arriving late; 4) sleeping in the class; and 5) joking with each other. These behavioural scenarios were selected according to the feedback from a pre-pilot study, as they were reported the most experienced or troublesome behaviours by participants. The original video was downloaded from YouTube and was cut into five short video clips by the researcher. The average length of each video was 10-15 seconds. According to the results of the pilot study, the behaviours that are most often experienced and that troubled the teachers most are taken into consideration when selecting these behavioural videos. Thus, they are behaviours related to 1) Arriving late; 2) Playing on the phone; 3)

Interrupting the teacher with irrelevant questions; 4) Joking with each other; 5) Sleeping in the class. The links of these videos are provided below:

1. Arriving late

<https://www.youtube.com/embed/EIOMN4WRxcw?rel=0>

2. Playing on the phone

<https://www.youtube.com/embed/kMBfXx3C97k?rel=0>

3. Interrupting the teacher with irrelevant questions

<https://www.youtube.com/embed/MY6Ck2hdr3I?rel=0>

4. Joking with each other

<https://www.youtube.com/embed/-pAbbkaY2Cw?rel=0>

5. Sleeping in the class

<https://www.youtube.com/embed/lrac-HDQJ9A?rel=0>

Below each video, participants were asked to rate the intensity of six emotions (anger, anxiety, hopelessness, shame, sadness, annoyance) that they would feel if this behaviour happened in their class. A 5-point Likert scale (starting from “1= very low” to “5=very high”) was provided to let respondents rate their intensity of their feelings. This scale is adapted from the Achievement Emotions Questionnaire (AEQ), which was created by Pekrun, et al. (2005). Originally this questionnaire was designed to assess college students’ emotions in academic situations, and later, it was validated in the Chinese cultural context by Frenzel, Thrash, Pekrun and Goetz (2007). Previous research (e.g. Frenzel, et al., 2009a) also proved the validity and reliability of data collected using this questionnaire in measuring teachers’ emotions. Moreover, there were eight emotions (e.g. pride, happiness, anger and anxiety) included in the AEQ. However, in the present study the behavioural videos displayed students’ misbehaviours only, as such extremely positive emotions (e.g. pride and happiness) were excluded from this scale. After being tested and refined by the pilot study, some new items (e.g. annoyance) were added as well.

4.3 Procedure

The quantitative data were collected during a seven-month period. After receiving approval from the Ethics Committee of the Department of Education in the University of York, questionnaires were sent via a Qualtrics online survey link (see Appendix G for the ethical approval form). Administering this survey via Internet was based on the following reasons. Firstly, as Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava & John (2004) suggest, it is very convenient to contact participants, as the web can overcome the travel problems caused by long distances. Thus, this survey approach provides a better possibility to recruit more participants. Secondly, Wright (2005) argues that it could put less stress on respondents if the researcher is not present during the survey. In this way, the respondents may feel more confident to give honest answers to some sensitive questions.

Participants joined the study by clicking on the link of the Qualtrics survey website. After opening the web page, respondents were requested to read the information page that included the background of the research and a consent form. They were informed that by filling in and finishing this on-line questionnaire they gave their consent to this study. They were expected to finish the questionnaire within 10 minutes. At the end of the questionnaire survey, participants' willingness of joining the diary and interview studies were asked. They were also invited to fill in a form to give their approval and contact details (e.g. telephone number).

October 2015 - January 2016

At the beginning of the data collection process, invitation emails that contained a brief introduction of the study and the survey link were sent to the Head of each department. A Chinese version of this email was made for contacting the director of each Confucius Institute. A follow-up email which indicated the deadline of the survey was sent two months later and a reminder email was sent one day before the deadline. Advertisements

for this research were also posted on Facebook and Wechat groups. By the end January, 124 people opened the link, however, only 69 complete the survey.

March – May 2016

After the early round of the data collection process, the sample was not big enough for conducting comparison statistical analysis. Therefore, another round of collection began in March. At this stage, teachers' contacts were searched for on the website of each university and they were contacted individually. Over 5,000 teachers were reached this time. Two or three weeks after the first contact, a follow-up email was sent 5 days before the deadline and a reminder was sent, again, one day before the deadline. According to the record on Qualtrics, by the end of May, 204 people had opened the survey link and 99 of them completed the questionnaire over 60% and 90 teachers completed the survey.

4.4 Data analysis

The statistical analysis software SPSS was employed to analyse quantitative data, as it is effective in doing a variety of both descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. The primary stage of data analysis mainly involved clearing and organising the data sets. Firstly, incomplete questionnaires in which participants did not answer a single question or only filled in their demographic information but did not respond to the remaining sections of the questionnaire were deleted. Secondly, missing data were excluded and extreme outliers were identified through inspecting univariate data and omitted, as they might interfere with the normal analysis process and mislead the results. Thirdly, all the variables were renamed in the SPSS dataset, since the original data downloaded from the Qualtrics website were unorganised and named with default codes from the system. At this stage, several characteristics of teachers were coded. More specifically, Chinese teachers were coded as value "1" and British teachers were coded as value "2"; and female teachers were coded as value "0" and male teachers were coded as value "1". This

background information was used as categories for conducting comparisons between different groups. Moreover, all the rates on 5-point Likert scales were automatically numbered as 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 for items with response from fairly serious/low/strongly disagree to extremely serious/high/totally agree in the Qualtrics dataset. The benefits of doing the initial data exploration and organisation are that it makes the data analysis processes easier and clearer, and also provides the researcher an overview of the profile of respondents and makes him/her more familiar with the data (Pallant, 2013).

Both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were conducted, in order to reveal and present research findings in the most effective way. To be more specific, descriptive statistics were applied to illustrate the frequency, percentage and central tendency of the quantitative data in the questionnaire. For example, means and standard deviations of participants' demographic data were calculated. In addition, instructors' most frequently experienced student behaviours and the proportion of instructors who report one particular misbehaviour as being the most troublesome were also examined by descriptive statistics. Charts and figures were made to show frequency and percentage. These visualised results can attract attention from readers quickly and make it easy for readers to understand the findings. The descriptive statistics also depicted the trends of responses from participants, for example teachers' perspectives of students' behaviour and their emotional experiences through line graphs, and made the comparison between the two groups more straight and clear.

Inferential statistics were used to measure differences and correlations between the two groups. According to D'Agostino, Belanger and D'Agostino (1990), before conducting inferential statistical analyses, the normality of the data needs to be tested. If the data are normally distributed, parametric analysis should be applied; otherwise, the researcher should use non-parametric analyses to examine the data. However, as Ghasemi,

& Zahediasl (2012) argue, the parametric analysis still works well on non-normally distributed data, if the sample size is greater than 30. Therefore, in the present research, results were reported mainly from the parametric analyses as the sample size of each group in the current study was greater than 40. The non-parametric analysis, Mann Whitney U test, was still run to compare teachers' emotional reactions to see if there were any differences between results from these two analyses. Through this the reliability of the findings in this research can be enhanced. In addition, although there might be a chance to encounter Type I errors since no adjustment (e.g. Bonferoni adjustments) has been done to correct the error, it might be good for avoiding the Type II errors, in case the analysis did not identify any significant differences among the results. For complementing this weakness of the data analysis, the effect sizes (partial eta squared) for each ANOVA result were reported along with the value (*p*) of significance.

For analysing the results of teachers' perceptions of 17 student misbehaviours, factor analysis, one-way ANOVA and correlation test were employed. As Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan (1999) point out, factor analysis is good at revealing latent relationships among complicated concepts. It helps the researcher unveil similar response patterns to a buried factor underlying participants' responses (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Therefore, hidden categories of all 17 student behaviours may be discovered through the factor analysis based on teachers' responses and it would make the results more explicit and meaningful for further discussions.

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is employed to test the influence from a variety of independent variables (e.g. gender, and country of birth) on instructors' difference emotions (DVs). Following it, a series of univariate ANOVAs were conducted to detect the specific differences on means of several groups. For instance, using ANOVA to compare 5 categorised groups of instructors' years of teaching experience and then to

determine if instructors' emotional experiences vary when it comes to their years of teaching in the UK. Furthermore, for examining relationships between participants' characteristics and their perceptions and feelings, Pearson's correlation test was applied. The reason for choosing it was that the causality relationship between variables (e.g. age and emotional experiences) in this research is not clear; more specifically, one variable as an X variable was not experimentally manipulated to see the effect from the Y variable, as it did not matter which variable was the X variable in the current research. As such, according to Field (2013), instead of using the linear regression that clearly defines which variable is X and aims to predict the Y from it, the correlation test is more appropriate to use if the researcher measures both variables (Field, 2013).

At last, there were also a number of qualitative results from open-ended questions appearing in the questionnaire results. They were downloaded and exported into word documents. Similar qualitative analysis methods (e.g. thematic analysis) to those used in analysing interview data were employed in this section as well. However, there might be discovered some categories rather than themes from the data, because answers in the open-ended questions were very short most of the time.

4.5 Results

The results of the questionnaire aim to answer the following research questions:

- *Do British teachers and Chinese teachers experience different emotions when they encounter the same student behaviours?*
If the answer is yes, then how and why do these two groups of teachers' experience emotions differently?

4.5.1 Findings of teachers' perceptions of student classroom misbehaviours

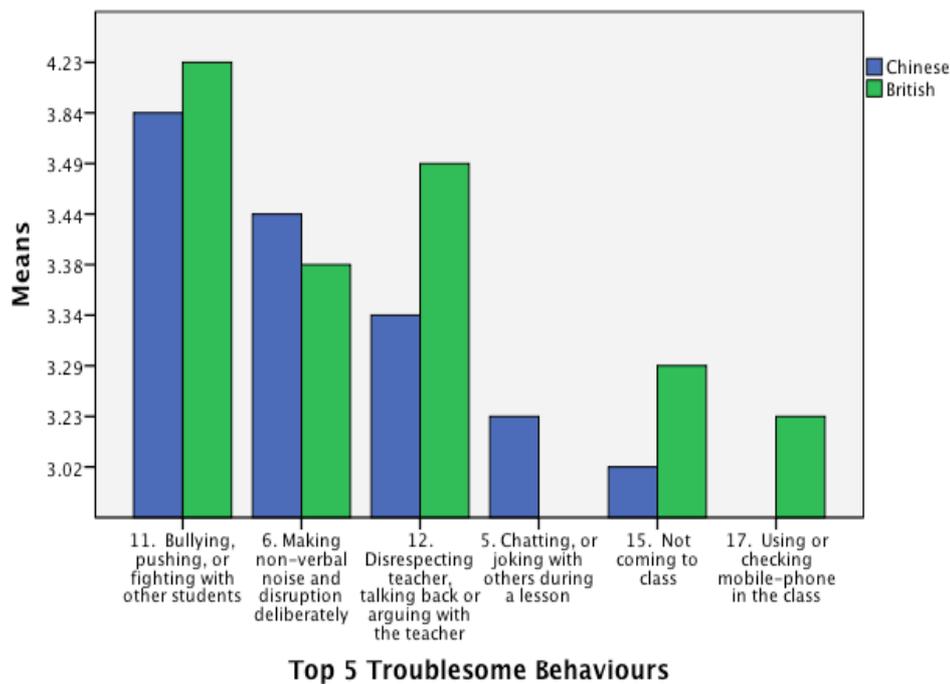
4.5.1.1 Descriptive analysis: Teachers' perceptions of troublesome-ness & Frequency

Most troublesome behaviours

Figure 4.1 illustrates the top five most troublesome behaviours perceived by Chinese teachers and British teachers, respectively. It can be seen that *bullying, pushing, or fighting with other students* stood at the top of these five behaviours, with a mean response of 3.84.

Following it was *making non-verbal noise and disruption deliberately* ($M= 3.44$). The third most troublesome behaviour in Chinese teachers' view was *disrespecting teacher, talking back or arguing with the teacher* ($M= 3.34$). The last two most troublesome behaviours were *chatting, or joking with others during a lesson* ($M=3.23$) and *not coming to class* ($M=3.02$).

Figure 4.1 Top 5 teachers perceived most troublesome behaviours.



In comparison with Chinese teachers, British teachers also perceived *bullying, pushing, or fighting with other students* as the most troublesome behaviour, with a mean at 4.23. However, the second behaviour that bothered them most was *disrespecting teacher, talking back or arguing with the teacher* ($M= 3.49$). In the third place, there was

the behaviour of *making non-verbal noise and disruption deliberately* ($M= 3.38$). The behaviour of *not coming to class* ($M= 3.29$) was the fourth most troublesome behaviour in British teachers' perspectives. At last, *using or checking mobile-phone in the class* ($M= 3.23$), instead of *chatting, or joking with others during a lesson*, was in the top five most troublesome behaviours according to British teachers' ratings.

Figure 4.2 depicts trends of teachers' perceptions of the troublesome-ness of students' misbehaviours, which were played in the video clips in the third part of the questionnaire. It can be seen that, in general, British teachers rated higher the troublesome-ness of students' misbehaviours than Chinese teachers did.

In terms of the most frequently occurring student behaviours as perceived by teachers, the differences on the mean of each behaviour were mild (See Figure 4.3). Specifically, the top 2 most frequent behaviours in the classroom in Chinese teachers' perception were *not coming to the class*, and *using or checking mobile-phone with means* with a mean at 2.89, and 2.69, respectively. The behaviours of *students sitting in class and never answering questions* and *late to the class* shared the third place with the same mean at 2.63. The last behaviour in Chinese teachers' top 5 list was *talking out of turn, answering questions without raising hand* ($M =2.43$).

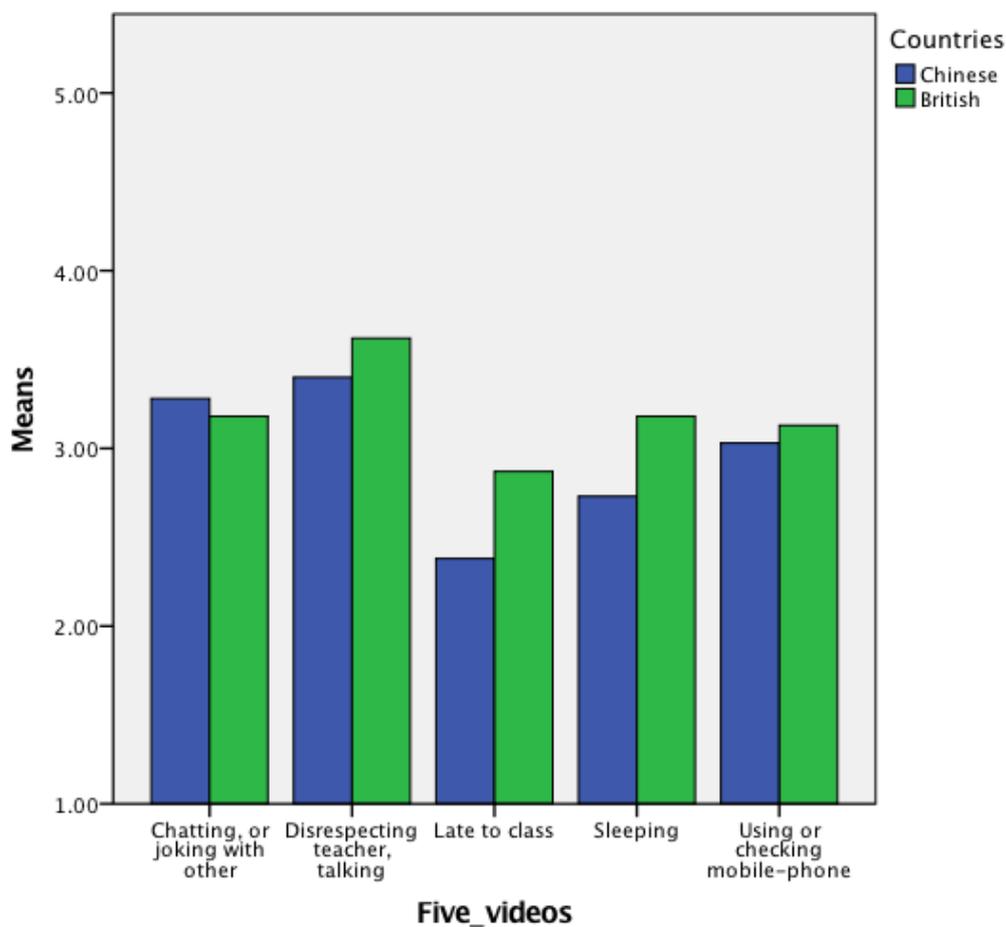
Four out of five behaviours in British teachers' top 5 list matched that of Chinese teachers. But they were rated into a different sequence. According to Figure 4.3, *using or checking mobile-phone in the class* ($M =3.31$), *students sitting in class and never answering questions* ($M =3.06$), and *not coming to class* ($M =2.96$) were regarded as the first three most frequently experienced student behaviours in British teachers' classrooms. *Late to class* ($M =2.67$) stood in the fourth place. The last behaviour which was not included in Chinese teachers' top 5 list was *playing with items* with a mean at 2.44. In addition, it also can be seen from figure 4.3 that British teachers' reported frequency of

experiencing student misbehaviour in the classroom was, generally, slightly higher than that of Chinese teachers.

4.5.1.2 Factor analysis:

As the aim of using factor analysis in this research was to discover the latent themes underlying the 17 misbehaviours, based on teachers' responses, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was more appropriate to apply than the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003).

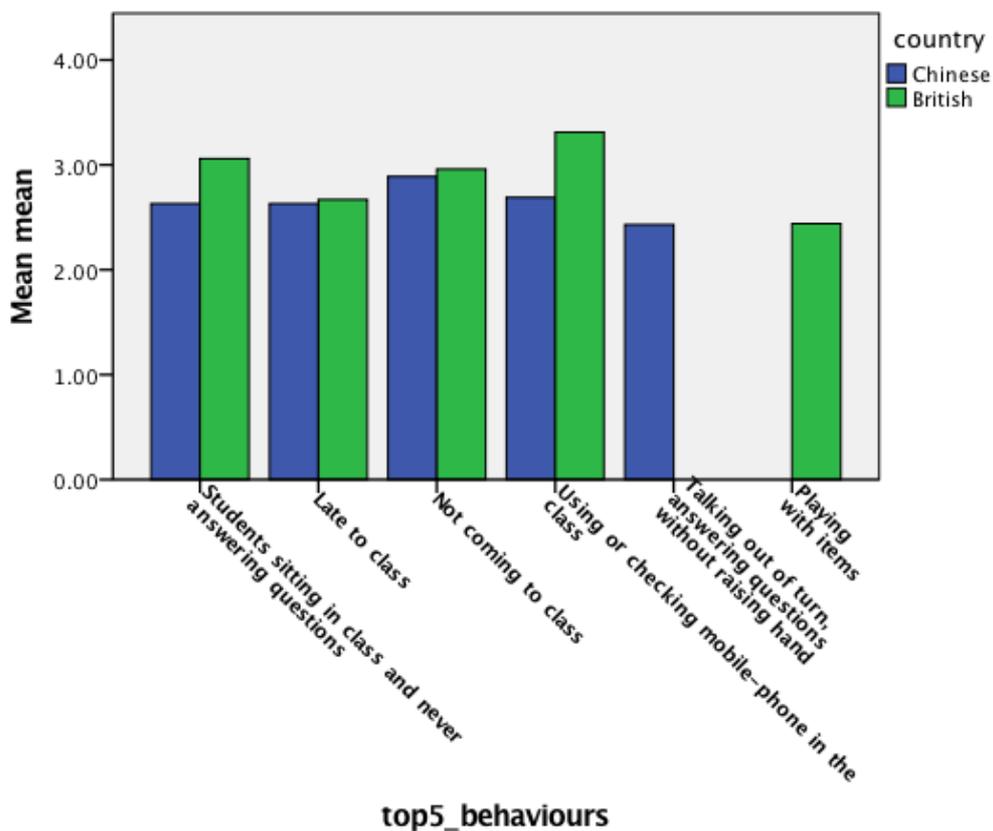
Figure 4.2 Trends of teachers' perceived troublesome-ness of students' misbehaviours showed in the video clips.



As Plonsky and Gonulal (2015) argue, the first step of doing EFA is to make sure

the data are suitable for factor analysis. Thus the factorability of the current data was tested through measuring the sample adequacy. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was .87. According to the criteria listed by Hutcheson & Sofroniou this result was “meritorious” and quite above the commonly accepted level of .60 (Field, 2013). Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2(136) = 648.54, p < .01$) as well. These results indicated that the data of the present research is eligible for running the factor analysis.

Figure 4.3 Top 5 most frequent behaviours.



In SPSS there are two main extraction methods for creating factor models, one is principal axis factoring (PAF) and the other is principal components analysis (PCA). According to Tabachnick and Fidell, (2013) and Conway and Huffcutt (2003), the PCA only reduces the number of variables. It does not identify which variables are shared most commonly among all the variables, as such if the purpose of running the EFA is to

discover correlated structure which underlies a collection of data, it is better to use PAF. As the purpose of the current research is to uncover latent categories/themes of 17 student misbehaviours, it was assumed that some behaviours must relate to each other to become a main category. Therefore, PAF was run in SPSS and the results showed that five factors had initial eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1. In total, these five factors explained 69.83% of the variance. However, the scree plot (see Figure 4.4) illustrated that the eigenvalues of variables levelled off after 4 factors and according to the factor matrix which is generated based on default values of oblique rotation in the SPSS, there were 4 factors being extracted and the scores of fifth factor were not shown in the matrix. Therefore, the current study decided to retain 4 factors at the end and they explained 63.95% of the variance.

In order to improve the interpretation of the factors analysis result factors were rotated by using the oblique rotation. Although there is another rotation method (*orthogonal rotations*) available as well, oblique rotation allows factors to correlate with each other. Furthermore, according to Plonsky and Gonulal (2015), factors about human cognition and language are usually correlated; therefore, the oblique rotation is a more proper rotation method to use in the current research in which teachers' perceptions have been studied. The Table 4.2 indicated factor loadings of each variable and only loadings which were above .30 were presented. As can be seen, some variables had more than one loading above .30 for different factors. In this circumstance, the variable was put into the factor for which it had the highest loading (above .40 which was commonly agreed among statisticians) and the variable *Getting out of seat without permission* cannot be put into any factors as its highest loading was under .40 (Field, 2013).

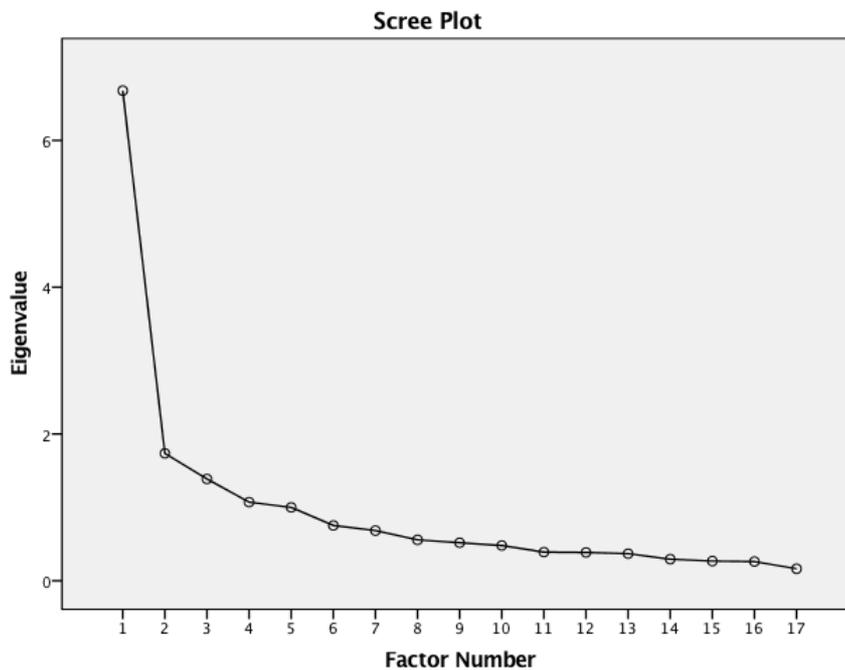
In sum, the exploratory factor analysis discovered that there were four factors underlying teachers' responses to the scale of measuring the troublesome-ness of 17

student misbehaviours. The reliability analysis which was run in SPSS indicated that there was a high level of internal consistency of these four factors since the Cronbach Alpha was .81. According to dimensions (e.g. social dimension) of classroom management put forward by Anderson, Evertson, and Emmer (1980) and four levels of uncivil student behaviours that were proposed by Burke et al. (2014), variables in each factor were coded and themed. At last, these factors were titled as social disengagement (6 items, mean of loadings was .57), active disengagement (5 items, $M=.65$), task disengagement (3 items, $M=.55$), and in-active disengagement (2 items, $M=.59$) in the present research. They moderately reflected the kinds of student misbehaviours summarized by previous research (AlKandari, 2011; Wheldall, & Merrett, 1988; Burke et al., 2014). Furthermore, according to the results of the EFA, variables in each factor were computed in SPSS to create four new variables for conducting ANOVA analysis between the Chinese and British groups. The one-way ANOVA test indicated that there was no significant difference between Chinese and British teachers' perceptions of the 4 themes of student misbehaviours.

Table 4.2 Factor loadings and communalities based on exploratory factor analysis results with oblique rotation for 17 students' misbehaviours from the questionnaire (N = 99)

	<i>Social disengagement</i>	<i>Active disengagement</i>	<i>Task disengagement</i>	<i>In-active disengagement</i>	Communality
Using or checking mobile-phone in the class	.68				.54
Playing with items (e.g., twirling pen)	.66				.46
Chatting, or joking with others during a lesson	.63				.54
Late to class	.57				.42
Talking out of turn, answering questions without raising hand	.45				.20
Eating or drinking	.44			-.31	.46
Getting out of seat without permission	.32				.42
Bullying, pushing, or fighting with other students		-.92			.75
Disrespecting teacher, talking back or arguing with the teacher		-.80			.72
Making non-verbal noise and disruption deliberately		-.66			.58
Reading unrelated books or doing other homework	.37	-.45			.51
Sleeping	.34	-.43			.51
Not coming to class			-.68		.57
Complaining about assignments			-.52		.51
Not completing homework		-.35	-.44	-.36	.68
Students sitting in class and never answering questions				-.67	.45
Not taking initiative (e.g., slow to begin or finish work)			-.47	-.51	.76
Eigenvalues	6.68	1.74	1.39	1.07	N/A
% of variance	39.28	10.21	8.16	6.30	N/A

Figure 4.4 Scree plot of the factor analysis.



4.5.1.3 Comparative analysis: ANOVA based on teachers' perceptions

Teachers' perceptions of the troublesome-ness

In order to examine whether teachers' perceptions of students' behaviour varied from culture to culture, one-way ANOVA was used to test the significance of the differences observed in the data. The results showed statistically significant differences between Chinese teachers and British teachers. More precisely, British teachers perceived student behaviours of *talking out of turn*, *answering questions without raising hand* $F(1, 96) = 5.71, p = 0.019$ and *Late to class* $F(1, 97) = 6.13, p = .015$ were much more troublesome than Chinese teachers (See Table 4.3).

One-way ANOVA test was also run to examine if there were any differences between male and female teachers and between teachers from different age groups. However, no significant difference was discovered between these demographic groups.

Table 4.3 Teachers' perceptions on troublesome-ness of students' misbehaviours

	<i>C</i> (<i>n</i> = 47)		<i>B</i> (<i>n</i> = 52)		η^2	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Talking out of turn, answering questions without raising hand*	1.61	.80	2.10	1.16	.056	.019
Late to class*	2.45	.97	2.96	1.08	.059	.015

Note. C= China, B= Britain; * $p < 0.05$

Table 4.4 Teachers' perceptions of the frequency of students' misbehaviours

	<i>C</i> (<i>n</i> = 47)		<i>B</i> (<i>n</i> = 52)		η^2	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Using or checking mobile-phone in the class*	2.69	1.47	3.31	1.53	.041	.046

Note. C= China, B= Britain; * $p < 0.05$

Teachers' perceptions of frequency

When it comes to the frequency of students' misbehaviour in the classroom, one difference was discovered in the behaviour of *using or checking mobile-phone in the class*, $F(1, 95) = 4.09$, $p = .046$. Again, British teachers reported experiencing this behaviour much more often than Chinese teachers (See Table 4.4).

Table 4.5 Difference on the perceived frequencies of students' misbehaviours among age groups

	J n=35		M n=37		S n=26		η^2	p
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD		
*Playing with items (e.g., twirling pen)	2.11	1.32	2.95	1.56	1.88	1.42	.095	.009

Note. Y = Junior ≤ 30 , M=Middle-aged = 31-49, S= Senior ≥ 50 ; * $p < 0.01$

Differences in the reported frequencies between gender groups and age groups were examined through the one-way ANOVA test as well. Although no difference was found between male and female teachers, one difference was discovered in the students' behaviour of *playing with items* ($F(2, 94) = 4.93, p < .01, \eta^2 = .095$) among different age groups (see Table 4.5). Later, a post hoc comparison was done through Tukey HSD. It revealed that teachers from the middle age group reported significantly higher frequencies of experiencing students playing with items in the class than teachers from the junior ($p = .043$) or senior ($p = .015$) groups (See Table 4.5 for specifics).

4.5.1.4 Correlation analysis: relationship between teachers' characteristics and their perceptions

Teachers' perceptions of the troublesome-ness

Overall, Pearson's correlation test revealed that there were no significant correlations between teachers' country of birth and their perceptions of students' misbehaviour (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6 Between-Group Correlation for teachers' Country of Birth and Overall rate on troublesome-ness and frequency of students' misbehaviours.

	Country of birth	Overall rate on Troublesome-ness	Overall rate on Frequency
Country of birth	-		
Overall rate on Troublesome-ness	.055	-	
Overall rate on Frequency	-.072	.271*	-

Note: * $p < .05$

Moreover, no significant relationship was discovered between teachers' characteristics (age and years of teaching experience) and their rates on troublesome-ness of students' misbehaviour (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.7 Within-Group Correlation for Teachers' Characteristics and Rates on Troublesome-ness

	Age	Years of teaching	Overall rate on Troublesome-ness
Age	-	.801**	.078
Years of teaching	.742**	-	.224
Overall rate on Troublesome-ness	.017	.253	-

Note. Correlations for the Chinese teachers are above the diagonal and correlations for the British teachers are below the diagonal. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Later, Pearson's correlation tests were run to measure if any correlations existed between teachers' demographic background (including country of birth, gender, age, and years of teaching experience) and the four types of students' misbehaviours that were

discovered by factor analysis. The results did not reveal any correlations between these two groups of variables.

Teachers' perceptions of frequency

When it comes to teachers' perceived frequencies of the occurrence of these misbehaviours in their classroom (see Table 4.8), Chinese teachers' age positively correlated with their perceived frequency of students' misbehaviours that happened in the classroom ($r = .41$ ($p < .05$)). In contrast, British teachers' age correlated with their frequency in a negative way at $r = -.389$ ($p < .01$) and their years of teaching experience also negatively correlated with the frequency rate ($r = -.31^*$ ($p < .05$)), whereas, no such relationship was found in the Chinese group.

Table 4.8 Within-Group Correlation for Teachers' Characteristics and Rates on Frequency

	Age	Years of teaching	Overall rate on Frequency
Age	-	.801**	.412*
Years of teaching	.742**	-	.162
Overall rate on Frequency	-.389**	-.308*	-

Note. Correlations for the Chinese teachers are above the diagonal and correlations for the British teachers are below the diagonal. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

4.5.2 Findings of teachers' emotional reactions

4.5.2.1 Descriptive analysis: The intensity of teachers' emotions

Table 4.9 indicates the overall means of six emotions across five video clips. It can be seen that the emotion of annoyance ($M = 3.12$) was the most intense emotion teachers in the survey felt. Following it was the emotion of anger (for the difference between the

nature of anger and annoyance please see Section 2.2.3.2 *Annoyance*), with a mean of 2.50. *Anxiety* and *hopelessness* stood in the middle place with means of 1.88 and 1.84 respectively. *Sadness* was in fifth place ($M= 1.73$) and the emotion of *shame* at the bottom with a mean of 1.62.

Table 4.9 Means and standard deviations of six emotions.

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Annoyance	3.12	.92
Anger	2.50	.98
Anxiety	1.88	.94
Hopelessness	1.84	.95
Sadness	1.73	.88
Shame	1.62	.90

Furthermore, Figure 4.5 depicts trends of means of emotions of the two cultural origins. It can be seen that Chinese teachers and British teachers have similar tendencies of emotional experience, since the shapes of the two lines have similar trends.

When it comes to teachers' overall emotional reactions to five behavioural scenarios, means and standard deviations of all emotions rated on each video clip are presented in Table 4.10. The behaviour that evoked the highest intensity of feelings among teachers was *students joking with each other* ($M= 2.40$) followed by the behaviour of *playing on the phone* ($M= 2.29$). In the middle was the behaviour of *sleeping* with a mean of 2.05. *Interrupting the teacher* received the second lowest rating among emotional reactions from teachers ($M= 1.92$). Finally, the behaviour of *arriving late* triggered the least intensity of emotions from teachers ($M= 1.91$).

Figure 4.5 Trends of teachers' emotional experience

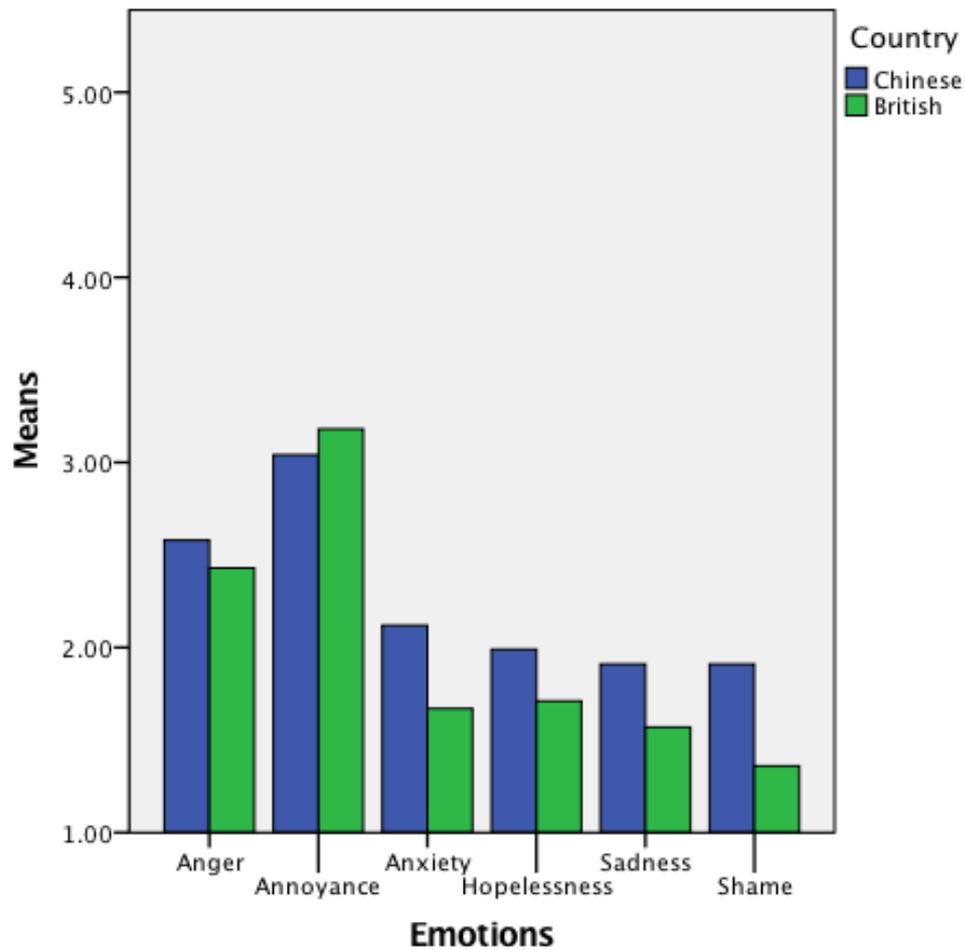
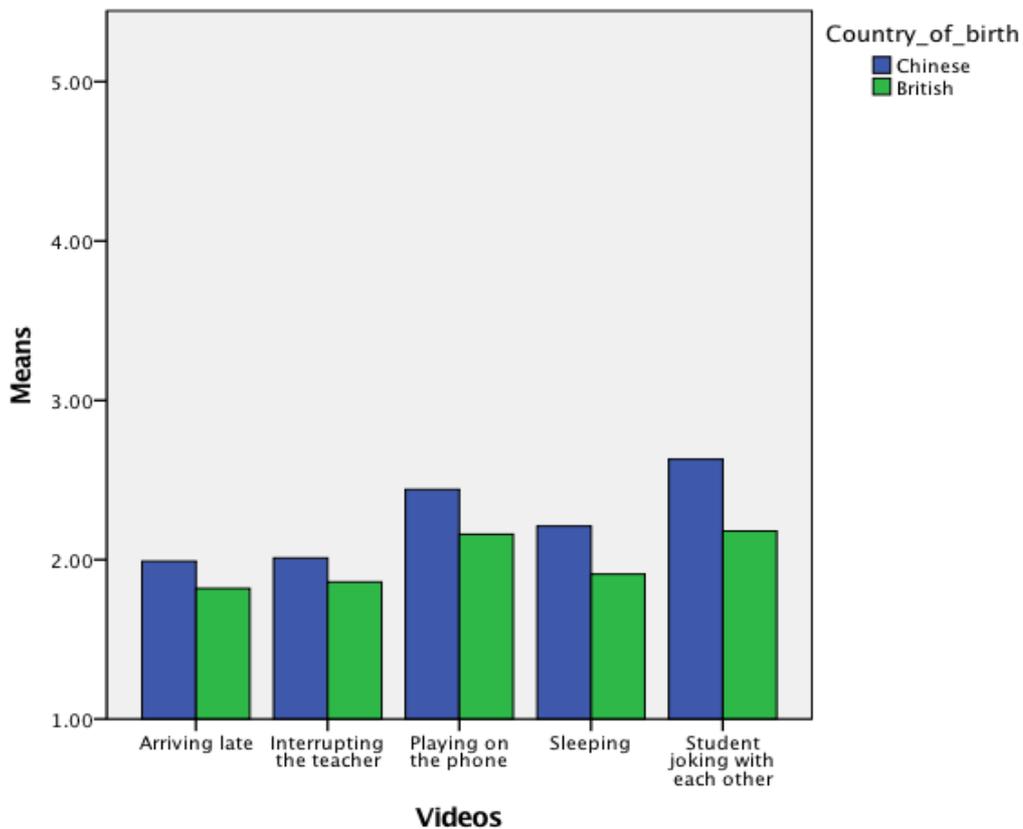


Table 4.10 Means and Standard Deviation for overall emotions of each behavioural scenario

	M	SD
Arriving late	1.91	.79
Playing on the phone	2.29	.85
Interrupting the teacher	1.92	.75
Student joking with each other	2.40	1.02
Sleeping	2.05	1.01

Moreover, as illustrated in Figure 4.6, in addition to the similar trends of emotional tendency shown on each scenario between Chinese teachers and British teachers, it can be clearly noticed that all the means of overall emotional intensity felt by Chinese teachers on each student behaviour are higher than that of British teachers.

Figure 4.6 Trend of overall emotional reactions to each behavioural scenario



4.5.2.2 Comparative analysis: Differences between teachers' emotional experience

Difference on emotions

An initial MANOVA examined age and years of teaching experience in the UK as covariates, mean scores for six emotions as dependent variables (DVs), and gender and country of birth as independent variables (IVs). After excluding age and years of teaching experience, as they are non-significant, a follow-up MANOVA examined associations

between the DVs and IVs described above. It showed significant multivariate main effects for gender, $\lambda = .82$, $F(3, 86) = 2.98$, $p = .011$, partial $\eta^2 = .18$ and also for the country of birth, $\lambda = .82$, $F(3, 86) = 3.00$, $p = .013$, partial $\eta^2 = .18$. This result indicated a difference in the emotional reactions between Chinese and British teachers. Thus, the hypothesis that teachers from different countries may experience different emotions when they face the same student was confirmed. However, the interaction between gender and country of birth in the survey was non-significant. Follow-up univariate analyses were carried out to test specific effects of gender and country of birth on all the dependent variables.

The univariate ANOVA revealed there were significant differences between Chinese and British teachers for their emotional reactions. Table 4.11 presents the means and standard deviations of six emotions across the five video clips. Results showed that teachers from China experienced a significantly higher level of anxiety $F(1, 88) = 5.30$, $p = .024$, $\eta^2 = .06$, and shame $F(1, 88) = 9.26$, $p = .003$, $\eta^2 = .10$ than British teachers.

In order to make the results more reliable, since the data were not normally distributed, the non-parametric analysis Mann Whitney U test was run. Results from this test illustrated the same findings which were discovered by the ANOVA tests. There were statistically significant differences revealed in the emotions of anxiety ($p = .03$) and shame ($p = .01$).

In general, the ANOVA test for gender effect on emotional reactions was not significant, which means male and female teachers in general were not significantly different in their emotional reactions to students' misbehaviours. However, after splitting the groups according to the country of birth, there was a significant difference found

between British male and female teachers in the emotion of sadness ($F(1, 45) = 4.54, p = .04, \eta^2 = .09$). No similar difference was discovered in the Chinese group.

For comparing teachers' emotional experiences among different age groups, the ages of teachers were recoded into new variables. Although there are many ways to divide age groups (Ahmad, et al., 2001), after drawing on the limited sample size of the current research and criteria used in much social science research (e.g. Lo & Jim, 2012) age groups were divided as follows. Those including and under 30 were labelled as the young group, the ages 31 to 49 were labelled as middle-aged group and the ages including and over 50 were labelled as the old group. A one-way ANOVA test was applied and no significant difference was revealed among participants' responses to 6 emotions between these different age groups. After splitting the file based on participants' nationality, there were still no significant differences discovered among these three age groups in each country group.

Table 4.11 Means and Standard Deviation for Each Emotion across Five Videos

	<i>C (n = 42)</i>		<i>B (n = 48)</i>		η^2	<i>P</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Anger	2.58	.94	2.43	1.02	-	.48
Anxiety*	2.12	1.01	1.67	.83	.057	.02
Hopeless	1.99	.93	1.71	.96	-	.18
Shame*	1.90	1.03	1.36	.67	.095	.00
Sadness	1.91	.99	1.57	.74	-	.07
Annoyance	3.04	.91	3.12	.92	-	.46

Note. C= China, B= Britain * $p < 0.05$

Differences in behavioural scenarios

A MANOVA was used to compare mean scores of all emotions that were rated for each video scenario (DVs) between country groups and gender groups (IVs). No statistically

significant multivariate effect was obtained for both gender, $\lambda = .91$, $F(3, 86) = 1.66$, $p > .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .09$, and country of birth, $\lambda = .92$, $F(3, 86) = 1.37$, $p > .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .09$, and the interaction between gender and country of birth was not significant either.

A series of follow-up ANOVAs were conducted to test univariate effects for each independent variable. Firstly, country of birth was entered into ANOVA with DVs. According to Table 4.12, a significant difference was uncovered between the two country groups. Specifically, Chinese teachers ($M = 2.63$, $SD = 1.12$) reported significantly higher levels of emotional reactions when seeing *students joking with each other* in the classroom than British teachers ($M = 2.19$, $SD = .99$), $F(1, 89) = 4.47$, $p = .04$, $\eta^2 = .05$. A Mann Whitney U test was also applied to test the reliability of the ANOVA results and it indicated that there was a significant difference between Chinese and British teachers' emotional reactions to the behaviour of *students joking with each other* ($p = .03$).

Secondly, univariate analysis for the effect of gender indicated there was no significant difference in emotional reactions to each behavioural scenario between male and female teachers.

Table 4.12 Means and standard deviations of mean scores of each video scenario (Total 99**)

	C (n = 47)		B (n = 52)		η^2	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Video 1	1.99	.87	1.83	.71	-	.35
Video 2	2.42	.95	2.12	.74	-	.19
Video 3	2.00	.81	1.85	.70	-	.32
Video 4*	2.63	1.01	2.19	.99	.048	.04
Video 5	2.21	1.12	1.91	.88	-	.16

Note. C= China, B= Britain; Video 1 = Arriving late, Video 2 = Playing on the phone, Video 3 = Interrupting the teacher with irrelevant questions, Video 4 = Joking with each other, Video 5 = Sleeping in the class. **Nine participants missing, * $p < 0.05$

In terms of the differences between age groups, a one-way ANOVA test discovered that there was a significant effect of age on teachers' feelings about the behaviours of *arriving late* ($F(2, 46) = 3.43, p = .04, \eta^2 = .13$), and *playing on the phone* ($F(2, 46) = 3.50, p = .04, \eta^2 = .13$) among the three age groups in the British group. Post hoc comparison using Tukey HSD showed that, after seeing students arriving late, the mean score ($M = 2.27, SD = .74$) of emotional reactions in the junior group was significantly higher than that of the senior group ($M = 1.57, SD = .46$). Similar significant differences appeared between junior and senior British teachers when they saw students playing on the phone (for means and standard deviations see Table 4.13). However, when it comes to the Chinese group, no significant differences were discovered among the three age groups. In sum, these results suggested that with the increase of age, British teachers tended to feel less intensity in negative emotions. However, it should be noted that the age gap needed to be high to see a difference and due to the small sample size in each group in the current research, the differences may be smaller or vanish if more participants were recruited.

In summary, there were significant differences between Chinese teachers and British teachers' emotional reactions. Teachers from China experienced significantly higher levels of anxiety and shame than British teachers across all the scenarios. In terms of the differences on their total emotional reactions towards the 5 behavioural scenarios, Chinese teachers particularly showed stronger feelings on students' behaviour of joking with each other in the classroom than British teacher.

Table 4.13 Compare means between British instructors' age groups

	J n=8		M n=20		S n=21		η^2	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
V1*	2.27	.74	1.93	.84	1.57	.46	.130	.041
V2*	2.65	.80	2.28	.77	1.91	.58	.132	.039
V3	2.19	.68	1.79	.80	1.78	.59	-	.334
V4	2.35	.85	2.16	1.02	2.16	1.05	-	.882
V5	2.54	1.18	1.87	.72	1.75	.86	-	.107

Note. J = Junior ≤ 30 , M=Middle-aged = 31-49, S= Senior ≥ 50 ; Video 1 = Arriving late, Video 2 = Playing on the phone, Video 3 = Interrupting the teacher with irrelevant questions, Video 4 = Joking with each other, Video 5 = Sleeping in the class. * $p < 0.05$

4.5.2.3 Correlation analysis: relationship between teachers' characteristics and their emotional reactions

A Pearson's correlation test was employed to evaluate the relationship between teachers' country of birth and their emotional experience across the videos. Teachers from China were coded as "1" and teachers from Britain were coded as "2". Significant negative correlations were revealed between teachers' country of birth and their feelings of anxiety, $r = -.24, n = 90, p < .05$ and shame $r = -.31, n = 90, p < .01$ (See Table 4.14). This result illustrates that teachers' emotional reactions relate to the country where they were born.

Later, the relationship between teachers' ages and their feelings toward behavioural scenarios was tested with Person's correlation as well. Two significant negative correlations were discovered. As presented in Table 4.15, teachers' ages were

negatively correlated with the emotions of anxiety ($r = -.22, n = 90, p < .05$) and shame ($r = -.24, n = 90, p < .05$). This result suggests that, with the increase of their age, teachers start to feel less intensity on anxiety and shame.

Table 4.14 Between-Group Correlation for Teachers' Country of Birth and Each Emotion across Videos

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Country of birth	-	-.075	-.238*	-.144	-.309**	-.195	.080
2 Anger	-	-	.668**	.626**	.531**	.505**	.716**
3 Anxiety	-	-	-	.773**	.714**	.618**	.517*
4 Hopelessness	-	-	-	-	.695**	.716**	.513**
5 Shame	-	-	-	-	-	.797**	.354**
6 Sadness	-	-	-	-	-	-	.374**
7 Annoyance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

The following relationships were tested through Pearson's correlation test.

However, no significant relationships were discovered.

- The relationship between gender and emotional reactions
- The relationship between teachers' years of teaching experience and their emotional reactions towards these five student behaviours.
- The relationship between the intensity of teachers' emotional reactions to behavioural scenarios and their rate of feelings of troublesome-ness about these behaviours.

Table 4.15 Between-group correlation for teachers' age and each emotion across videos

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Age	-	-.14	-.22*	-.17	-.24*	-.07	.02
2 Anger	-	-	.67**	.63**	.53**	.51**	.72**
3 Anxiety	-	-	-	.78**	.71**	.62**	.52*
4 Hopelessness	-	-	-	-	.70**	.72**	.51**
5 Shame	-	-	-	-	-	.80**	.35**
6 Sadness	-	-	-	-	-	-	.37**
7 Annoyance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

4.5.3 Open question results

The results from the open-ended question are presented below and there were six sections in total. Speaking overall, British teachers responded more often in these questions than Chinese teachers; and more male teachers than female teachers joined this section of the study. Thematic analysis was applied to analyse the qualitative data.

4.5.3.1 Other behaviours that teachers felt were troublesome in the classroom

Seven teachers completed the open question in this section; four were Chinese and three were British. Based on their answers, four types of student behaviour can be summarised as troublesome for them. In the first place, the behaviour of *not engaging* was mentioned most. Teachers reported that students “keep silent very often” and “do not engage in the seminar discussion” and some of them just “ignore the topic of the class”. Interestingly, these answers were all from Chinese male participants. In the second place, two British male teachers reported that they were troubled by students’ “lack of preparation” for class.

The students frequently came to the class unprepared. Another two types of behaviours shared the third place; they were each mentioned only once. One Chinese female teacher thought the behaviour of “leaving early every few classes” bothered her very much and one British female reported a student behaviour regarding peer relationships. She noted student “disrespecting other students and not valuing their input to the discussion” would be a troublesome behaviour in her eyes.

4.5.3.2 Other emotional experiences while watching the five video clips

In this section, results of the open-ended questions on other emotions are presented. Five categories of emotions were made to analyse the teachers’ feelings. They were 1 very negative; 2 slightly negative; 3 moderate; 4 slightly positive and 5 very positive. There were also surprising or interesting data that were not emotions but some factors that may influence teachers’ judgements and feelings, and they are coded and summarised here as well.

Video one: Student arriving late

Thirteen people answered the open question in this section, which made this video the most responded to among the five videos. Specifically, five Chinese male teachers and one Chinese female teacher participated, while in the British group the gender was more balanced, four were male and three were female.

Emotions proposed in each group were similar. Both Chinese and British teachers reported one slightly positive emotion and one moderate emotion; they were gratefulness and sympathy. In terms of gratefulness, one British male teacher said at least the student had arrived and the teacher in the video clip did not need to be sarcastic and a Chinese female teacher agreed to this idea by saying “regardless of being late, he still showed up”, so as a teacher she would be grateful. One British teacher said he would feel amused to

see a student misbehaving, like being late, in the class although he did not say why. One more moderate emotion mentioned by a Chinese teacher was indifference. This teacher just said she did not really care if students were late or not. Furthermore, when it comes to the slightly negative emotions category, Chinese teachers mentioned feelings of “not being respected” and “being bothered”, and British teachers reported being “unnerved” and having “slight irritation”. In the category of very negative emotions, a Chinese teacher mentioned anger again and a British teacher said he felt like ejecting the late student from the class.

Moreover, interestingly, some British teachers also had opinions on the teacher who taught in the videos. Three British male teachers mentioned they felt shame for the teacher while Chinese teachers did not report any kind of feelings in this regard. According to those British teachers, they were not impressed with the class teacher since he “behaved in an in-appropriate fashion” and “he didn’t necessarily need to sound so negative at the start of the class about the subject”. As one respondent said “clearly the class as a whole do not look very motivated. So I’d be asking myself why (if I were him)” and these thoughts made participants not only feel shame about the teacher, but also on the teaching profession as some teachers could not perform proper teaching skills.

Video two: Student playing on the phone

Seven participants reported emotions in watching the student playing on the phone. No positive emotion was reported in this section. Two moderate emotions (indifference and sympathy) and one slightly negative emotion (disappointment) were proposed by a Chinese teacher. In comparison, three very negative emotions and one slightly negative emotion were reported by British teachers. In the very negative emotion group, one British teacher said he would feel depressed if he had seen so few students were keen to

be involved in the class. Another British teacher thought he “would possibly have thrown the student out of the class” but that he “would not have let the class degenerate to that state” in the first case. The last teacher in this group said it would depend; because, the frustrating part in seeing this behaviour in the classroom was “it is impossible to tell the difference between a student looking up something related to the class on their phone and them checking Facebook or whatever...”. He was ok with the former, but would feel very annoyed if it were the latter. Moreover, a British teacher also felt disappointed for the situation, similar to what the Chinese teacher reported.

Video 3: Student interrupting the teacher with irrelevant questions.

In the open question area for this video, seven teachers responded in total but only one of them was Chinese and the others were all British. The Chinese teacher was female and said she would feel very frustrated if this situation happened in her class. The only female teacher in the British group reported similar feelings and also disappointed. The rest of the reports were all from male British teachers and most of the emotions that they mentioned were slightly negative (e.g. weariness). Only one teacher mentioned again he was amused a bit to see students did not behave themselves. Two of the teachers mentioned very negative feelings when they imagined if this behaviour had happened in their class. Between them one teacher gave a detailed explanation for every emotion he had for seeing this behaviour. He said

Of course, I'd be extremely angry and annoyed if a student had read about when the assignment is due in. I'd also be feeling a sense of hopelessness, given that I would have prepared the materials detailing this information. Shame would come into it for reasons for professional pride, and I would also be anxious about the fact that I'm failing to connect with the students.

Another respondent proposed “the lecturer should have slapped down the student”, although he might be making a joke here. There were also comments put on the lecturer’s teaching skills. Participants reckoned that he provided “feedback on the student’s performance inappropriately” and “he talks too fast”.

Video 4: Student joking with each other

In this section, only British participants responded. They were five male and one female teacher. After watching students joking with each other, two teachers mentioned feelings of disbelief. One said that it “looks like a general rejection of the values I hold dear regarding learning etc.” There were two participants who reported they would have strong reactions in this scenario. One of them said, “I would stop the class and ask the perpetrators to desist or leave” and the other said “I would not have let the class degenerate to that extent, as I would not allow this kind of behaviour to materialise.” The last male teacher continued reporting amusement in seeing this scenario. The only female who filled in this question said she might get the feelings of strong frustration and disappointment.

Video 5: Student sleeping in the class.

In terms of watching a student sleeping in class, nine participants found they had responses. To be more exact, two Chinese teachers reported slightly negative or moderate feelings about seeing this scenario. One said she would not mind the student slept “as long as he/she doesn’t snore”, but if his/her sleeping disturbed other students she would be annoyed. The other Chinese participant felt pity, as she thought the student was wasting his/her time by sleeping in class. When it comes to British teachers, the most frequently mentioned feeling was concern. Three male teachers said they would feel concerned for the student. Another two thought this behaviour had no emotional force for

them. One reason was they were kind of used to it. Again, one male teacher still said he felt amused. The only female respondent in this group said she was a bit disappointed to see a student sleeping in class. In general, a student sleeping in class did not extract high-level negative emotions from teachers, in comparison with the previous four behavioural scenarios.

4.6 Discussion

4.6.1 Review of research questions and the gap

In order to test the hypothesis that emotional experiences of Chinese teachers may be different from that of British teachers when they confront the same student misbehaviours, the present research proposed several research questions (see below).

Main question:

Do British instructors and Chinese instructors experience different emotions when they encounter the same student behaviours?

Subordinate questions:

- If the answer of the main question is yes, then how do they differ? (If the answer is no, then why there is no difference?)
- What factors relate to the differences/similarities between British instructors' and Chinese instructors' emotional experiences?

The current study (the video questionnaire study) was designed to answer the main research questions and part of the first subordinate question. It employed video scenarios embedded in a questionnaire, which is a creative method in examining the emotional difference between cultural groups, to study Chinese and British teachers' emotional experiences. Based on the results that were revealed by this study, the hypothesis of the

current study was confirmed. There were significant differences in emotional experience between Chinese and British teachers. As such, the following sections discuss how these two groups' experiences differ and what implications the current results have for the education and psychology fields. According to the structure of emotion which was reviewed in Chapter 2, the differences will be discussed along with the three components (antecedent, appraisal, and subjective experiences) of emotions.

4.6.2 Differences in teachers' perceptions of student misbehaviours

Since in the current study students' classroom misbehaviours were taken as situational antecedents of teachers' emotional reactions, teachers' perceptions of troublesome-ness of these misbehaviours can be regarded as one of the dispositional antecedents of teachers' emotional experiences. The following sections discuss how Chinese and British teachers perceive student misbehaviours differently.

According to findings discovered by descriptive statistics, there was a miss match between Chinese and British teachers' top 5 most troublesome student behaviours. Specifically, the student behaviour of *using or checking mobile phone* in the class got a high rate on troublesome-ness from British teachers. Later, when it comes to the perceived frequencies of this behaviour happening in the class, British teachers also reported a significantly higher frequency than Chinese teachers. This finding reflected Keating's (2016) research and Attwood's (2009) report which indicates that students playing on mobile phones is one of the most popular incivilities in the British classroom context. It was also in line with Ding et al.'s (2008) study in which using a mobile phone was not included in their Chinese culturally adapted questionnaire, which means in their

cognitive interviews Chinese teachers did not report students using mobile phones as a significant misbehaviour in their teaching setting.

From Figure 4.3 the most frequently occurring student misbehaviours, in participants' views, were not very aggressive or severe. This result enhanced the point proposed by Burke et al. (2014) that in the classroom the frequent misbehaviours of students are mostly of low intensity.

The results from the factor analysis suggested 4 types of student misbehaviours; specifically task disengagement, social disengagement, active disengagement, and in-active disengagement. In addition to clarifying misbehaviours according to the intensity of incivility, these four types of students can reflect dimensions of classroom management in a better way (Anderson, et al., 1980). Moreover, they highly conformed to the four types of student misbehaviours proposed by Ding et al. (2008) as well. Precisely, in-active disengagement matched inattentive misbehaviours, social disengagement with disruptive misbehaviour, active disengagement reflected aggressive misbehaviours, and task disengagement was close to homework-related misbehaviours.

Although there was no significant difference discovered on the overall means of seventeen misbehaviours between Chinese and British teachers' perceptions, there were several differences shown in some individual behaviours. The first two differences came in the behaviours of talking out of turn and being late to class. To be more specific, British teachers perceived these two behaviours were much more troublesome than Chinese teachers did. This result is consistent with many previous studies; precisely, according to studies done by Merrett and Wheldall (1984) and Wheldall and Merrett (1988), talking out of turn was rated the most troublesome and frequent student misbehaviour by British teachers. In addition, Ding, et al. (2008) also point out that

instead of thinking talking out of turn was the biggest issue in the classroom, most Chinese teachers perceived students' 'daydreaming' as a concern for them. Another statically significant difference was mentioned before. It was that the frequency of seeing students using mobile phones in the class reported by British teachers was much higher than that of Chinese teachers. This difference maybe due to the differences on their perceived troublesome-ness of this behaviour. As British teachers think this behaviour is more troublesome, if it happens in the class it catches more attentions from them; whereas, in Chinese teachers' classes, although the frequency of this behaviour may be similar to that in British teachers' classes, Chinese teachers do not mind it as much and, as a result, they may not notice the occurrence of this behaviour. Therefore, they reported less frequency on the scale than British teachers.

Furthermore, previous research (e.g. Gencer, & Cakiroglu, 2007; Martin & Yin, 1997) has discovered that male and female teachers have many differences in managing students' misbehaviours. For example, male teachers are more dominant in controlling students' behaviours in the class and female teachers are more sensitive in talking to students. However, the current study did not discover significant differences between male and female teachers on their perceptions of the troublesome-ness of student misbehaviours. That is to say, these uncivil student behaviours were unacceptable to male and female teachers at a similar degree.

The present study also looked at influences from other characteristics (e.g., age) of teachers on their perceptions of student misbehaviours. However, according to findings shown in the results chapter, teachers at different ages perceive the troublesome-ness of students' misbehaviours in a similar way, as there was no significant difference revealed among the different age groups.

One question that needed to be examined was whether teachers' countries of birth relate to their perceptions of students' misbehaviours. According to findings discovered in the current research, there is no strong relationship between teachers' nationality and their opinions of the troublesome-ness of student misbehaviours. That is to say, teachers from different cultural groups have similarities on this particular dispositional antecedent. Moreover, the current research did not find other teacher characteristics (including gender, age and years of teaching experience) would influence their perceptions of the troublesome-ness of students' misbehaviours in the classroom either.

Admittedly, some relationships were unveiled between teachers' demographic features (including age and years of teaching experience) and the frequencies with which they experience students' misbehaviours in class. To be more exact, with the increase of age and teaching experience, Chinese teachers reported that they experienced more uncivil student behaviours in class; however, with the increase of age and teaching experience, British teachers experienced less incivility in class, based on their reports. The results from the British group went along with previous research (Glickman, & Tamashiro, 1980; Plax, Kearney, & Tucker, 1986) which indicates that experienced teachers tend to manage the class more skilfully, as such fewer student incivilities would happen in senior teachers' classes.

In terms of the findings discovered from open-ended questions, six out of seven behaviours added by participants can be allocated into the 4 types of student misbehaviours that were summarised from the factor analysis. However, one particular uncivil behaviour stood out. This behaviour involved students disrespecting peers, rather than the teacher. This kind of student misbehaviour was not mentioned by teachers often

in previous research (Merrett & Wheldall, 1984; Wheldall & Merrett, 1988; Ding, et al., 2008; Keating, 2016).

In sum, although on some particular student misbehaviours (e.g., talking out of turn and being late to class) Chinese and British teachers showed significantly different opinions, in general, teachers from these two countries had similar attitudes towards students' classroom incivilities.

4.6.3 Appraisal: Teachers' perception and their emotional experiences

As mentioned in the literature review, many appraisal theorists (Frijda, 1986, 2007; Lazarus, 1991; Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003) suggest that when a person confronts a situational antecedent, the beliefs or values they hold determine or guide his emotional experiences. In addition, the research findings that were discovered in the study of Frenzal, et al. (2009a) noted that teachers' perceived discipline level for students in class strongly predicted anger, anxiety and enjoyment of teachers' feelings. Therefore, in the current study, it was assumed that teachers' perceptions would be correlated to their emotional experience. However, contrary to the assumption, no significant relationship was discovered between teachers' perceptions of the troublesome-ness of students' misbehaviours and the intensity of their emotional reactions to these behaviours when they saw them happen in the class.

More interestingly, a contradiction was uncovered in the current study. According to the trends shown in Figures 4.2 and 4.6, Chinese teachers perceived student misbehaviours in the scenarios as less troublesome than British teachers perceived; when they watched the video clips, their emotional reactions to those behaviours in the classroom were more intense than those of British teachers in general. Although significant differences were found in teachers' perspectives of students' misbehaviours

and the intensity of teachers' emotional reactions to these misbehaviours, this contradiction implies that teachers' perceptions of the troublesome-ness of students' misbehaviours were not strong predictors for their emotional experiences. These results may be a reflection on the Chinese dialectical way of thinking that was mentioned in the review. As many cross-cultural psychologists (Hsiao, et al., 2011; Leu, et al., 2005; Lin, 1981; Lu, 2001) argue, Chinese people tend to think less negatively toward unhappy situations under the influence of Confucianism and Taoism. In contrast, British people are more critical when judging an unjust situation (Telegraph report, 2005). Together, these two different cultural values can be explanations for the differences discovered in Chinese and British teachers' perceptions of students' uncivil behaviours.

In sum, as one of the dispositional antecedents, teachers' perceptions of the troublesome-ness of students' misbehaviours were weak in predicting the differences on teachers' emotional experiences in the current study. However, there were many other dispositional antecedents that were held by teachers that might influence the elicitation of their emotions. What were these factors and to what extent could they explain the emotion difference across two cultures? All these questions are explored through the interview study and findings are revealed and discussed in Chapter 6.

4.6.4 Differences in emotional experiences

The last and also the most important emotional component examined in the present study was teachers' subjective experiences of emotions. The main assumption was made based on this component and as mentioned in the beginning of section 4.6, the assumption that Chinese and British teachers may have different emotional experiences when they see the same student misbehaviour was confirmed by the findings on teachers' reported emotional reactions in the questionnaire. Generally speaking, Chinese teachers

experienced higher levels of intensity of emotions than British teachers. This result may not be consistent with previous research findings, as most of them (e.g., Leu, et al., 2005; Bagozzi, Wong, & Yi, 1999) mentioned that Asian respondents are not inclined to show strong or extreme emotion like European American participants. For example, in the study done by Stipek (1998), American students reported experiencing a higher intensity of shame and guilt than Chinese students if they were caught cheating on exams.

In terms of teachers' emotional reactions to individual student behavioural scenarios, there were some similarities uncovered between Chinese and British teachers. First, teachers from both countries generated the highest intense feelings on the student behaviour of joking with each other and the emotion that had the highest rating in all scenarios was the same between the two countries, annoyance. Second, as Figure 4.6 illustrates, although the levels of the emotional intensity experienced by Chinese and British teachers were different, these two groups of teachers showed similar trends of emotional experiences watching the 5 student behaviour scenarios. In addition, Figure 4.6 also shows similar tendencies of each emotion felt across the 5 video scenarios between Chinese and British teachers. Since the choice of 'no emotion reactions' was provided on the Likert scale, if a teacher did not feel the emotion he could report as so. Therefore, as teachers from China and the UK showed similar emotional tendencies on all 6 emotions (anger, anxiety, shame, hopelessness, sadness and annoyance), it means that Chinese and British teachers had similar preferences in generating certain types of emotions when they saw the same student misbehaviours. Based on this discussion, it needs to be clarified that the differences discovered on emotional experiences between the two countries in the current research were differences in the intensity of teachers' feelings.

According to the results presented in section 4.5.2.2, Chinese teachers reported a significantly higher level of intensity of *anxiety* and *shame* than British teachers. This result was in line with the results from the validation study of AEQ. In that study, Frenzel et al. (2007) revealed that Chinese students experienced higher levels of anxiety and shame but lower levels of anger in comparison with German students doing mathematics. The present study also found teachers from China experience lower levels of anger than British teachers, but this difference was not as significant as the other two. These differences may be explained to some extent by the cultural models of emotions reviewed in the literature. According to Kitayama, et al. (2006), members from a collectivist culture (e.g. Chinese culture) tend to feel more socially engaging emotions, since the priority of their social interactions is to create social harmony with other people. Under this circumstance, their social identities are defined by others or by the group (Kitayama, et al., 2006). Therefore, when the social harmony is broken, people from this culture are prone to think it is related to their personal identities as well. Then, according to appraisal theorists (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991, 2001) if a person takes goal incongruence personally the feelings of shame and anxiety easily appear.

Furthermore, findings from the current study also confirmed one assumption, which was made in section 2.3.2.4, that international teachers may be more likely to experience anxiety in a foreign teaching context. Their anxiety was the side effect of their uncertainties about whether they adapt their emotional reactions to the new context in an appropriate way (Mesquita et al., 1997).

Differences were discovered in the emotions of shame and anxiety which also echo a research finding revealed by Alberts, et al. (2010). They noted that international teachers from minority ethnic groups reported facing more hostile student behaviours than other

groups (e.g. white-male teachers), as according to Lazarus (1991) and Smith and Ellsworth (1985) *anxiety* and *shame* are two of those emotions likely to appear when people perceive themselves as vulnerable.

One difference was also uncovered on emotional reactions to peculiar student misbehaviours. More specifically, compared with British teachers, Chinese teachers had significantly higher levels of negative feelings towards the student behaviour of *joking with each other*. This finding was consistent with the difference discovered in teachers' perceptions of the troublesome-ness of students *joking with each other*., According to Figure 4.1, this misbehaviour was included in Chinese teachers' top 5 most troublesome student behaviours, but it was not in that of British teachers.

At last, as co-variances, the demographic characteristics of *age* and *years of teaching experience* did not result in the differences that were discovered between Chinese and British teachers. It means that teachers who were from these two countries, at each age (young, middle-aged, and old) or level of teaching experience are different in a similar way in experiencing emotions.

When it comes to relationships that were found in the current research, the most significant one was the relationships between the teacher's country of birth and their emotional experiences. This result revealed that teachers' cultural backgrounds could influence their emotional experience to a certain extent. It was also revealed that with the increase of age, teachers' feelings of anxiety decreased for both Chinese and British teachers

In terms of the types of feelings that were reported in the open question area, some findings may illustrate teachers' perceptions of student misbehaviour discussed in section 4.5.2. To be more precise, when seeing the video clip of a student playing on the

phone, Chinese teachers mentioned feelings like just ignoring them and sympathy for the student. However, very negative feelings, including depression and severe annoyance were mentioned by British teachers. From this report, it can be seen this student misbehaviour annoyed British teachers more than it did Chinese teachers. This finding was consistent with the quantitative results that showed the behaviour of a student playing on the phone was listed in the top 5 most troublesome behaviours in British teachers' view but not in Chinese teachers' view.

In terms of seeing a student arriving late one more moderate emotion mentioned by a Chinese teacher was indifference. This teacher said she did not really care if students were late or not. This answer echoed the statistical finding that British teachers thought the behaviour of being late was significantly more troublesome than Chinese teachers thought. Another Chinese teacher said she felt disrespect when seeing the student coming late to class. This thought might be a reflection of the Chinese cultural value of gaining "face" from social interactions (Fan, 2000).

In sum, significant differences were revealed between Chinese and British teachers' emotional reactions. Teachers from China experienced significantly higher levels of anxiety and shame than British teachers when they saw the same video clips of student behaviours. These differences can be explained in some way through the cultural models of emotions that were proposed by Kitayama, et al. (2006).

4.6.5 Conclusion

The objectives of the current study were to examine if there are any differences between Chinese and British teachers' emotional experiences of facing the same student

misbehaviour and to what extent they differ. Based on the discussion above, the following conclusions can be summarized from the present study.

To start, the first emotional component compared was the dispositional antecedent of teachers' emotions. In the questionnaire, this antecedent was represented by teachers' perceptions of troublesome-ness and the frequencies of student misbehaviours. The findings indicated that, in general, Chinese and British teachers judged the troublesome-ness in a similar way, although British teachers particularly disliked students' behaviours of *talking out of turn* and *being late to the class* more than Chinese teachers. In addition, according to the teachers' reports, one uncivil student behaviour (playing on the phone) appeared particularly more often in British teachers' classes.

Second, although generally British teachers rated the troublesome-ness of student misbehaviours higher than Chinese teachers, their emotional reactions to the visual scenarios were at a lower intensity than that of Chinese teachers. Therefore, it can be suggested that Chinese and British teachers' perceptions of students' misbehaviours were not sturdy factors resulting in the differences that appeared among their emotional experiences.

Third, after employing a video-scenario embedded scale to measure teachers' emotional experiences, the current study discovered several differences between Chinese and British teachers' emotional experiences. The key differences fell upon the emotions of anxiety and shame. Teachers from China experienced significantly higher levels of these two emotions than British teachers when facing the same student behavioural scenarios. Factors that could be used to explain these differences were found in the literature and can be organized into two resources. One was the cultural values that these teachers took with them and the other that produced influential factors for Chinese

teachers feeling differently from British teachers was uncertainty in the foreign teaching context.

To conclude, findings from this video-scenario questionnaire survey answered the main research question positively and depicted clear and detailed differences on the three components of teachers' emotions.

Chapter 5 Study two: diary study

The diary study was designed to find if the differences on Chinese and British teachers' emotional experiences are stable. It also tried to discover how teachers' judgments of students' behaviours related to their long-term emotional experience. The patterns of Chinese and British teachers' emotional experience that were revealed in this study aimed to support the findings of the questionnaire survey.

5.1 Sample

Recruitment

The recruitment of sample for this stage was based on questionnaire survey participants' volunteer-ship. At the end of questionnaire, there was a question asking their willingness in joining 5 weeks' diary study. Therefore, participants in the diary study were still teachers who taught in universities and Confucius Institutes. Twenty-six people left their contacts for showing their interests. However, as the diary survey was time-consuming and complex, fewer respondents were able to take part in this study in the end. At last, there were 15 teachers participated in this stage of research.

Description

Table 5.1 presented the background information of respondents in the diary study. As it was mentioned earlier, in total, fifteen people joined this study, six of them were Chinese, and nine of them were British. The total number ($N = 10$) of female teachers who joined this study doubled that number ($N = 5$) of male teachers.

The mean age of Chinese teachers in this study was 28.33 ($SD=4.93$), and their minimum age was 24, and maximum age was 36. The years of teaching of this group ranged from one to eight years with a mean at 3.08 years ($SD=2.87$). Also, the average

age of Chinese teachers' students was 18.17 ($SD=5.57$, $min=8$, $max=25$). At last, the average class-size of their classes was 20.83 ($SD=10.21$) with a minimum size at 15 and a maximum size at 40.

In the group of British teachers, the mean age of participants was 44.44 ($SD=12.91$), and their age ranged from 26 to 60. The mean of years of teaching of respondents in this group was 13.72 years ($SD=11.49$, $min=2$, $max=31$) which was still quite higher than that of Chinese teachers. The average age ($N=19.78$, $SD=4.68$) of British participants' students was similar to that of Chinese participants' students. The average class-size of this group was slightly bigger than that of Chinese group with a mean of 24.56 ($SD=12.44$), and it had a wider range which was from 5 to 40.

Table 5.1 Demographic information of the sample

	Chinese	British	Total
N	6	9	15
Gender	F=5, M=1	F=5, M=4	F=10, M=5
Age (mean)	28.33	44.44	38.00
Years of teaching in the UK (mean)	3.08	13.72	9.47
Average age of students taught currently (mean)	18.17	19.78	19.13
Average class size (mean)	20.83	24.56	23.07

Furthermore, Table 5.2 showed brief demographic information of participants over five weeks. It can be noticed that with time went by, the number of respondents decreased gradually. Among total 45 classes which were reported by all the participants across the five weeks, 37.78% were taught by Chinese teachers and 62.22% were taught by British teachers. Moreover, teachers who had completed all the 5 weeks' diary forms were 1 male teacher from China and 1 female teachers from the UK. The number of teachers who had filled in at least three weeks' diary forms was 9 which accounted for 60% of the whole sample in the diary study.

Table 5.2 Brief information of participants in each week

		Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5	Total
N		14	11	9	6	5	45
Country of birth	China	6	4	3	2	2	17
	British	8	7	6	4	3	28
Gender	Female	10	7	5	3	2	27
	Male	4	4	4	3	3	18

5.2 Instrument

The data collection instrument of this study was a brief online questionnaire-like diary form (see Appendix H) which was adapted from a diary study implemented by Frenzel et

al., (2009). The reasons for adapting their diary form were as follows. Firstly, in their study, a large number ($N=237$) of teachers' emotional experiences were measured by this instrument. The large sample size increased the reliability of their instruments to some extent. Secondly, Frenzel's et al. study was one of the very few studies which also examined the antecedents (which were teachers' perceptions of students' classroom performance in their study) of teachers' emotional experiences and discussed the relationship between them. Therefore, it had great implications for the design of the current study. Thirdly, the instrument mainly used scale items which made it very easy and quick for respondents to fill in. Thus, this succinct design can reduce the workload of participants; as a result, it was helpful in keeping the rate of response over all the five weeks.

All the diary form had three main parts except the one used in the first week which also has a section to collect demographic data of respondents. Those items (e.g. gender, country of birth and age) were the same as the ones applied in the questionnaire survey. Also, the participants were asked to create a unique code which was used as a tracking number for the researcher to organise all the five-week data from one participant and the date of doing the diary was asked every week as well. The first main part of the form contained three items to gauge teachers' perceptions of students' performance during each lesson. These items are "Students understood the material during this lesson", "Students are motivated during this lesson", and "Students are attentive during this lesson". Participants were asked to rate to what extent they agree with these descriptions of their students in the class they taught on the day, from 1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree. The second main part was designed to measure teachers' feelings during the teaching. In the original version of the diary form, Frenzel et al. measured three emotions

(enjoyment, anger and anxiety) only. However, to make the diary study's results more supportive or relevant to the findings discovered in the questionnaire survey, the current study decided to include all the other emotions (hopelessness, shame, sadness and annoyance) used in the survey as well. One more emotion—relief, from the AEQ, was added to the list to make this diary form suit teachers' emotional experiences in real teaching circumstance as much as possible. Respondents were asked to rate these emotions by answering the question of '*During the lesson I felt:*' and all the items were responded by rating a five-point Likert scale (from none to very high on these emotions). Participants were also given the opportunity to note down any other feelings they had in that class through filling an open-ended question at the end of part two. The third main part of the diary form was a comment box which had four open-ended questions. Teachers were asked to name one positive behaviour, one negative behaviour, and the most memorable behaviour from students in today's class (some of them can be same) and note their overall feelings about today's lesson. This part was made to explore possible explanations for their quantified perceptions and feelings in the last two parts and to discover unexpected findings in teachers' real teaching contexts.

5.3 Procedure

The contacts of respondents were downloaded from the online Qualtrics survey page. There were 26 people on the contact list. After receiving the approval from the Education Ethics Committee in the Department of Education at the University of York, an invitation email was sent to these teachers who were on the list. This email informed participants that they were contacted because they showed their willingness in joining a follow-up diary study. Also, the detailed process of joining the diary study was also mentioned in the email. It indicated that for joining this study, the participants would be

asked to complete a brief diary (3-5 minutes) on each teaching day for five separate days to note their perspective on their emotional experiences during the teaching. They would receive a link, which was generated by Qualtrics survey website, to the diary once a week on each Monday morning for 5 weeks and they should fill in this form on the day they do the teaching. It did not matter which class they chose to note down in the first week if they taught several different classes. However, they suggested filling out the form with the same class in mind each time over next 4 weeks. Moreover, an example of the diary form was included in the invitation email as well to give participants an estimation about how much workload they might need to take.

When participants opened the link the first page, they were going to see an informed consent form which illustrated their rights of participation and confidentiality provided by this study. On the next page, they were informed that by completing and returning the form they were consenting to participate in this project.

The whole process of the data collection of this diary study took about two-month period. The details are listed below.

January 2016

Invitations emails were sent out one week before the start of the study. At the end of January, an email, which had a link to the first-week diary form, was sent out and within this email a link for participants to opt out of future emails from the researcher was also provided, in case some of them were no longer able to join the study and the opt-out link was provided through the whole process. Therefore, they could quit at any time during the five weeks. In week one, 22 people opened the link, and 14 (63.64%) of them filled in the form.

February 2016

In addition to the diary link which was sent out on every Monday in this month, a reminder was sent out to participants who had not filled in the form in that week through Qualtrics on each Friday as well. As what happens in many other dairy studies (e.g. Klassen & Durksen, 2014; Bakker & Bal, 2010), the retention rate in this study kept dropping over all five weeks. The rate went to 45.50% (with 10 from week 1) in week two, and was at 40.91% (8 from week 1) in week 3 with a new participant responding to the diary form in that week. Later, six people filled in the 4th-week diary form, which made the rate go to 27.27%.

March 2016

The diary form for the 5th week was sent out at the beginning of March. By the end of this week, five respondents joined the study. The retention rate finally went to 22.74%. At the end of the diary survey, a thank-you email was sent out to all the participants to show gratitude from the researcher.

5.4 Results

5.4.1 Quantitative results

The diary results were summaries in Table 5.3. The first part of the diary form examined teachers' perceptions of students' performance in the class. Generally speaking, no big gap was identified on the means of teachers' perception between Chinese and British group. Chinese teachers' might perceive their students performed well in acquiring the materials and showing motivation, as their rating on these 2 items were slightly higher than those of British teachers. In comparison, British teachers might be more satisfied with concentration showed by their students, since this mean was higher than that of Chinese teachers. In addition, in both groups, a decreasing tendency can be noticed on teachers' rating of their students' performance over the five weeks.

The second part of the diary measured teachers' emotional experiences in their own classes for 5-week time. Eight emotions were presented in the scale. According to Table 5.3, Chinese teachers reported higher intensive feelings on emotions of enjoyment, anger, anxiety, and relief than British teachers. In comparison, emotions of hopelessness, shame, sadness, annoyance were experienced by British teachers to a slightly higher extent. In addition, the difference on the emotion of anxiety between Chinese and British teachers stood out. Chinese teachers reported much higher means ($M= 2.53$) on the anxiety than British teachers ($M= 1.58$).

Table 5.3 Summary of diary results

		Week 1 (Mean)	Week 2 (Mean)	Week 3 (Mean)	Week 4 (Mean)	Week 5 (Mean)	Total
Students understood the material during this lesson.	Chinese	4.50	4.25	4.25	4.00	3.67	4.13
	British	3.75	4.00	3.67	3.67	3.67	3.75
Students were motivated during this lesson.	Chinese	4.33	4.25	4.00	4.00	3.67	4.05
	British	4.13	3.86	4.17	3.33	3.67	3.83
Students were attentive during this lesson	Chinese	3.83	4.25	4.00	3.33	3.67	3.82
	British	4.00	4.14	4.17	3.33	3.67	3.86
Enjoyment	Chinese	3.83	3.75	4.00	3.33	3.33	3.65
	British	3.5	3.71	3.17	3.00	3.33	3.34
Anger	Chinese	1.17	1.00	1.00	1.00	2.33	1.30
	British	1.38	1.14	1.33	1.33	1.00	1.24

Anxiety	Chinese	2.50	2.50	1.75	3.00	1.67	2.53
	British	1.75	2.00	1.50	1.33	1.33	1.58
Hopelessness	Chinese	1.33	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.67	1.20
	British	1.13	1.14	1.50	1.00	1.33	1.22
Relief	Chinese	2.67	1.75	1.50	1.67	1.67	1.85
	British	2.00	2.43	2.17	1.33	1.00	1.79
Shame	Chinese	1.17	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.33	1.10
	British	1.14	1.14	1.17	1.00	1.33	1.16
Sadness	Chinese	1.50	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.67	1.23
	British	1.25	1.29	1.00	1.67	1.33	1.31
Annoyance	Chinese	1.3	1.50	1.00	1.33	1.67	1.36
	British	2.13	1.29	1.21	2.00	1.33	1.59

5.4.2 Qualitative results

In the third part of the diary form, open questions examined teachers' narrative about the positive, negative, and most impressive students' behaviors and general feeling of their teaching on the day. After coding and grouping teachers' responses, some key the results were discovered and presented here.

Positive behaviour

For Chinese teachers, the most frequently reported positive student behaviour was engagement. It was mentioned for 13 times over 5 weeks. In contrast, British teachers' most frequently reported behaviour was student making achievement. It was appeared for 12 times on the diary forms.

Negative

The behaviour of disengagement was the most frequently mentioned negative behaviour by Both Chinese and British teachers, seven times by Chinese teachers and 14 times by British teachers. The types of the misbehaviours that were mentioned by Chinese and British teachers were similar as well. They were all bothered by students disturbing others, chatting in the class and using mobile-phones.

Most memorable students' behaviour

In this open box, Chinese teachers mentioned 10 times positive and 2 times negative students' behaviours as the most memorable behaviour on the day. In comparison, British teachers reported 18 times for memorising positive student behaviours after teaching and 4 times for being impressed by negative behaviours on the day.

General feeling

Chinese teachers in general reported 13 times on feeling positive about their teaching on the day in these five weeks. Negative feeling was only mentioned once by this group of teachers. Then, British teachers mentioned 14 times for having positive feelings about the instructing and 8 time for having negative feelings on the day. Neutral feelings were mentioned for 4 times by British teachers.

5.5 Discussion

As a person's instant emotional reactions may be influenced by his/her core affect which can be understood as daily mood (Russell & Barrett, 1999; Schutz *et al.*, 2009), this diary study was designed to re-affirm the results discovered from the questionnaire study, in case teachers' temporary emotional reactions on the scale were biased by their mood on that day.

According to the diary results, the difference discovered on the emotion of anxiety in the questionnaire might be quite trustable, as the current longitudinal study also found that Chinese teachers experienced higher intensity on this emotion than British teachers. However, in contrast to the questionnaire data, the current study did not find apparent differences on the other emotions.

When it comes to the qualitative results, no surprising finding was discovered from teachers' narratives, except for student making achievement was reported by Chinese teachers as the positive behaviours on the day only once, while British teachers mentioned it for 12 times.

Chapter 6 Study three: Interview Studies

6.1 Sample

At the end of the questionnaire, a question was set to ask teachers if they would like to join an interview later, and originally there were twenty-two teachers left their telephone numbers for showing interests. Therefore, participants in this study were recruited through their volunteer-ship.

Table 6.1 Demographic information of the sample

	Chinese (Cultural origin)	British (Cultural origin)	Total
N	7	6	13
Gender	F=6, M=1	F=1, M=5	F=7, M=6
Age (mean)	28.29	45.50	36.23
Years of teaching in UK (mean)	2.10	16.33	8.66

Description of the sample

The demographic data of interview participants were listed in Table 6.1. It can be seen that, in total, seven Chinese teachers and six British teachers joined the study. Although in general the number of two gender groups were almost even, in individual country groups the number of one gender group is sharply higher than the other. In detail, there was only one male in Chinese group, on the contrary, there was only one female British teacher joined the interview study. When it comes to the age, a big gap (17.21-year

differences) showed up between British and Chinese teachers. There are several reasons accounting for this gap. As it mentioned in section 4.1, one reason would be Confucius Institutes Headquarter (Hanban) limits the age of teachers who apply for the job. Another reason is, many Chinese Postgraduates Who Teach (PGWTs) joined the interview study and as students their ages were not that old and so does their years of teaching in the UK. More detailed information of interviewees is introduced below.

Chinese Group (pseudonyms used)

Cuifu: She was the youngest participant in the Chinese group with an age at 24. She was a teacher from one of the Confucius Institute and mainly taught Chinese language and culture to students in primary school. As reported, she had 2 years of teaching experience in the UK.

Hongda: He was 27 years old and was the only male Chinese teacher who joined this interview study. He was a postgraduate who used to teach Maths to the 2nd and 3rd year students in a university and he had been teaching in the UK for 2 years.

Anjun: She was 25 and had one-year teaching experience in a university in the UK. As a PGWT, she taught Politics to students in the first year and second year.

Peilan: She was a lecturer in a university. She was special since she has the nationality of British, but she was originally from China and still perceived her cultural background as Chinese. This is why I included her in the Chinese group. She was around 40 years old and taught Social policy to postgraduates and she had been teaching in the UK for 7 years by the time of the interview.

Yuli: She was a PGWT who taught Linguistics to the first year undergraduates in a university. She was 27 years old and had one year of teaching experiences in the UK.

Xiaoxia: She was a teacher from a Confucius Institute, and taught Chinese language (foundation level) to adult learners. She had the shortest teaching experience of all the participants and it was 7 months. She was 26 years old.

Hanya: She was 29 years old and newly became a lecturer in a university. She taught Engineering to the 4th and 5th year undergraduate and master students as well. She had one-year teaching experience in the UK.

British group (pseudonyms):

All the British participants taught in universities in the UK. Therefore, this information may not be repeated in the following introduction.

Albert: He was a PGWT who taught Politics. His students were the first and second year undergraduates. He was at the age of 34 and had 2 years of teaching experience by the time of the interview.

Barbara: She was 56 years old, and had been teaching for 20 years. She gave lectures to Environment students who were at their first or third year or doing their master degrees. Additionally, she was the only female British teacher who participated in the interview study.

Clay: He was a lecturer in Computer Science and at the age of 60. With that age and 32 years of teaching experience, he became the most experienced participant in this interview study. In addition, among those 32 years there were five or six years for him to teach in the US. His students were both undergraduates and postgraduates.

Daniel: He was a 56 years old lecturer who taught all stages of undergraduates in Chemistry. He also had 32 years of teaching experience in the UK.

Eric: He was at the age of 42 and had 8 years of teaching experiences. He was a lecturer in Education field and taught all levels of students in a university.

Frank: He was the youngest participant in the British group with an age at 25. He mainly taught first year and third year undergraduates in Laws and he was another PGWT in the British group.

6.2 Data collection methods

As Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) state, although the quantitative survey has many advantages, for example, it can test already existing theories about how, and to a less degree, why phenomena occur and the quantitative results are relatively independent from a researcher's subjectivities, some limitations still exist. For instance, it lacks the ability to explore individual's perceptions or investigate underlying motives in subjects' responses. Thus, for exploring rich and illuminating explanations for quantitative results, a qualitative study (e.g. interview) should be employed to clarify and illustrate the deep meaning of the findings (Robson, 2002).

In this study, semi-structured interviews were employed to gain an in-depth understanding of the findings discovered in questionnaire survey. This type of interview was adopted based on the following reasons. As Louise Barriball, and While (1994) and Robson (2002) note, the semi-structured interview is widely used as it combines flexibility and a clear set of logics in conducting interview studies. In addition, as Bernard (2012) argues if the researcher can only meet participants once, it is better to prepare him/herself with a list of topics that he/she wants the participants to response to.

Telephone and face-to-face interviews were conducted based on participants' preference and research convenience. As Robson (2002) and Bernard (2012) point out, the telephone interview is a very economical choice, speaking of time consumption and money expenditure. It is considered as one of the most effective way to collect qualitative data if there are geographical obstacles between the researcher and participants (Dicker &

Gilbert, 1988; Fraenkel, & Wallen, 2008). However, this interview method does not allow the researcher to observe facial expressions or gestures from the interviewee, as a result, some helpful information in understanding participants' responses can be lost. Due to this disadvantage of the telephone interview, I gave my participants opportunities to choose to be interviewed through the telephone or Skype video calls. Or, when the environment conditions allowed I interviewed them in person.

An interview schedule (see Appendix I) was prepared before the study. Six open questions were included. According to the guidelines and suggestions proposed by Robson (2002) and Cohen (2004), the structure of this interview was designed short and concise and all the questions were translated into Chinese as well. As Lee, Nguyen, and Tsui (2011) argue, for receiving a better understanding of the whole phenomenon, it is important to let participants use the language which can express their perceived identities best to describe. Therefore, the participants in my study were given the options of the interview languages. Through this way, participants' motivation of joining the research was improved (Breakwell, 2000). Before conducting the survey, three pilot interviews were carried out to test and pilot this schedule. Based on the feedback from the participants, the time and the structure of the interview were modified.

At last, a semi-structured interview schedule was created. Questions in this interview aimed to explore the explanatory data for findings discovered between two groups. Based on the quantitative results discovered in study one, the interview questions mainly focused on explaining differences discovered on teachers' perceptions of the troublesomeness of students' misbehaviours, differences discovered on teachers' subjective experiences of emotions and the mis-match between teachers' perceptions and their feelings. At the end, teachers' personal emotional experiences from participants' real

teaching contexts were investigated as well in order to make the picture of teachers' emotions experiences more completed.

The first two questions (see below) aimed to discover what factors might relate to instructors' different perceptions on the troublesomeness of students' behaviours.

1. *Firstly, as you recalled, we asked instructors to rate troublesomeness of 17 students' behaviours, and we listed top 5 most troublesome behaviours in British and Chinese instructors' views respectively and found that 4 out of 5 behaviours are matched, but behaviour 'Chatting or joking with others' is only in Chinese top5 and 'using mobilephone' is only in British top5. So, in your opinion why they are mis-matched?*
2. *We also found there are 2 significant differences on British and Chinese instructors' perception of students talking out of turn ($B > C$) and being late to the class ($B > C$). Can you think of several reasons for that difference?*

Question 3 and 4 tried to find out specific reasons that resulted in Chinese instructors experiencing significant higher level on the emotions of anxiety and shame than British instructors and the mismatch between teachers' perceptions and their feelings.

3. *In the second part of the questionnaire, we asked instructors to watch 5 video scenarios and rate their emotional response (Anger, anxiety, hopelessness, shame, sadness and annoyance) to these videos. Chinese instructors reported experiencing significantly higher level of anxiety and shame than British instructors. So, in your estimation, what factors might relate to that difference? (Any other factors than their perceptions of students' behaviours)*
4. *At last, interestingly, we found British instructors viewed five behaviours in the videos more troublesome than Chinese instructors did but their emotional reactions to (feelings about) those behaviours in the classroom are less intensive than that of*

Chinese instructors. To your way of thinking how could this happen?

Thirdly, the last two questions were made to explore instructors' personal emotional experience in their real teaching context. The purpose of these questions were to discover surprising findings and probably some latent differences between two groups of teachers.

5. *Could you give an example of a student invoking a memorable emotion from you in a class?*

6. *In general how do you feel during your teaching?*

6.3 Procedure

At this phase of research, semi-structured interviews were implemented to investigate participants' interpretations of their emotional experiences. Firstly, an approval was received from the Ethics Committee of the Department of Education in the University of York before contacting participants. Later, the contact details of participants were found on the Qualtrics data report site; then, an invitation email was sent out to all the participants who indicated they were willing to be interviewed in the questionnaire study. In this email, the purpose of the interview study was introduced firstly, and then the participant was reminded that why he/she received this invitation. Following that, they were asked again about their willingness of joining the interview study and their preference of the interview methods (e.g., telephone or face-to-face interview). An interview protocol which included the informed consent form and example interview questions was attached in the invitation email as well. The participants were informed they will be interviewed individually and the length of the interview was about 20 minutes. After receiving a confirmative reply from a participant, an interview was arranged based on this participant's preferred way and convenient time. In addition, since the interview questions were structured based on the results from questionnaire study, a

copy of the questionnaire items was also sent to the interview participant. Once an interview was scheduled, a reminder email was sent out to the participant one day before the agreed date and a notice was sent 15 mins before the interview time.

For the telephone interview, an interview room in Research Centre for Social Science, the University of York was booked. A recording device was rent from the centre as well. Ten out of thirteen interviews were done through the telephone and another three were done in person. All the interviews went smoothly. Although two of the skype-call interviews were interrupted by weak signals, it went well after we changed to mobile phone calls.

In each interview. At the beginning of the interview, I greeted the participant and introduced myself to break the ice. Then, I explained the purpose of this interview and read out the interview protocol to the participant. His/her consent to joining the interview was collected and the language of the interview was decided at this stage as well. After that I asked several questions to collect the participant's background information and then went into the main parts of the interview. During the interview, I not only put forward predetermined questions, but also came up with follow-up questions based on the participants' response, in order to get a deep insight of the data. I also used several probing tactics suggested by Dornyei (2007), such as repeating their words, giving them silent breaks, using friendly gestures (e.g., nod) and asking for examples, to encourage the participants to express their thoughts thoroughly. Moreover, although audio-recording devices were applied to take records, the paper notes were taken to highlight some important points or ideas as well. At the end of the interview, I showed gratitude to every participant and informed them that they could trace back the transcript of the interview and the result of this study about 6 months later.

Timeline of the fieldwork

May, 2016

The first contact to participants was made on 24th May, 2016. An invitation email was sent to 22 survey participants who had left their email address and phone number in the questionnaire. In the first round of contacting, eight participants replied. One declined the invitation and the other seven gave me their agreements regarding the interview. On 27th May, a reminder email was sent out to those participants who had not replied. After this email, two teachers contacted me showing their interests in joining the interview study. The first interview started on 28th May and four interviews were conducted in total in that month.

June, 2016

Since there were still 12 participants who had not responded to the invitation email, a text invitation was sent to their phone, which was mentioned in the invitation email. At the second round of contacting, four participants replied to confirm their agreements on taking part in the interview study. As the deadline for finishing the data collection process was approaching and it might make participants annoyed by receiving my contact repeatedly, no further contact was made after the text invitation. Thus, at last, thirteen participants were recruited for the interview study. The last interview was done on 15th June, 2016.

6.4 Data analysis

Through conducting interviews, a large number of qualitative data was collected. As Robson (2011) states, thematic coding analysis is a commonly used method for processing qualitative data and it is particularly suitable for primarily practical studies

where the research goal may not be generating theories. Based on this point of view, this research employs thematic coding method to analyse qualitative data.

For guiding researchers to conduct an appropriate thematic coding analysis, Braun and Clarke (2006) propose six phases of using this method to analyse data. In the present research, the analysis process goes with these six phases.

Phase 1: Familiarizing with the data.

According to the suggestions made by Braun and Clarke (2006), the first phase in doing qualitative data analysis is immersing oneself into the data and obtaining a rough picture of the depth and breadth of the data. The familiarisation can be done through transcribing and reading data for several times, and taking initial notes. Therefore, in this step, I transcribed the full interviews with exceptions of greeting words and ice breakers. In addition, Allwight, and Bailey (1991) suggest that, researchers should reduce the redundancy of the qualitative data through eliminating the unnecessary or unhelpful conversations for reaching the research objectives. According to this advice, some irrelevant talks between the interviewer and the participants were excluded as well to make the transcriptions succinct and easy for analysis. Furthermore, some non-verbal (e.g., body language) and emotional tones (e.g. laughter) were transcribed as well in order to provide a better understanding of the conversation context (Seidman, 2013). I mainly transcribed the interviews manually, but also used Google voice typing to facilitate the transcribing process. After the transcribing, the formats of all the documents were organised for being imported into NVivo 11, the software which was widely used for coding qualitative data (Bazeley, & Jackson, 2013; Gibbs, 2002; Leech, & Onwuegbuzie, 2011).

Phase 2: Generating initial codes.

In this step, codes are systematically made across the whole data set by summarizing some interesting features (e.g. teachers' personal reasons for experiencing some emotions). As Braun and Clarke (2006) and Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, (2013) state, if the researcher has already kept certain questions in mind and tries to discover themes for the theory he /she can make some predetermined codes to examine the data. It can be perceived as a deductive way to explore the data. As it was discussed in the review chapters, I have already known from the theory that appraisals (e.g., accountability and coping potential) and dispositional antecedents (e.g., norms and beliefs) could differentiate teachers' emotional experiences; as such questions like *what specific appraisal dimensions were drawn on when Chinese and British teachers judging the situations* and *what difference between these two groups could turn up on each dimensions* had come up from the literature. Therefore, a list of start codes was made to code the data for answering these specific questions and for keeping the consistence of the analytic narrative, these coded were made in English only (Van Nes, Abma, Jonsson, & Deeg, 2010). Moreover, it is also important to use the inductive way to explore the qualitative data, since this approach can identify latent themes or surprising finding from the data (Fereday, & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Thomas, 2006). As a result, according to the advice made by Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2013), several coding methods (including elemental methods, affective methods and exploratory methods) were drawn on to uncover codes and themes inductively. For validating these initial codes, one Chinese PhD and one British PhD students who were familiar with qualitative research methods were hired to match 10 codes with 10 extracts that were created by me. In the first round, the Chinese student got 7 out of 10 and British student got 8 out of 10 similarities with

my matches, and after I revised the codes' name, both of the facilitators got 10 out of 10 agreements with my codes matches.

Phase 3, 4 & 5: Searching, reviewing and defining themes.

According to Braun and Clarke (2006) and Miles, et al (2013), the ways of generating themes involve getting patterns out of the codes and then the researcher has to make the patterns and into themes which should reflect the consensus that were shared by constitute codes. The themes of the current study were extracted based on the following three standards. First, as it was mentioned before, deductive codes created from theory were applied to extract meaning of the qualitative data; therefore, some themes were made according to the key factors in the review. Second, according to Braun and Clarke's (2006) suggestions, I used some "visual representations" (p.89) to help me see the connections and relations between each codes more clearly. Some hierarchy tables were made in NVivo 11 and codes maps (see figure 6.1 for example) were drawn in Powerpoint to represent the key ideas of theming process. Themes were identified from the initial codes and all the extracts that were collated to these themes. The consensuses, which were agreed widely among participants, were considered as preliminary themes. In addition, although Ryan, and Bernard (2003) note that it may not be a good idea to let themes share codes with each other too much, yet human cognitions infuse many mental activities of human being and they highly related to each other (LeDoux, 1989; Smith, 1986). It is hard to clearly separate the function of one cognition in one activity from its function in another sometimes (LeDoux, 1989; Plonsky, et al., 2015). Therefore, it might not be surprising to see several codes overlapped among themes of the current study. Third, although the cited frequency of certain codes among participants is not necessary to be an indicator for a theme, it can be drawn on to against the researcher's subjective

bias in analysing the qualitative data (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Klassen, 2009). As a result, the most frequently appeared extracts were considered to be candidate themes.

After devising a set of preliminary themes, the next phase of thematic coding method was activated. That was revising these themes. In order to make a thematic ‘map’, the labelled themes were reviewed not only at the level of coded extracts, but also the level of whole data set to check if they could make perfect sense. At this stage, some sub-themes were created to make the structure of a main theme more refined (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In the fifth phase, all the themes were specified and finally refined by creating definitions and names of each theme. These names and definitions not only indicated the essence of each theme, but also illustrated one facet of the data.

Phase 6: writing up the report.

In this step, abstracts that reflected the essences of these themes were selected and presented for showing the readers a completed ‘story’ that the current study aimed to tell. Braun and Clarke (2006) and Ryan and Bernard (2003) suggest that the report of the qualitative should display a good argument on research questions with the support from discovered themes rather than provide a simple description of the data. Therefore, the current report not only presented what had been found in the data, but also tried to discuss relationships or causations between themes and comparisons were also made between two groups of participants to illustrate and valid the complex story of the data. The quotations from Chinses participants were translated into English. To convey Chinese participants’ views and feeling to the best extent, both literal translation and communicative translation methods were conducted (Newmark, 1988; Nord, 2014) As Van Nes, Abma, Jonsson, and Deeg (2010) argue, some meanings of participants’ narrative may be lost during the translating process and some culture-specific metaphors can be difficult to be directly

translated into other languages; therefore, the validation of the translation is quite necessary. Two Chinese native speakers who got degrees in English Linguistics were hired to translate 10 sample pieces from the quotations and one English native speakers who got a degree in Chinese Literature was hired to do a back translation. All these translations versions were compared and discussed between the researcher and translators. Finally, agreements were reached on certain ways of translating cultural related terms or metaphors.

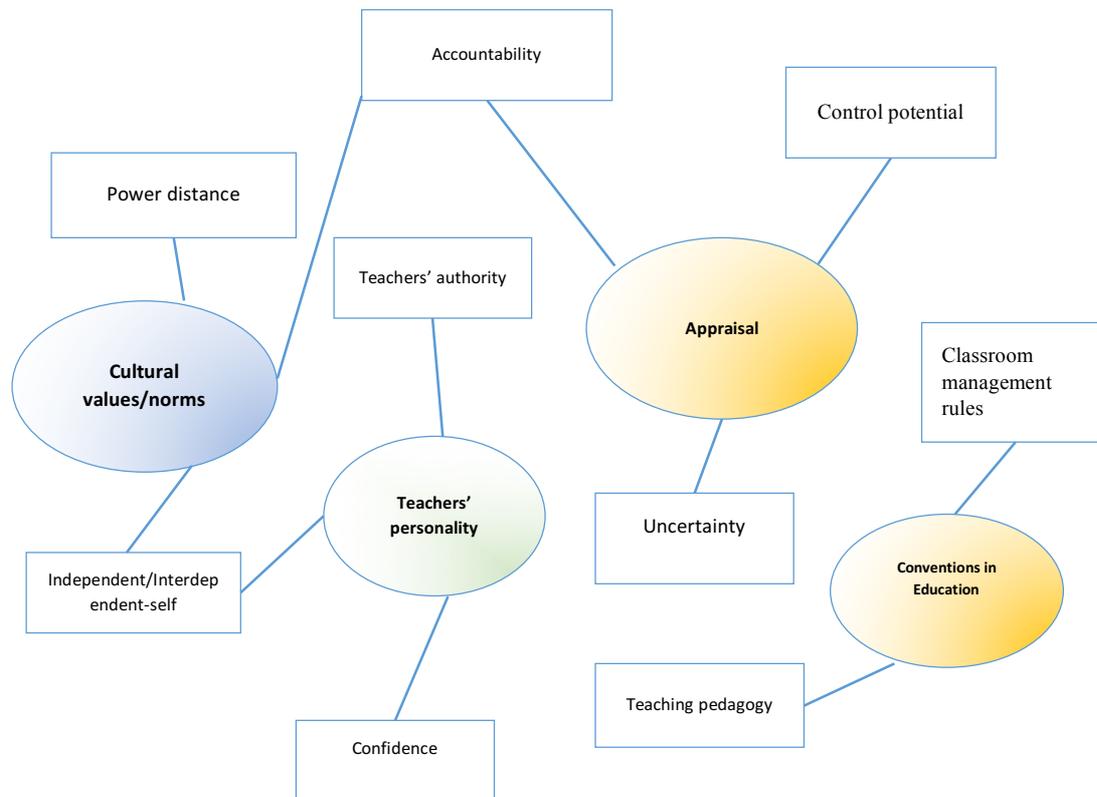
In sum, through following these six phases of thematic analysis, an integrated and explicit report on the qualitative data analysis was produced and it aimed to explain the facts and relationships discovered by quantitative data.

6.5 Results

Introduction

As it was mentioned before, the interview study was designed to answer the research question: *What factors relate to the differences discovered between Chinese teachers' and British teachers' emotional experiences?* Since in the questionnaire study differences were uncovered along three components of emotions and the interview questions were designed to explore reasons accounted for these differences on each component, the qualitative results were presented into four sections. Each section talked about themes that explained one aspect of the differences on teachers' emotional experiences.

Figure 6.1 Codes map



6.5.1 Factors accounting for differences on teachers' perceptions of students' misbehaviours

Themes under this topic aims to explain the following key findings discovered in questionnaire study.

7. Although 4 out of 5 behaviours were matched between Chinese and British teachers' lists of top5 most troublesome students' misbehaviours, the behaviour of *Chatting or joking with others* is only in Chinese teachers' top5 and *using mobile phone* is only in British top5 list.
8. British teachers perceived the troublesome-ness of students *talking out of turn* and

being late to the class significantly higher than Chinese instructors’

Based on the thematic analysis, four themes were summarised from participants’ narrative to account for these differences.

Theme 1 Conventions in Education systems

The first key factor influencing teachers’ perceptions was the conventions or customs in each country’s education systems. According to participants, the explanation for why Chinese teachers minded students chatting and joking with each other slightly more than British teachers was the different teaching styles in pedagogies of these two countries. In China the didactic way of teaching is more popular while it is the dialogical way in the UK . As such, Chinese teachers would be bothered more if their discourse power had been interrupted whereas British teachers did not mind students communicating with them or with peers, since this was a sign of engagement. At least six teachers mentioned this point. The comments from Anjun and Albert highlighted it:

Anjun: I feel like the traditional education that we have received is listening to the teacher in the classroom and students cannot speak. So I think this becomes a fixed thinking mode for us. When we become teachers we will bring this thinking into our classrooms. Maybe this is the way to reflect the teacher's authority. I am not quite sure what is the exact reason but I guess this is the custom from our childhood education.

Albert: What I was trying to do is to get everybody to talk to each other. Urm... so if there is a general group discussion people feel more bound to it.

The conventions in education were not a strong factor in explaining the different opinions on students using mobile phones in class, however, several Chinese teachers stated the popularity of using mobile phones in China might be a reason. For example, Xiaoxia mentioned her personal experiences of seeing how Chinese teachers used mobile phones to enhance students' learning:

X: For example, when I was a high school student in China my teachers used an application called “校讯通(EDU to home)” to leave home work or contact us very often...and, when I worked here I also saw some of my Chinese colleagues would like to use phone games, for example “Tanhood” I don't know if you have heard of this one, to engage with students.

Although generally speaking British teachers did not like to see students using phones in class, several teachers said they would not mind as long as the student was not disturbing others, British teachers who agreed with the results said this behaviour bothered them because “using mobile phones just makes us ask question why students bothered to turn up, because they're not really engaging with the lecturer, they're checking their Facebook page or whatever they are might be doing” (Barbara). Comments like this were a reflection of British teachers' preference for the dialogical way of teaching.

In addition, Chinese teachers did not mind students being late to the class much because it happened often in their teaching context. Cuiyu who taught in a primary school in Northern Ireland reported that:

(In our school) students would be required to be in many places, as such it is very normal he/she comes late for the class and sometimes he/she will be asked for by another teacher during a class and even him/herself wouldn't know when he/she can be back. So it is acceptable [that] they have been late for [the] next session.

Theme 2 Teachers' personality

According to the qualitative data collected for the current study, teachers' personalities (including their beliefs, identities and goals) became key factors influencing their opinions. Especially, when it comes to the two differences (British participants rated higher than Chinese participants the behaviours of talking out of turn and being late to class) which had statistical significance, British teachers believed that these behaviours disturbed both the teacher and other students. As Barbara pointed out "I think if they (students) just ask irrelevant questions...we would just try to terminate that discussion and move on because it's not helpful to either the other classmates or the lecturer" and Clay mentioned "... so the students were clearly not [in a] hurry from their class to mine, and that was annoying for me and annoying for other students who turn up on time. They were waiting for this." In addition, the behaviour of being late might also violate British teachers' goals for educating students. As Barbara noted "turning up late, I just think it's really unprofessional. Again, for lots of our students we're preparing them for a professional career and turning up late is clearly not something that potential employers would be very impressed with."

Moreover, to some extent this theme also explained why British teachers would be bothered very much by students using a phone in class. Several teachers mentioned that their uncertainty about what students were doing on the phone annoyed them. As Clay stated:

So when I'm standing in the front and see somebody using their phones or tablets or whatever, I can't tell what they're doing, so I won't tell them not to use technology but I'll tell them not to read emails or twitter or whatever. But since I

don't know which of these that they're doing, I cannot ban it all together. It does annoy me if I think people are doing something else.

Albert also presented similar opinions:

I think part of it is sometimes students use a mobile phone to look up something which is relevant, but yeah, you'll never know if they're doing more or playing "Candy Crush". So, I mean partly it's difficult to tell what they're doing.

Theme 3 Cultural norms

There are several explanations that could be made from the view of culture. More specifically, British teachers cared about the politeness of students' behaviours to a high extent. Therefore, if some students misbehaved by, for example, playing on their phones, British teachers would think it was very rude. Five teachers mentioned this point over 10 times in total. Eric said "where somebody is looking at their phone, my impression is they are texting. They're off topic; it is not related to what we are doing. It's rude for that reason." Frank even made a stronger point by saying:

I think because it's rude more than anything else. I mean people on their phone, it's not necessarily more troublesome than chatting to each other; but I think it's rude, and it's something I've always been taught it's rude, when I was a kid.

When it comes to the behaviour (e.g., students chatting or joking with each other) that Chinese teachers thought more troublesome, perceptions mainly depended on whether this behaviour challenged the teachers' authority or harmed their "face (or self-esteem)". Cuifu, Anjun and Xiaoxia all expressed this opinion saying:

C: I think in China teachers still use a conservative way to teach. It means when the teacher is speaking the students should keep absolutely quiet. Because the

teacher would think “I am the one who is teaching you. Our power distance is obviously different, so you have to respect me.”

A: Because we were not allowed to talk during the lesson when we were children, I believed this was the way to highlight the teacher’s authority in the class.

X: En...Based on our learning experiences in the primary and high schools, I think the teacher’s authority is really valued in China. Therefore, if some students [are] chatting with classmates during the teacher’s lecturing, it will get on the teacher’s nerves, definitely.

Theme 4 Acculturations

This theme particularly explained why Chinese teachers generally reported lower scores on the troublesome-ness of students’ misbehaviours than British teachers. Four out of seven Chinese teachers mentioned that in order to adapt to the British teaching context, Chinese teachers intentionally tried to accept some student misbehaviours which were different or less frequently occurring in the Chinese teaching context, because they thought these behaviours, for example being late to class, might be widely accepted in this new teaching context. They worried that they might be perceived as strange by the students if they told them stop doing that. Therefore, they tried to “play cool” to fit into a culturally different teaching context. As Hongda outlined:

First, based on my knowledge I thought Chinese teachers would be bothered more by students talking out of turn. However, according to your results, I think they reported less troublesome-ness because they believe that the western classroom atmosphere should be more open or more vivid, as it was advertised on our mass

media. As such they intentionally change their mode of thinking to fit in the wider cultural context. For instance, like me, I deliberately try not to use the Chinese way or customs of teaching to teach students here.

Moreover, comments from Yuli, a PGWT, and Hanya who was a junior lecturer enhanced this point.

Y: It may be because when I was a young child the mobile phone was not as popular as it is now. So, me and my classmates seldom played [on] phones in the class. So, I personally don't have the experience of dealing with this behaviour in a Chinese classroom context. When this behaviour happened in my class in the UK I thought it might be one of the British students' customs to use phones in the class, so I intentionally try not to interfere [with] it.

H: I think Chinese teachers tend to think that 'since I come to the UK which is a new working context to me, I will try my best to accept the traditions or customs in this context to make myself fit into it as much as possible.' As a result, the Chinese teachers become more tolerant to the students' misbehaviours here as a consequence of the cultural adaptation.

6.5.2 Factors accounting for differences in teachers' subjective experiences of emotions

This section aims to explain *what factors made Chinese teachers experience significantly higher intensity on the emotions of anxiety and shame* with four key themes discovered from the interviews.

Theme 1 Varieties of appraisal dimensions

As mentioned before, several themes were created through combining the theoretical review and the qualitative results. The theme *varieties of appraisal dimensions* was one of them. According to participants' responses to the interview questions, four appraisal dimensions were summarised. They were dimensions of *novelty*, *uncertainty*, *accountability* and *control potential*. Different appraisals made between Chinese and British teachers resulted in their different emotional experiences of seeing the same student misbehaviours.

Novelty

To begin, the first dimension that causes anxiety for Chinese teachers might be novelty in the teaching context. This novelty leads to cultural shock, misunderstandings and challenges for Chinese teachers and finally causes their negative emotions, including anxiety and shame. Xiaoxia, a teacher from one Confucius Institute, gave a detailed comment on this point. She said

Although I mainly teach in the university, some of my colleagues teach in local schools and they have a lot of regulations that need to be obeyed. The rules are like you cannot take photos of students, you cannot have physical contact with students, and also if you want to play some videos to students you need to show them to the principal and head teacher of the class first. If they approve it then you can play...

Once I listened to some local teacher's lesson...I found the experienced teachers were really good at managing the class. If a student chatted or played on the phone in their class, he/she would ask the student to leave. In that case, he could take care of the rest of the lesson. But because a Chinese teacher was not familiar

with the environment, he was not a native and he also had a lot of rules he need to follow; sometimes he may want to discipline the student... but to be honest, if you put us in the situation I just mentioned, I dare not do what the British teachers had done. Because I would worry this may bring me some bad influence as I may break some rules, etc. So some of my colleagues would not do that either.

Some British teachers also provided opinions on this dimension. As Frank stated:

So I don't know if Chinese teachers/instructors may be new to the UK. And maybe their experience is completely different from our education and completely different undergraduate courses as well... I think the distress of teaching in a different country and the fact that is [not] an easy comparison to your own undergraduate or whatever you know you did yourself back in higher education. It instantly makes it a more emotionally challenging thing to do if you didn't also do your undergraduate in the UK. Because you haven't got first-hand experience of being a student. In addition to being a PGWT in a British university, you're going straight into the teaching.

Uncertainty

The next dimension which affects differentiating Chinese and British teachers' emotional experiences was uncertainty. According to participants' opinions, teachers' negative judgements on this dimension caused the emotion of anxiety. Answers from Anjun highlighted this factor:

Interviewer:

So you mean because they (the Chinese teachers) are new to an environment and their first language is different from the local one, they are more likely to experience anxiety?

Anjun:

Yes. Especially when some unexpected situations happened in their class, they don't know how to react. For instance, here, if I see a student comes late to my class, I'm not very sure if I should smile and say "It's ok" and let them sit down or I should tell them "You had better not be late next time." So, we become very cautious about what we should say and how we perform in the British teaching context.

In addition, a British teacher, Barbara, also mentioned uncertainty in a foreign teaching context could be a trigger for anxiety.

I mean if you're teaching in a context which you're not used to you don't really know how the students will behave or interact and how you'll be judged. It is from the fear of being judged inadequate or sort of different.

Accountability

Later, the appraisal dimension of accountability seems to play a crucial role in assigning Chinese and British teachers' emotional experiences different directions, since this concept was mentioned by 9 teachers, 24 times. According to the quantitative results, Chinese teachers felt significantly more intense shame and anxiety than British teachers. The reason for this difference could be because Chinese and British teachers blamed different agencies when they encountered student misbehaviours. Daniel, a professor in a university, put out this point very clearly in his interview:

So my guess is who feels responsible of the behaviour. If you, it could annoy you, intentionally, but you may not feel responsible for that. But if you feel somehow you're responsible for it, then you're going to feel more anxious about it. Let's

say somehow, it might be a question who's to blame. And so maybe then, there is this cultural thing that is underpinning the exercise that you're doing. You know, it's the cultural difference in a way. So maybe it comes to who feels to be responsible.

With further analysis, two different tendencies of appraising the accountability were discovered between the Chinese and British groups. Precisely, based on Chinese participants' reports, Chinese teachers were inclined to take students' uncivil behaviours personally. They would blame themselves for students' failures. As Hanya noted,

Speaking of anxiety, that is, the Chinese teachers would like to link teaching outcomes to their performance. They may think 'I am the one who is teaching you, if you don't learn well, maybe I have a bit [of] responsibility for that, too.'

On the contrary, British teachers reckoned they would not take those misbehaviours personally because they thought it was students' faults for behaving poorly in the class. That was why this group of teachers felt less intensity of shame. As Clay indicated, "I guess the British lecturers might feel some of those things are not their fault as students choose to talk in class. That's going to be their fault so there is no shame to me."

Barbara's comments enriched this point. She said:

...I don't know, I suppose shame is something quite personal. If you comment on somebody personally. I don't know. I take the view that students are responsible for their own education. They chose to be there...So if somebody is not behaving professionally in a lecture, I don't see it's my fault I see to their problem and they need to learn how to behave.

Some Chinese teachers sensed this difference in the attribution of failure between Chinese and British teachers in their work place. As Yuli reported,

I feel we Chinese teachers tend to take things personally. For example, I have a class on every Friday morning. There are 13 students enrolling in it. But usually only 5 to 6 people show up and sometimes even less. In this situation, the leading lecturer, well I am just a tutor for this module, and the other teaching assistant always gave me support by telling me I should not take it personally, because it's Friday morning. Many students just could not get up early at the very end of the week. Well after listening to their advice time and time again, I start to think maybe they are right. It is just because of the students' laziness, not because of me.

Control potential

The last appraisal dimension which might make a contribution to the differences between Chinese and British teachers' emotional experience was control/coping potential. As the Chinese teacher Xiaoxia pointed out,

That may be because I personally think the class should be under my control; at least I thought that way before I came to the UK. Well, later, after I got some training here I realised that, as a teacher, you are not only a controller, not only a teacher, but an assistant, a listener or a facilitator to your class. So I think maybe Chinese teachers feel more anxious, because they perceive the situation has gone beyond their controlling abilities.

This comment highlighted that the Chinese teachers might give a bit more attention to the control dimension when they judge the students' misbehaviours; as such, they were likely to feel negative emotions when they perceived themselves to have low control potential.

Theme 2 Cultural values

Based on participants' responses, this theme emerged as a wider influence on emotional experiences. For example, Clay was asked, "can you think of why British teachers are

more inclined to think it is the students' fault?" and he replied, "I suppose it is kind of a culture thing." Later, the response from Albert illustrated the influence of culture in more detail. He stated that,

I wonder if that's a part of it. The UK tends to be a, I think, quite individualistic society and I think China is perhaps more community oriented or united. And so that's perhaps why I tend to say if you're not working hard in fact it's your problem, it's not my problem. Where then maybe, I don't know, I'm guessing, but in China [there is] more of the feeling that you have to, like, bring everybody else along.

Chinese teachers also made many points cultural influences on their appraisal and their feelings. One particular cultural value that they emphasized was the high power distance between students and the teacher. The comment from Yuli illustrated this point,

Under the influences of Confucianism, which granted a very high social profile to teachers...Chinese culture emphasizes too much on respecting teachers; students cannot appropriately express their dissatisfaction with their teacher. Instead, they use some mischievous behaviors to express their dissatisfaction. Accordingly, the Chinese teachers would regard the students' misbehaviours as a kind of protest and dissatisfaction. So Chinese teachers take it very personally because of the deep influence of their experience in China and, unconsciously, they will take it as students not liking them or being dissatisfied with them when they find the British students do not obey the rules or behave badly in the classroom.

Another value that may related to this this one was the importance of “面子 face” in Chinese culture. As mentioned in the review chapter, in different discourse contexts, this

term can be understood subtly different but mainly it implies respect (to others or to oneself). Anjun and Peilan explained the influence of this by saying,

A: Speaking of shame, could it be because students did not give you the “face (respect)”? As I said before, for some Chinese teachers, no matter what they do they will feel more anxious than British teachers, because they think they are not on their turf. Take me as an example, even if the students behaved well in my class, I would still feel anxious. Because I would worry if I performed well. It seems we Chinese really care about our “faces (figure in the public)”

P: Why Chinese teachers feel high level of shame? I think the Chinese teachers probably take the traditional culture of respecting the teacher seriously and it is kind of the respect that they (British students) lack. Because all of this, shock, you know, comes as you do not respect the teacher and also it’s a waste of time. So for the Chinese teachers the respect is very important.

Theme 3 Teachers’ personality

Teachers’ personalities also played pivotal roles in influencing the generation process of their emotions. Teachers’ perceived beliefs, identities, and goals specified their emotional experiences.

Sub-theme 1 Teacher efficacy

To start, Chinese and British teachers had different beliefs about teachers’ responsibilities. Based on participants’ responses, Chinese teachers had a high sense of responsibility for the whole class. As Xiaoxia put forward,

I think it indicates that Chinese teachers have more sense of responsibility. We cannot be so sure of it but if we think [about] the phenomenon deductively, we can distil a

point that Chinese teachers would think ‘it is my responsibility to make sure every student concentrates on my lesson, therefore, if they lost their interest I should feel ashamed or anxious.’

This sense of responsibility was also associated with Chinese teachers’ caring about students. A comment from Peilan highlighted this,

Because coming and studying here (in the UK) is very expensive and it’s a shame if you don’t learn well. It’s a waste of your time and money. So I feel sorry for their parents. That’s my real feeling. So if they fall asleep, you feel shame, you feel anxious and so on.

However, on the British side, many teachers made it very clear that the students should be responsible for their behaviour in the class. Comments from Daniel illustrated what might be proof of this,

So they’re adults, they really have to take responsibility for their own behaviour. So if they behave poorly the reflection is on them to be able to feel that they did that behaviour that is respectable...So, I believe they've been behaving poorly, I think the reflection is on them. I don't feel shame I think they should feel shame.

Therefore, it can be assumed that teachers’ different perceptions of their responsibilities in the teaching context were one of the key factors related to the differences in their feelings.

Moreover, teachers’ judgement of their own abilities in managing the class put a heavy influence on the differences discovered in the emotions of anxiety and shame. To be more specific, both Chinese and British teachers mentioned the level of confidence could influence their feelings and it was evidently (reported by 4 Chinese teachers 9 times) shown in the interview data that Chinese teachers feel more anxiety and shame due to

their low levels of confidence, and that this diffidence might come from their weakness in second language proficiency. As Hongda proposed,

The teaching language you use is not your first language. You may be low on the confidence when you teach in a second language. You know you cannot perform to a native-speaker standard, as such any subtle student misbehaviours can bring you panic.

Later, the response from Anjun helped us to understand this point. She said,

Sometimes, there will be situations that require more verbal communications and they require that kind of daily language, not the academic-style language. Not like the words that you have prepared already and just deliver like blah blah blah on the teaching stage. So these sudden and unexpected communication situations make me feel uncomfortable. Then, as a Chinese I really care about my “face” in the public, so I would really worry that my self-image will be blackened by these situations and students will laugh at me.

Another element that could decrease Chinese teachers’ confidence was unfamiliarity of the local cultural norms. Yuli mentioned things like,

Another possibility is Chinese teachers do not know how to deal with some uncivil situations. For example, maybe they really don’t like students disengaging with the whole class but they do not know what is the right way to tell British students to stop doing that. That is to say, they are not very confident about distinguishing cultural differences between China and the UK.

This unfamiliarity even could result in Chinese teachers’ feelings of vulnerability, since Anjun noticed this point from her personal experiences,

I feel that the Chinese teachers, for example the teachers I know, are afraid of the students. Because they are afraid of the students, they dare not or are not willing to correct students' misbehaviour, and they just let the students talk. I see a lot of Chinese teachers feel that this is not their own country, they are not using their own language, and this makes them afraid. This is what I noticed.

In comparison, British teachers expressed certain high levels of confidence. The following comments from Albert, Eric and Frank might highlight this assumption.

Albert: On the talking out of turn, personally I've not found it to be a huge problem because... I'm big enough and ugly enough that I can just tell somebody to shut up, and I'll sort of point to people that I want to speak. So everyone is trying to jump in at once, I can manage that reasonably well.

Eric: Well I guess by playing the teacher role you give yourself an air of authority. I guess I mean being a white British man of a certain age, doesn't hurt in that. Because there are some certain assumptions that people have.

Frank: Oh, I don't think British feel shame that much. I think that's more brash confidence from the British teachers in comparisons with Chinese teachers.

In addition, it might need to be mentioned that all 5 British teachers who mentioned the confidence level were white males and their average years of teaching experience in the UK was 15.6 while the average years of experience of the 4 Chinese teachers was 5.75. As such, it might be able to suppose that the sources of British teachers' high levels of confidence were their perceived figures and length of teaching experience. Several Chinese teachers' comments might support the idea of the second assumed source. For example, as Hongda said,

Of course, for experienced teachers or the person whose English is excellent, the students' misbehaviours may not be a problem. But for young lecturers or, like us PGWTs, some students' misbehaviours may be quite a shock for us.

Sub-theme 2 Teacher identity

According to the participants, how teachers perceived their identity as a teacher influenced their judgement of the emotional triggers. To be more specific, Chinese teachers were prone to perceiving themselves as a role model for students. This perceived identity might come from the ancient philosophy, Confucianism, which pictured teachers as exemplary and virtuous in society. Comments from Cuifu highlighted this point,

I think, in China, as a teacher we carry a lot of burdens on our shoulders.

Since in ancient China there were plenty of philosophers who wrote articles emphasising that teachers should be good examples of human morals and ethics in society.

Under the influence of this Chinese cultural value, Chinese teachers were concerned more about their public figures. As Xiaoxia put forward,

We really care about our self-images in the class. Can you imagine that if some people come to listen to your class and you lose the control of the students, you would feel so ashamed. Because as a teacher you're supposed to have the skills to make students engaged and concentrated. If a student just sleeps in your class, all your "faces" as a teacher would be lost.

This perception of teachers' identity in a teaching context might explain the point mentioned earlier on why Chinese teachers would care about their "faces" so much.

However, British teachers proposed different opinions on the role of a teacher in a British university. Firstly, Daniel clearly pointed out that a university lecturer was not like a school teacher who taught people who have to be in his/her class. He pointed out the differences between school and university teaching settings as such, “If you go to Universities you talk to people that have chosen to be there. Ok, so there is difference. So they can choose not to come to your lecture, not to come to your workshop, not to come to your tutorial.” According to this difference, teachers’ roles changed as well. As a university lecturer Daniel preferred to think, “I would never walk into a room thinking that I needed to appear stern to get them disciplined, or anything like that.” This British perception of the role of a teacher might lead to their different attribution of responsibilities in comparison with Chinese teachers.

Furthermore, Eric suggested another role of the teacher. He implied that a teacher was kind of an actor. When they started to teach, they started to act the teacher role. Here is what he said, “Well my wife is a school teacher and she’s a drama teacher. She worked out fairly early that actually teaching is acting. There’s a role of teacher and you’re playing that role of teacher.” Thinking he was playing the teacher role helped him keep confidence in the class, because,

The students want and expect you to play that role of teacher and provided you do, generally things go ok and if they think you don’t think you’re a teacher, they sense you haven’t got confidence in yourself...And so even if I’m feeling fairly fed up that day as I go to the class, I’ll just sort of think that you are now going on stage, which it is, and start to play the role. So you can almost as you walk into the door as you (breathes in heavily), and within a couple of minutes you basically, I think, get into character.

From his comments, it can be assumed that his perception of the identity of a teacher might also help him not relate the success or failure of his teaching with his personal feelings.

Theme 4 Conventions in Education systems

In the interview, participants mentioned one particular convention in Chinese education systems that was different from the British education system. This convention was the assessment method of teachers' teaching. As Yuli pointed out, in China, students usually do not have a chance to provide feedback on teachers' teaching. Under this circumstance, if students are not satisfied with one teacher they would use indirect ways, for example, behaving badly in the classroom to express their dissatisfaction with this teacher. She mentioned "By the time we were undergraduates in the universities we did not have the system to mark teachers' teaching; therefore, we did not really have a right way to express our opinions on the teachers' performances." She also compared the system in the two countries.

But in the UK, the universities really value students' feedback, as such any students if they have some thoughts or complains about a teacher's teaching, no matter where this teacher comes from, they have the marking system to give feedback to this teacher.

This difference in assessment system for teachers' performance between the two countries might result in teachers' different interpretations of students' uncivil behaviours in the classroom. A comment from a British teacher, Barbara, also facilitated this assumption,

Because I'm not sure about the context in which Chinese teachers operate. Whether it's an important part of their jobs and in terms of how well the students behave or whether they're regarded as responsible for that. Therefore, they feel anxious because...I don't know, if they're praised on that basis or if there a sense that they are not doing their job properly in some way.

This factor explained why Chinese teachers tended to take students' misbehaviours more personally. Since, based on their education experience in China, behaving badly was the way for a student to show dissatisfaction to a teacher, when they came and taught in a British class this culturally shaped belief influenced their understanding of British students' classroom behaviours and resulted in their different feelings from local teachers.

6.5.3 Factors accounting for inconsistency between teachers' perceptions of students' misbehaviours and their emotional reactions

As mentioned in section 4.6, one interesting finding was discovered in the questionnaire survey that British teachers rated the student misbehaviours showed in the scenarios as more troublesome than Chinese teachers. However, when they watched the video clips, their emotional reactions to those behaviours in the classroom were less intense than those of Chinese teachers. That is to say, the differences in teachers' perceptions and differences in emotional experiences between Chinese and British teachers did not appear in the same way. To uncover the reason why this inconsistency could happen, the interviewees were asked for their opinions. From their answers, the following three themes might be factors accounting for this miss-match between teachers' opinions and feelings.

Theme 1 Teachers' personality

Several teachers suggested that different modes of thinking and different beliefs about responsibilities between Chinese and British teachers might be a reason for the inconsistency. More specifically, British teachers tended to use critical ways of thinking when judging an uncivil situation. As Anjun noted,

I feel that British teachers have clear principles in teaching. I see this from my British colleagues. For example, if a behaviour can happen in class, they will let it happen, but if this behaviour should not happen in the class British teachers will make it very clear to students and be very strict on that rule. They have certain criteria for judging things.

Based on this mode of thinking, British teachers gave high rates on the troublesome-ness of students' misbehaviours, as these behaviours broke their believed standards for students' performance in class.

When it comes to Chinese teachers' modes of thinking, as Cuifu noted, they might be more tolerant of other peoples' faults in the first instance, because they thought only seeing this misbehaviour once was not enough to accuse somebody.

They like to wait and observe. For example, sometimes they wouldn't blame a student for his/her incivility but they will wait to see if this student will make more mistakes like this and they'll accumulate these mistakes until there is clear evidence to accuse this student.

As such, Chinese teachers might be more tolerant of students' misbehaviours as they preferred to think everybody deserves a second chance.

Later, as mentioned previously, British teachers drew a clear line between their responsibilities and students' responsibilities in the university class. They would not think

students' incivilities in class were their fault; therefore, they would not have high emotional reactions to the misbehaviours. This explanation might be highlighted by comments from Albert,

As I mentioned, you know, I always take my job seriously. I try to be professional after, but I always thought people coming to the seminar are adults and responsible for their own lives.

In sum, British teachers perceived students' misbehaviours in a more objective and critical way. These behaviours violate teaching principles, therefore, they were disturbing and troublesome for the teacher. But the British teachers would not take these uncivil behaviours personally. As such, when it came to their real emotional reactions to those behaviours they would not generate very high intensity of personal feelings.

Theme 2 Cultural norms

The last theme explaining why British teachers rate high the troublesome-ness but feel low levels of emotions is cultural norms. In this, the reverse was true of Chinese teachers who judged students' behaviours as less troublesome but felt high intensities of emotional reactions.

According to Anjun's comments, Chinese people liked keeping harmony in social activities, so they tended to suppress too critical or extreme opinions when judging things,

I think Chinese people like to repress their feelings or thoughts when you ask their opinions of something, as they don't want to be the first one to break the veil.

Therefore, they would give some moderate comments to keep the harmony between them and other people.

This suppression might lead to Chinese teachers providing the low rate on the troublesome-ness scale. Then, another question was why would they feel a higher intensity of emotions. The comment from Frank might answer this question,

I think that plays the same thing about blaming themselves rather than students. I'm speculating [based on the] very few Chinese PGWTs I know. But I suspect that would probably be what it is, they blame themselves rather than students, that means if the students' troublesome-ness is lower, their emotional responses are higher.

This theme also played a fair role in explaining British teachers' low rate on the emotion scale. As Eric mentioned, unlike Chinese people who tended to suppress personal opinions, British people were inclined to repress personal feelings. Eric suggested some explanations with mentioning British social norms, which, as he emphasised, might not be one hundred percent true, but still provided some thoughts on understanding the quantitative results,

Oh dear, we sound quite stereotypical like you know reserved in, oh well, I shouldn't grumble. That British thing is about not making a fuss and repressing our emotions, I'm not sure how true that is in the modern world but you know that's the stereotype but British people have stiff upper a lip. This is the idea that you bear life's troubles stoically, so you don't show emotion you don't complain, erm, you know you're very understated about things, erm. You don't show your emotions.

Theme 3 Vision enhancing reality

One interesting factor that might be related to Chinese teachers' high rating of their emotional reactions was that the video scenarios in the questionnaire enhance the reality

for them. As four Chinese teachers mentioned, the video clips in the second part of the questionnaire brought a more tangible teaching setting to them and elicited their personal experiences or memories. Therefore, more clear personal feelings came out as the outcomes of seeing those triggers by their own eyes, rather than imaging the triggers while reading words describing them. Responses from Xiaoxia and Yuli were illustrators for this opinion,

X: Because there is no picture in the first part the teacher couldn't feel too [many] personal feelings. Particularly, as Chinese we may not like to go extremes especially when answering the questions about degrees of something. We'd always like to stay in the middle. However, once we saw these videos in the second part, especially as there are some cases that can be linked to our own classroom settings, our feelings, like anger, would be doubled and we would rate high scores on the scale. I think the most likely explanation is people's psychological reactions relate with their visual experience. So the feelings that you have when you see and hear real things are certainly not the same as the ones that you imagined after reading the words. I think the vision stimulates the emotions in your heart.

Y: I think it may be because Chinese may not have met all of the misbehaviours that you described in the first part. They would like to give more conservative responses if they never met the situations. Or, maybe the misbehaviours that happened in their class were not as severe as you showed in the videos. Therefore, when you presented the real cases in front of their eyes, even they never met the situations or met less intensive

student behaviours in their own teaching context, they will bring themselves into the video as the teacher, so when they are into that character, a stronger sense of emotions will show up.

6.5.4 Teachers' personal emotional experiences in real teaching contexts

The last part of the interview examined teachers' personal experiences to enrich the whole story of Chinese and British teachers' emotional experiences. The interview questions firstly investigated teachers' most memorable student behaviours experienced in the class and their corresponding feelings; and secondly, they tried to discover an overall picture of Chinese and British teachers' feelings about teaching in the UK.

Theme 1 Types of impressive situational antecedents

After analysing all thirteen participants' responses, the current study discovered that Chinese teachers reported as negative more impressive situational antecedents than British teachers. Although, some teachers reported two or more most memorable cases, the first cases that each mentioned were compared and it was found that all the first cases mentioned by Chinese teachers were uncivil behaviours of students, whereas 4 positive and 2 negative student behaviours were the first cases reported by British teachers.

In addition, in-active disengagement behaviours from students might be a popular influence on Chinese teachers' emotional experiences, since 4 (Anjun, Hanya, Peilan and Cuifu) out of 7 Chinese teachers reported them as the most memorable student behaviours in the class and their associated feelings were hopelessness, anxiety, unhappy, and disappointment. The following response from Peilan might be a highlight this,

One case is there was one student coming to the seminar and she was one of my own supervisees. She was late for the seminar and she came and sat there without any noting taking or participation. She didn't engage with

the talking and discussion and so basically her mind was not there; and after the break, she came back again and she was on the phone and so I felt not very happy.

In comparison, students making progress might be a key trigger for positive feelings from the British, as 3 (Barbara, Eric and Frank) out of 6 teachers reported this behaviour as the most memorable for them and they felt pleased, pleasantly surprised and proud. Take Barbara's comment as an example,

Some Chinese students have lacked confidence about making presentations, so there were a couple who have really showed how they developed over the year and delivered very confident and well put together presentations. That, you know, I was really pleased for them.

Theme 2 Positive vs. negative feelings

Generally speaking, most of the teachers who joined this interview study enjoyed teaching. Four from the Chinese group and four from the British group reported the feeling of enjoyment in doing the teaching job. Comments from Barbara and Hanya might be highlights for this result,

B: Generally, it's quite enjoyable. I mean I'm teaching in the area that I'm interested in that I have quantum knowledge about and it's something I like to talk about to students and sometimes we can have quite good discussions in the sessions and students can sort of see the purpose of what they've done and how things come out and I think it's quite enjoyable.

H: I quite enjoy it and feel satisfied. Because students keep learning new knowledge and when I see them making progress I get the feeling of

satisfaction. From this process I felt I played a great part in spreading human knowledge.

Two British teachers and one Chinese teacher mentioned they had mixed feelings about teaching. For example, Eric reported that,

It depends on my mood more generally. So generally I might say my default process to teach is just before it starts I go ‘oh...(sigh)’, especially if it is the 1st time I met the class. Just 2 or 3 minutes before [I feel] a bit of anxiety, a fairly low level. Just wondering if this will go well when I’m meeting these new people. And usually afterwards I feel very positive and up.

At last, a notable comment in participants’ reports should be emphasised here. That is that one Chinese teacher reported feeling vulnerability in the class,

I always prepare for a long time for the class, because I think I am the only Chinese PGWT in the Department of Politics and all the others are native. I think I am the one who needs to prepare with my whole heart since I’m slow in reading. In addition, I tried my very best to please students in the class to make them like me, as I feel I’m so lonely and have very weak power in controlling them. I heard that some other PGWTs dared to have quarrels with students in the class, but for me, if some students disagreed with me I would say “great point” and let it go. I wouldn’t argue with them.

Comments like this revealed that in the British teaching profession there are international teachers who need help in understanding the British teaching context.

6.6 Discussion

Introduction.

The current study was designed to examine the second subordinate research question: *What factors relate to the differences between British instructors' and Chinese instructors' emotional experience?*

For answering this question, a semi-structured interview schedule was applied to investigate participants' opinions about the factors that could influence teachers' emotional experiences between these two countries. For digging specific reasons which can explain the findings discovered in questionnaire survey, the interview questions were structured according to 3 key aspects (differences on teachers' perceptions of students' misbehaviours, differences on teachers' emotional experience and inconsistent differences between their perceptions and their feelings) of quantitative results. Through using thematic analysis to analyse the data deductively and inductively from participants' response, four main themes which put most of the influences on teachers' perceptions and emotional experiences were discovered, although there were other factors making effects as well. The four main ones were cultural values, conventions in education systems, teachers' personality and varieties on appraisal dimension. The rest of this section discussed the significance of the findings with respect to the existing literature and tried to provide interpretive insights of the qualitative results.

6.6.1 The influence of main themes on teachers' perceptions

For differences on the teachers' perceptions of the troublesome-ness of students' misbehaviours, themes of conventions in education system and cultural values made crucial influences. First, *conventions in education*, this theme was discovered through an

inductive way, as many teachers mentioned that the pedagogy that they were used to would influence how they assess students' performance in the class. According to the findings, Chinese teachers were more familiar with the didactic way of teaching; whereas, the British teachers were more prone to use dialogical way of teaching in the class. This result was consistent with the point proposed by Zhu, Valcke, and Schellens (2008) that in China, the education focused on didactic teaching and also reflected Hamilton's (1999) research which put forward that the didactic teaching method was not popular in England. Under this influence, Chinese teachers would be bothered more by students' behaviour which disturbed the teacher's discourse authority, in contrast, British teachers would be annoyed more the behaviour of disengaging with the class.

The second theme that made wide influences on teachers' perceptions and also could be predicted from the literature was cultural norms. As Schutz et al., (2001) put forward, a persons' belief was culturally shaped and this point might be facilitated by finding discovered from the current study. To be specific, as it was present in section 6.6.1 Theme 3, British teachers were bothered by students' behaviour of using mobile phone in the class mainly because it was a rude behaviour in their point of view. They would suggest this point may be because the UK is a country highly values the politeness in social interactions (Cameron, 2012; Llorca, 2004; Thrush, 1993). In comparison, Chinese teachers minded the behaviours of student chatting or joking with each other

more, because this behaviour challenged their teacher authority. This result might conform to the Hofstede cultural values report which states China is a country has high values on power distance, which means people from this country tended to worship the superior and the authority. Therefore, under the influence of this cultural value, Chinese teachers would be bothered more by students' authority-challenging behaviours.

6.6.2 The influence of main themes on Teachers' subjective experiences of emotions

Three main themes that related to the differences between Chinese and British teachers' emotional experiences *were varieties on appraisal dimensions, teachers' personality and cultural values.*

6.6.2.1 Varieties on appraisal dimensions

In addition to the five appraisal dimensions (goals, uncertainty, accountability, control potential and norms) that were proposed in section 2.1.2.2. the current study found that the dimension of novelty (Scherer, 1984) would also be one important appraisal in deciding teachers' emotional experiences. As this dimension was not emphasized in Lazarus's (1991) framework of primary and secondary appraisals, it was overlooked in the review, however, participants' responses in the interviews brought this dimension into the researcher's sight. According to participants' comments, as a teacher who taught abroad, the management rules, the courses and local cultural values in a foreign teaching context were all new to him/her, and this novelty increased the uncertainty for their teaching. Moreover, due to this high level of uncertainty, Chinese teachers worried more during their teaching; as a result, their feelings of anxiety or stress were higher than British teachers. This finding was in line with the results from a research done by Klassen,

Foster, Rajani, and Bowman (2009). In their interview study they also discovered that the uncertainty that teacher perceived related to their stress feelings.

When it comes to the secondary appraisal, teachers' assessment of dimensions of accountability and control potential played a decisive role in differentiating Chinese and British teachers' emotional experiences. Precisely, as it was presented in Table 2.2, when people see a goal-relevance and goal incongruence situation (e.g., students misbehaving in the classroom), several negative emotions are ready to show up, then the first differentiator that divides these emotions into different groups is agency/accountability. In the current study, Chinese teachers were inclined to take the responsibility for the goal incongruence situation; whereas, British teachers would blame others for the goal incongruence. According to Lazarus (1991, 2001) Scherer (1984, 1993, 1999) if a person blames him/herself for a faulty situation, he/she would feel the emotion of shame and the findings from the questionnaire study affirmed this prediction. Chinese teachers reported significant higher level of intensity on the emotion of shame than British teachers. Speaking of the other secondary appraisal, the control potential, Chinese and British teachers reported different perceptions on this dimension. According to the results, Chinese teachers wanted to control the class more than British teachers. In other words, they had high expectancy on themselves to achieve certain teaching outcomes. According to the control value theory that was proposed by Pekrun (2007), when a person starts to expect certain results from an activity, the prospective outcome emotions (e.g. hope and anxiety) are potentially to turn up. Therefore, if a teacher has high expectancy on the outcomes but he/she also senses his/her control competence is weak in achieving that expectation, the emotion of anxiety is highly to be felt. This is how the findings in the

current research can be explained, because the next theme, teachers' belief, illustrated that Chinese teachers had low confidence in their control ability in the class.

6.6.2.2 Teachers' personality

This theme revealed that teachers' efficacy was a pivotal factor that resulted in differences between Chinese and British teachers' emotional experiences. As it was presented in section 6.5.2, Chinese teachers widely reported low confidence in themselves made them easier to feel anxious and tend to blame themselves when they saw students' misbehaved in their class. In contrast, several British teachers mentioned they had certain confidence in managing the class and combining these teachers' demographic information it could be assumed that white male figures might help teachers to gain confidences in the British teaching context. This finding was consistent with findings in the research done by Alberts et al., (2010). They mentioned that in America white male teachers may perceive themselves have more control power on students.

Furthermore, based on the interview results, there were two elements that could bring diffidence to Chinese teachers. The first one was Chinese teachers' second language proficiency. Working in the UK, the Chinese teachers had to teach in English which was their second language. As a result, several Chinese participants noted that the flaws in their English proficiency impeded their teaching proficiency profoundly and brought them low confidence in the classroom. This finding might echo to the issues mentioned in Llurda's (2004) research. He puts forward that when non-native-speaker teachers teach in English they are easy to be influenced by their first language and own culture. Therefore, it may be a bit unfair to judge these teachers' teaching with native-speaker teachers' standard and obviously these assessing standards put extra stress for non-native-speaker teachers' teaching. The other source where Chinese teachers' diffidence would come

from was the unfamiliarity with local classroom management principles and social norms. As Yuli and Anjun mentioned in the interview, Chinese teachers dare not to take classroom management strategies that British teachers would take to control the class. Because, as international teachers, they were not sure if the principles that local teachers followed were the same as the principles that they had to follow. Especially in schools the rules for part-time or temporary teachers sometimes are not the same for full-time teachers (see the guide provided by Association of Teachers and Lecturers, 2014). Moreover, Chinese teachers were not confident in stopping students' misbehaviours in the classroom might be because they were not sure if that prevention would be a normal thing to do in the new teaching context. They had noticed there were differences on social norms between these two countries and for adapting themselves into the new cultural context they were very cautious about following local conventional norms. This perplexity mentioned by participants in the current study was in line with the bafflement that was presented in Hofstede's (1986) research.

6.6.2.3 Cultural values

As mentioned in previous section, cultural norms or values put influences on teachers' judgement of the situation and impacted their cultural adaptation. Therefore, this theme indicated the crucial factors that influenced the appraisal dimension of social norms. As it was revealed in qualitative results, the reason why Chinese teachers felt higher level of shame than British teachers was they were prone to blame themselves for students' misbehaviours in the classroom. Then, the next question was why Chinese teachers would tend to blame themselves for students' faults. According to participants' responses in the interview study, the cultural value of individualism and collectivism might act as an influencer for impacting teachers' beliefs of the responsibilities. This result can be

explained by the cultural modes of emotions that were proposed by Kitayama, et al., (2004), according to whom, a person from a culture which values collectivism is tend to have social engaging emotions (including respect and shame). Because in a collectivist society the social interdependence is the salient value in guiding people's social interactions and people who bear this cultural value are highly prone to develop interdependent identities, which means they tend to use other group members' reactions to define themselves. As the Figure 2.2 revealed, China is a country that gets high scores on the collectivism value. Therefore, in the current research, under the influences of their interdependent identities and the collectivist cultural background, teachers from China tended to take students' misbehaviours personally and felt higher intensity of shame. This result was in consistent with results from Kitayama's et al (2004) study. After comparing 14-day diary results from Japanese and American students, Kitayama et al (2004) discovered that when facing negative situations Japanese students reported higher intensity on socially engaging emotions, whereas, American students reported higher intensity on socially disengaging emotions than Japanese students.

Furthermore, Chinese teachers mentioned that under the influence of Confucianism, they would perceive themselves not only as teachers but also as role models in front of students. However, British teachers clearly put forward that when they taught the students they were just acting the teacher role. They perceived teaching as a professional job as such not too many personal feelings should be related to it. This finding highly reflected the point proposed by Schutz et al (2007) that teachers' certain beliefs about their own images in the class would convince themselves to feel emotions in a certain way.

6.6.3 Factors explain inconsistency of differences on teachers' perceptions and their emotional experiences

According to the interview result a model could be suggested to explain why Chinese teachers reported lower levels on the troublesome-ness of students' misbehaviours but higher levels on the emotional reactions in comparison with British teachers. Specifically, in the section where teachers' opinions about objects (students' misbehaviours in this case) were examined, Chinese teachers were inclined to suppress their extreme opinions when rated the scale; however, British teachers were more critical on assessing the troublesome-ness of students' misbehaviours. This was why the means of rates from Chinese teachers were lower than that from British teachers. Then, when it comes to the part where teachers' emotional reactions were investigated, the video scenarios created a more direct and real settings for both teachers. Therefore, after bringing themselves into the teacher character, Chinese teachers' personality (low confidence and self-blame) made them take those misbehaviours more personally than British teachers. As a result, they reacted with higher intensity on emotions in scales. Similar to the previous part, further questions would be raised by this explanation. For example, why would Chinese teachers repress their opinions and why could British teachers be more critical? These questions could be answered partly by participants' comments in the interview and deeply by cultural values reviewed in the literature.

As Anjun commented, Chinese people tended to keep harmony in the society; thus, they did not like to put forward extreme opinions on judging things or people. Also, Cuifu mentioned that, Chinese people were more tolerant to the mistreatment or unfair situations. These points could be explained by the dialectical model of emotions that was proposed by Kitayama et al (2004). According to Kitayama et al (2004) and Leu et al

(2005), people from East Asian were heavily influenced by Buddhism and Daoism which emphasise on making peace with others and with oneself and keeping balance between positivity and negativity. There were several sayings in Chinese society may reflect this cultural value. For instance, when a person is bothered by somebody's mistakes, people will calm him or her down by saying “人非圣贤孰能无过”, which means “men are not saints; how can they be free from faults”, to make him forgive the other person. (Lan, 2013). In contrast, as it was discussed in Section 2.3.2.2, the Hofstede cultural value points and the Telegraph report (2005) reveal that the British society emphasises on equality and justice, as such people from this society would have low tolerance on unfair or injustice situations. This cultural value could explain why British teachers rated higher scores on the troublesome-ness of students' misbehaviours than Chinese teachers.

6.6.4 Teachers' emotional experiences from their real teaching contexts.

As it was presented in the results section, the first memorable emotional experiences came to Chinese teachers' minds were all negative ones and one female Chinese teacher particularly reported feeling vulnerable during the teaching. This result was in agreement with Alberts's et al., (2010) study which points out international teachers may be a vulnerable group in teaching proficiency, as they have less power dynamics in managing local students. These findings from teachers' personal experiences in real teaching contexts revealed that Chinese teachers did face struggles in British teaching context and their emotional well-being might not be as good as British teachers'.

Conclusion

To conclude, this interview study discovered that the differences on Chinese and British teachers' emotional experiences can be explained by the differences on their appraisals,

personality, education conventions that they were used to and cultural values that they carried in themselves. From the logic of participants' responses, a diagram can be summarised to describe the generating process of their emotional experiences.

First, a specific emotion would be directly designated by teachers' judgements on specific appraisal dimensions. For example, if a teacher blame him/herself for students' misbehaviours he might feel shame otherwise the emotion would be anger. Second, the decisions which were made on each dimension of appraisals were influenced by teachers' personality including their perception of the control ability and identity. Next, the teachers' beliefs or identities were formed by the wider contexts where they grew up with. These contexts included the education setting where they were taught, and the society where they were born and grew up.

Chapter 7 Discussions and applications

7.1 General discussion of quantitative and qualitative findings

The current discussion would discuss differences on antecedents, appraisal dimensions and subjective experiences between Chinese and British teachers, under the componential perspective of emotion.

At the beginning, the key findings revealed on the emotion component of antecedents were Chinese and British teachers particularly had different perceptions on the troublesome-ness of the following four students' misbehaviours: Chatting or joking with each other, playing on the phone, talking out of turn and being late to the class. Specifically, Chinese teachers would be bothered by student chatting in the class more as this behaviour was in their top 5 most troublesome list. Results from the interview data pointed out the reason why Chinese teachers would be bother more by this behaviour was it challenged Chinese teachers' authority. As China is a country that values leadership, as such the power distance is very high. People from superior class would expect high respect from the inferior class (Fan, 2001). This might be why Chinese teachers would feel more offended by behaviours that disrespected their authority. In contrast, British teachers were offended more by the manners-breaking behaviours, such as being late and playing the phone, since the cultural values they carried with them emphasises on the politeness in social interactions (Cameron, 2012; Thrush 1993).

Second, several statistically significant differences were discovered on the emotions of anxiety and shame. Chinese teachers reported much higher level of intensity on these two emotions than British teachers. Later, the diary study results re-assured this finding. As generally speaking, Chinese teachers in that study reported higher intensive feelings on anxiety for a long term. Further, the interview study discovered that variations

on two particular appraisal dimensions between Chinese and British teachers resulted in these differences. First, Chinese teachers reported a high level of uncertainty in classroom management. That perceived uncertainty made them prone to feel anxious in the class. Second, Chinese teachers were inclined to take students' misbehaviours personally. They would blame themselves for students' faults. As such they felt higher level of shame than British teachers who usually blamed students for the incivility. Moreover, according to responses from Yuli, Albert and Daniel this accountability can be assumed was under the influence of teachers' personality. From their personality one key impactor was teachers' efficacy. As Anjun, Yuli and Hongda reported, Chinese teachers' confidence was weakened by their second language proficiency heavily and they were very easy to feel shame if they could not respond to students' challenging questions immediately. Another personality was teachers' belief about their own figures in the class. Under the impact of Confucianism, Chinese teachers tended to picture themselves as a model of virtues in front of the class. Thus, they have very high expectancies on their performance. However, teaching abroad brought them many un-expectancies as such their identity as role model was impeded. This could be the reason why they felt higher intensity on shame than British teachers as British teachers just perceived themselves as a teaching professional.

At last, the bottom-up diagram which was summarised in section 6.6.3 to describe the causality of teachers' emotional experiences in the present research actually reflected in section the emoting process presented in 2.1.3.2. Teachers' emotional experiences, like emotional episode in Figure 2.3, directly decided by specific appraisals and how the judgements were made on these appraisals was influenced by teachers' personality which can be perceived as core affect that a person hold with him/herself. At last these

personalities were shaped by social norms or cultural values which mirrors the affective tendency presented in outer circle of the emoting process.

7.2 Implications

The implications of these findings for theory and professional practice are significant.

The following sections illustrate them into details.

7.2.1 Implications for the field of educational psychology

The present research has made implications in the following aspects of educational psychological research.

Firstly, implications of the current research can be made onto the individual level. Populations which were represented by participants in this research are directly benefited by the findings. More precisely, findings come from the quantitative study revealed that discrete emotions of anxiety and shame can be the negative emotions that trouble Chinese teachers outstandingly. This detailed finding has great implications in helping Chinese teachers who work in a different cultural context to notify what kind of negative emotions can be dominant challenges for their emotional well-being. Therefore, when Chinese teachers try to do emotional regulations in a cross-cultural context these findings can provide them references. Moreover, as the qualitative findings discovered several possible difficulties that Chinese teachers might face in doing classroom managements in a British university class, future Chinese teachers who intend to work in the UK can learn from the findings and prepare themselves for the potentials challenges from the new teaching context.

Secondly, findings of the interview study also point out a set of possible factors that influence teachers' perceptions of students' disruptive behaviours. Chinese

participants indicated that their unfamiliarity of the local rules and limited second language proficiencies made them not able to control students' disruptive behaviours confidently. Therefore, their feelings were influenced more by the negativity of these misbehaviours. This finding also indicate that teachers' self-efficacy and perceived competence play a pivotal part in influencing their perceptions of classroom management. Furthermore, after analysing of the demographic information of Chinese and British participants who gave opinions on the managements of students' misbehaviours, several key factors, such as gender and teaching experiences, were identified as potential impactors which can affecting teachers' judgement of their competence in controlling students' disruptive behaviours. Last, teachers' personality also could be an influential factor that navigating their perceptions of students' misbehaviours. Specifically, British teachers tended to use a critical way to judge students' misbehaviours; whereas, Chinese teachers showed more tolerance on those disruptive behaviours. This difference on their personality can be a factor that shapes their different ways of perceiving and dealing with students' misbehaviours. All these findings have implications in studying the relationship between teachers' individual effectiveness and their classroom management ability. Further research can be developed to examine this relationship thoroughly.

Thirdly, as it was emphasised by many educational psychologists (Maslach, et al., 2001; Chang, 2009; Klassen & Chiu, 2011), teacher emotion plays a crucial role in influencing their career decisions and their mental well-being. The current research revealed that Chinese teachers were facing emotional difficulties in teaching in a British classroom. There were several key factors summarised from qualitative data can explain why Chinese teachers reported more difficulties in emotional experiences during teaching in the UK. They were the limited second language proficiency, cultural shocks and

unfamiliarity of the local principles. These factors would impede Chinese teachers' teaching efficacy and bring extra stress for their mental well-being. As it was presented in Section 2.2.1.1, teachers emotional exhaustion is one of the biggest killer for their job's satisfaction and all the difficulties that Chinese teachers reported in the current research can worsen their emotional exhaustions. More and more educational research which study international teachers' emotional well-being and their job satisfaction should be aroused by findings list in the current research, in order to improve the mental health and job satisfaction of international teachers.

7.2.2 Implications for the cross-cultural psychology research

The results of the qualitative study recognise the influence of cultural norms/values in shaping teachers' perspectives and their feelings. The stratified diagram of factors which can influence teachers' emotional experiences indicates the stage where culture can make a difference. Based on this finding, future discussions or arguments on how and when culture can put impact on peoples' emotional experiences can be made more accurate.

The results from current research proved the application of the appraisal theory and suggested more detailed appraisal patterns for explaining Chinese and British teachers' emoting process. The suggested appraisal dimensions and causality diagram could be used or tested in another research context. Furthermore, the current research findings also confirmed that the achievement emotions and control value theory can be also used to examine teachers' emotional experiences in classroom setting and further emotions for example disappointment and annoyance should be added into the AEQ to study teachers' emotions.

7.2.3 Implications for education practice

The current research also has additional implications for education practice. Since it uncovered specific influential factors, including second language proficiency, cultural shocks and unfamiliarity of the local education principles, which could impact on Chinese teachers' emotional experiences, it provides referring information for policy makers in British Education Ministry, academies and institutions for designing training programme for international teachers, especially Chinese teachers. Possible changes can be made according to current findings. Firstly, hiring institutions should provide thorough trainings on language proficiency for the international teachers whose first language is not English and provide these teachers more real scenarios about conversations that can happen in the local teaching contexts. Second training instructors from local institutions can categorise typical students' classroom behaviours and point to international teachers what students' performances they would expect in the class and what would be seriously not acceptable. Through this way, the uncertainty that international teachers may have about the new teaching context can be lessened. Furthermore, the institutions should also prepare international teachers culturally, let them know what would be the common agreements that students and teachers would hold with themselves in the UK and help international teachers interpret students' reactions more accurately and also build a more fitted role of themselves in the British classroom. Last, the hiring manager should clearly list and emphasise the classroom management rules for international teachers and tell them what are widely acceptable reactions that a teacher can have to students' incivilities in the class.

Findings of the current research also revealed some issues in teaching effectiveness in British higher education. According to British teachers' reports in the

interview study, British university teachers' caring for students' learning outcomes in the classroom were a bit weak. Several participants pointed out that they were told in the training programme that because in the university students were adult learners the teacher does not need to pay too much attentions on their behaviours in the class and is not necessarily responsible for students' bad learning outcomes. This phenomenon which is discovered by the present research may raise concerns for rule-makers in British higher education. They may need to think about to what extent that teaching principal should apply, as too much carelessness that teachers put into teaching may inhibit the educational quality of one university

Moreover, the result of this study showed that measuring emotional experience through using video-scenarios as antecedents is effective in triggering participants' feelings. Unlike using words scenarios, using visualised behavioural scenarios can increase the validity of the emotional experiences reported by the participants, as this method avoids the uncontrollable imagined triggers from different readers. For future research, researchers can consider to widely use virtual reality to trigger people's psychological reaction.

7.3 Limitations

This section discusses limitations set by several factors on methodology, research instruments and analyses of the current research.

7.3.1 Limitations come from theoretical framework

As it was presented in section 3.1, the current research took the transformative paradigm to study teachers' emotional experiences. That is to say, the reality which was discovered by the current research was shaped by participants' subjective perspectives. Therefore,

the knowledge which was created in this research may be limited by participants' cultural and social backgrounds.

Another limitation was that participants' identities or perspectives might be stereotyped. According to the limitations (see Section 3.1.4) of using the transformative paradigm, researcher may impose certain identities on the research sample. Take an example from the present research, there was one participant who contacted me after filling in the questionnaire saying that although he is a White British, he perceives his cultural background would be Chinese as he was born and spent his whole childhood in China. This feedback indicated that the extent of the reality that was revealed by my research findings is limited by the definition of the cultural group that is given by me.

Furthermore, the present research uses transformative sequential design to test the pre-made the assumptions. This research design can reveal the whole picture of international teachers' emotional experiences very limitedly. Because teachers may experience much more positive emotions than the negative emotions in their real teaching contexts. However, as it was discussed in Section 2.2.1 and 2.3.1, it was the negative emotion which causes troubles and results in burn-out for teachers. Therefore, the key objective of the present research was still quite meaningful.

Moreover, as it discussed in Section 3.2.3, the guidance of dealing with quantitative and qualitative data under transformative sequential design of mixed method was inadequate, the analysis and integration of the data from questionnaire, diary and interview study were limited by the researcher's limited knowledge of this framework. The data analysis process of using mixed methods was also very time consuming for a single researcher like me.

7.3.2 Limitations come from methodological design

Several limitations were generated due to the certain methodological design, research instruments and analytic methods that were used.

As I used the sequential explanatory design which firstly adapted an existing questionnaire (AEQ) to study the targeted sample, some other potential negative emotions that were experienced by teachers in the research context may be overlooked. Although clear reasons of using AEQ were justified in the literature review (see Section 2.2.3.2), the limitations of using this questionnaire were obvious as well. First, the AEQ was developed based on only students' emotional experiences. Although it was also used to measure teachers' emotional experiences in previous empirical research (see Frenzel et al., 2009b), it may not represent emotions that teachers experienced during their teaching accurately. Second, the AEQ only focuses on investigating achievement related emotions. Therefore, it may not reflect the high range of emotions that teachers may have in the classroom setting.

Several limitations of using the designed instruments were discovered during the data collection process as well. First, as the questionnaire study used an online questionnaire to generate the data, the circulation was limited by the quality of the internet. Teachers who had limited access to the internet might not be able to join the study. Second, according to teachers' feedback on the questionnaire, the video scenarios might not be opened on some mobile devices. As such, the response rate was limited by devices that teachers used. Third, some participants mentioned that the accent of spoken English which was shown in the video clips was not in British style, and using these scenarios to evoke emotional experiences of teachers who worked in British teaching context might be a bit in-effective.

The sample of this study may also limit the wide generalisation of the research findings. Specifically, there were big gaps between ages and years of teaching of Chinese and British participants; therefore, the population that they can represent in each cultural group was limited to their age and their teaching experiences. Although the current sample size ($N=99$) satisfied the main research purpose, several advanced inferential statistical analyses which aim to do sub-cultural comparisons (e.g. Chinese males v.s. British males or Chinese experienced teachers v.s. British experienced teachers) cannot be done due to the limited sample size in each sub-group.

7.3.3 Limitations come from financial and time constraints

The constrained budgets and time for conducting this research put several limitations on the current research. As it mentioned in previous section, the research sample has limitations on its size and diversity, which might be influenced by the researcher's financial limitations and time requirements for finishing a PhD. More precisely, since I was a self-funded single researcher, I had limited expenditure on data collection process. This financial constraint firstly brought me difficulties in visiting research venues (e.g. universities or Confucius Institutions) across the UK in person. Therefore, I could hardly make a strong persuasion or impression on the targeted research population to make them see the importance of this research more thoroughly. Secondly, I could not give participants rewards or other incentive bonus to motivate their participations for a long term due to my limited research budgets and this could be one reason that resulted in the high drop-out rate in the diary study.

According to the university policy, I was under a strict time framework to complete my PhD, as such I did not have enough time to start a third or fourth round of data

collection to contact more teachers. This time constraint set limitations in enlarging the sample size. In addition, the original design of the current research included the investigation of British teachers who worked in Chinese universities and the comparison between their emotional experiences and those of local Chinese teachers. However, the costs of time and finance for investigating both British and Chinese teaching contexts would be overwhelming for a single PhD student. Thus, the present research only focused on examining the British context to avoid being “too ambitious”.

7.3.4 Limitations come from ethical consideration

Since in the questionnaire study, I asked participants who were willing to join the following diary study and interview study to leave their contacts in the end of the questionnaire, their anonymities were limited by this request. Although the online survey software, Qualtrics, reported participants’ responses from each section separately, there still might be a way for the researcher to trace back the responses from the participants who left their contacts in the exported SPSS data set. For avoiding this pitfall, I immediately cut out the columns which contained respondents’ contact information from the original data set and pasted them in a new separate data set to protect participants’ anonymity.

7.4 Recommendations for future research and practice

After combining findings from the quantitative and qualitative studies, the current research has identified a set of directions for future research and recommendations for the practice. The following sections discuss these directions and recommendations in details.

7.4.1 Future research on educational psychology

Several studies in the domain of educational psychology can be inspired by the current research findings. To start with, participants of the present PhD research mentioned that they faced different cultural groups of students during their teaching and sometimes they generated different feelings when they taught students who were not from the culture that they were familiar with. As such a future study can be suggested to investigate whether teachers' emotional reactions to disruptive behaviours showed by students from different cultural background can be different.

Furthermore, when it comes to different teachers' different reactions to students' classroom disruptive behaviours, a few future studies can be proposed to examine this issue. First, the current research revealed that teachers' perceived competence and self-effectiveness could play a part in influencing their perspectives of students' misbehaviours; therefore, new research can be designed to study to what extent teachers' personalities impact their abilities in doing the classroom management. This research can be conducted by examining teachers' perceived personality (including self-efficacy and teaching competence) and their reported students' classroom misbehaviours. Alternatively, future researcher can use the method of observation to measure students' classroom disruptive behaviours. Later, the researcher can also measure the teachers' effectiveness and competence in the teaching through their students' perspective to see if it is the teachers' perceived individual effectiveness or the effectiveness that they showed to their students has a stronger relation to the frequency of the students' disruptive behaviours that happen in their class. For the study suggested above, genders of both teachers and students and the quality of the relationship between the teacher and the students can also be taken as variates that relate to the significance of teachers' self-

efficacy in their classroom management. Second, the current research did not study teachers' expressed emotional reactions. Thus, the future research can try to investigate teachers' emotions from students' perspectives. More specifically, a researcher can ask the same group of students to report their perceived emotional expressions from their different teachers in different classes to see if teachers who have different cultural backgrounds may have different emotional reactions to this group of students' classroom behaviours. This future research reviews the assumptions proposed in my PhD study from a different angle. Whether it discovers similar findings to my current research or not, it will be an interesting project to conduct as it may discover a new scope for educational psychologists to view the relationship of culture, teachers' emotions and students' classroom behaviours.

The current research discovered that Chinese teachers were facing emotional difficulties in teaching in a British classroom. The limited second language proficiency, cultural shocks and unfamiliarity of the local principles professional appeared to be the factors that led to these emotional difficulties. Therefore, future studies can dig a little bit deeper on how these factors impede Chinese teachers' self-efficacy and add extra stress to their mental well-being. Qualitative research methods, for example, diary studies or interviews, can be used to study this potential research.

Another research that can be suggested by the present research findings is a study on the functions of appraisal dimensions in explaining or differentiating teachers' discrete emotional experiences. The current research included five dimensions to explain the differences appeared between Chinese and British teachers' emotional experiences. Similar to the research done by Smith and Ellsworth (1985), the future research can implement an empirical research which uses qualitative research methods (e.g.

retrospective narrative reports of emotional experiences) to examine which appraisal dimensions that participants use in their emoting process and identify at which stage each particular dimension makes a difference.

7.4.2 Future research on cross-cultural psychology

Due to the limitations which were mentioned in Section 7.3.3, the current research could not examine both Chinese and British teaching contexts. Therefore, future research can be proposed to study the emotional experiences of British teachers who work in China to examine if there are differences between these British teachers and Chinese teachers within a Chinese teaching context. A set of research questions can be raised. For example, if similar findings can be discovered in Chinese context or would British teachers feel higher intensities on the negative emotions in this study as they are in a culturally-different teaching context. For conducting this potential research, similar methodological design and research instruments which were used in the current PhD study can be employed. Then the comparison between results from these two studies can be more meaningful. However, one thing need to be noticed that the video behavioural scenarios which were used in the current study showed a Western teaching context and these scenarios may need to be changed to show a Chinese classroom setting when they are employed to examine expatriate teachers' emotional experiences in China. Another issue that needs to be addressed is in the future research, when recruiting participants for the interview study, respondents should not be asked to leave their contacts in the end of questionnaires, but email the researcher separately to express their interests and provide contact details instead.

Furthermore, my PhD research revealed that Chinese teachers reported higher intensity on the emotions of anxiety and shame than British teachers. Another research question can be raised based on these findings that if these results can be generalised to other cultural groups of international teachers, for instance, French, Japanese and Canadian teachers who work in British universities. This proposed research can use the same research instruments that were developed in the current PhD research as these two studies all examine international teachers' emotion in British teaching context.

7.4.3 Recommendations for practice

Based on the findings of the current research, several recommendations can be made to improve the awareness of international teachers' emotional well-being and mental health in practice. First, leaders of teacher training programme will be suggested to design specific training courses for international teachers. The contents of these courses may include training on professional language used in teaching; how to deal with cultural shock in the classroom setting; and self-confidence building. Moreover, the results from my PhD study also suggest revisions of some university policies. As several participants addressed the importance of showing care to students' learning in the University level. More training may need to be added or emphasized to improve university teachers' care of adult students.

Furthermore, research findings from the current research also suggest international teachers paying more attentions on their mental health. Trouble-shooting seminars can be opened among these teachers. In these seminars, teachers from different cultural groups can share problems that they have during their teaching. They can give or receive peers' feedback and solutions to each other's problems. Moreover, small talks

may be given from local university policy makers to help these teachers to get a better understanding about their professional roles in the British universities.

7.5 Personal reflections on the data collection process

This PhD study is a result of nearly five years persistent researching and hardworking of mine. One biggest challenge for me to conduct the research process is doing the naturalistic data collection. Many expected and unexpected difficulties and obstacles lied on my way of collecting data. Thus, in this section I would like to do a reflective analysis of my journey of undertaking this educational research. Hopefully, my experiences can give future researchers some guidance and help in collecting data in a naturalistic way.

7.5.1 Difficulties in collecting questionnaire data.

As it mentioned in Section 4.3, I started to collect the data of questionnaire study in October, 2015. The first obstacle that I had faced was finding a way to contact Chinese teachers in Confucius Institutions. In September 2014, I talked to the Vice Consul of Consulate General of People's Republic of China in Manchester in an event of a Confucius Institution in Leeds and gained his contact information. Therefore, at the beginning of the data collection process, I tried to contact the Vice Consul to ask for his help in contacting all 25 Confucius Institutions across the UK. I emailed him a very formal letter which indicated my research purpose and how I would like him to help me in the process along with a letter of support from my supervisor. However, he never replied to my email. I felt quite disappointed but I tried not to focus on the disappointing side. I started to look for the contact details of the Confucius Institutes through the Internet by myself. Finally, I found a list of the names and links of all the Confucius

Institutes on a website of the Education Section, Embassy of the People's Republic of China.

During the October 2015, I sent out hundreds of emails to the Heads of Confucius Institutes and Heads of several Departments in universities where the Confucius Institutes embedded to ask for their help in circulating my research invitations to their staff. However, this way of recruiting participants was not very effective, as some of the Heads were too busy to reply me and some of them were very cautious about letting their staff join my research. Later, I talked this obstacle with my supervisor and he suggested that I should reach the potential participants directly. As they are adult respondents and their contacts were shown on public websites, there was no need to get some permission from the Heads to contact them. Therefore, I began to send group emails directly to those participants in March. I was also thinking to visit some of the research venues and try to talk to some of the Chinese teachers in person to advertise my research. However, soon after I had two appointments with Chinese teachers I realised this idea was not very practical. Because, first of all, it took a long time to make appointments with them and even longer time to chat with them. Although they promised to join the study, as the questionnaire was anonymous, I was not one hundred percent sure if they completed the online survey at the end. Second of all, it would cost me, a self-funded PhD student, a fortune to visit all the Confucius Institutes and it still could not be guaranteed that I could meet all the Chinese teachers there within a limited visiting time. Other Chinese lecturers and professors who work in the university were even more scattered and busy as such it was very impossible or time consuming to make an appointment with them individually. Therefore, visiting participants in person was a big effort which was not worth of spending for completing the current PhD research.

There were also some other difficulties appeared during questionnaire data collection. First, it was not successful of employing the snowball sampling method, since the population of Chinese teachers who teach in British universities was small. Many Chinese lecturers mentioned that they were the only Chinese lecturer in their department and they had no idea about Chinese teachers in other Departments. Second, as the participants of my research were mainly academics in universities, some of them were quite critical and even sounded snobby when they gave feedbacks of my research instruments. For example, one participant left a comment “yes, irritation at incorrect spelling of ‘irrelavance’ in the video heading!” in the question of “other feelings” for one video scenario. However, after I checked the online Oxford dictionary I found I spelt ‘irrelevance’ correctly. It was he or she mistook the spelling. Another participant kept leaving aggressive comments in questions of “other feelings” under each video. For example, he/she commented “The lecturer should have slapped down the student” when he/she saw the video of ‘student disrupting the teacher with irrelevant questions’ and he/she said “I would not have let the class degenerate to that extent... I do not think that this is a very clever questionnaire” after he/she watched all the video clips. Comments like these made me quite upset as they did not show respects to the researcher’s efforts and did not contribute meaningful responses to the study.

7.5.2 Difficulties in collecting diary data.

One big challenge that I had faced in collecting the data of the diary study was keeping the response rate during those five weeks. Although I sent reminders at the beginning and the end of each week, I did not use any incentive bonus to motivate respondents. This could be a reason that the number of participants descended dramatically during the 5

weeks. Moreover, although some of the participants notified me that they could not continue joining my diary study during the process, I could not find out the reasons of quitting from the most other participants who dropped out the study as their anonymity was kept through participants' self-made codes. It was kind of a pity, as I could not learn what was wrong about the collecting process. At last, doing this longitudinal study was really time and energy consuming for a single researcher. I had to set many different reminders for different participants and remembered fulfilling their special requests correctly.

7.5.3 Difficulties in collecting interview data.

I also met several difficulties during the collection of the interview data. First, English is not my first language as such it was a bit nervous for me to use my second language to interview native speakers. Although I practiced many times of asking questions and interacting with participants in my pilot interviews, there were still moments when I could not understand words from the participants, especially when they spoke slang or idioms. I usually would ask participants to repeat or spell what they had said.

Second, as I mentioned before, some of my participants were professional academics; therefore, they had a very critical view on judging the data collection. For example, in one interview, after I asked a question about his opinions on the differences between Chinese and British teachers, rather than answering it the participant directly questioned me about items on the scale in the questionnaire since he thought my scale was not rigorous; because he did not see me provide a choice of "None of the feelings". At that moment I felt a bit intimidated by his strong way of speaking; but since I was confident with my questionnaire, I patiently explained that I had listed an option of "No

emotional reaction” on the scale and pointed it out on the paper questionnaire that he printed out. He hit on his forehead and apologised to me about his unfair questioning immediately. During the rest of that interview we had a very nice and productive talk. He literally gave me mind-opening answers to my interview questions. Through this experience I learned that it is very important to keep confidence and professional manners in the interview. It would not be helpful to have strong arguments with the participants even researchers know that they are right.

Third, some of my skype interviews were interfered by the weak signal of the Wi-Fi and we had to change to telephone call at the end. In order to make participants feel comfortable, the first thing I did was to apologise for the inconvenient situation when they picked up the phone call.

To conclude, although I encountered a number of difficulties and obstacles when I was organising and undertaking my data collection, there were more help I received than these frustrations. In the early stage some participants emailed me giving me very good suggestions about improving the language in research instruments. Some participants also showed their support by telling me how excited they were to see there was a study could give them opportunities to share their opinions of their feelings and teaching in a foreign country and what a great implication that my research could make. Some Heads of the Confucius Institutes and Departments in universities even emailed me again after the first round of data collection to ask if there were further help that they can offer. In addition, my supervisor and the member of my Thesis Admission Panel all made a great effort in helping me find various ways of recruiting respondents. All these help and supports became the reason why I could complete the data collection process successfully at the end. Collecting data through a naturalistic way is a big challenge for researchers’

competence of planning and organising, ability of solving unexpected problems, and confidence and persistence in studying an unknown phenomenon. Future researchers should fully prepare themselves for this challenging but rewarding phase of research.

Chapter 8 Conclusion

8.1 Summary of the thesis

Under the transformative paradigm, the present research used mixed methods to examine teacher emotion under a cross-cultural teaching context. The main aims of this research were to investigate whether Chinese teachers would have different emotional experiences from local British teachers after confronting the same antecedents and whether these differences are positive or negative. For achieving these research objectives, three studies were designed. First, a questionnaire which innovatively used video clips as scenarios was applied to measure teachers' perceptions of the antecedents and their emotional reactions to the antecedents. Second, for confirming the reliability of the results from questionnaire study a longitudinal diary study was conducted to measure teachers' long-term emotional experiences in their real teaching contexts. Third, an interview study was implemented to explore possible explanations for the findings revealed in the questionnaire.

The present thesis described the story of this research through 7 chapters. The Chapter 1 and 2 described the literature foundation on which the current research was built. From reviewing appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991; Scherer, 1984; Frijda, 1986), it can be learned that different people may have different emotional reactions to the same antecedent due to the variations on appraisal (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003). Then, further reviews on the literature revealed that a person's beliefs and or values influence his/her appraisals and the wider cultural or social context where he/she grow up with may shape this belief (Mesquita et al., 1997; Schutz et al., 2009). Thus, a question was raised from the review. As an international teacher who works in the UK teaching context, the Chinese teacher bears different cultural values from local British teachers, and then

according to appraisal theory, they may have different emotional experiences in comparison with British teachers when facing the same emotion trigger (e.g., students' misbehaviours). However, questions like whether they would have same feelings or whether Chinese teachers would feel more positive emotions or negative emotions than British teachers were not being answered in previous research. The Chapter 3 illustrated how the current research managed to answer these questions. The specific research design was presented and justified in this chapter. The next three Chapters (4, 5, and 6) depicted the processes of finding the answers for these research questions and what results had been uncovered. The results from the questionnaire studies revealed that Chinese teachers did have different emotional experiences from native teachers and, unfortunately, the result was they experienced higher intensity of negative feelings, particularly the emotions of anxiety and shame, when facing uncivil situation in comparison with British teachers. Later, findings from the fruitful interview study discovered several factors (e.g., teachers' efficacy and cultural conventions) that could account for these differences. Chapter 7 was an attempt to present a complete picture of the research which was portrayed by both quantitative and qualitative results. It not only discussed what we had learnt from the current research but also implied what we can do for solving the issues brought up by the current research and raised the implications for future research.

8.2 Contributions to fields within and beyond the educational psychology

My research which studied Chinese and British university teachers' emotional reactions to students' classroom disruptive behaviours contributes original knowledge to several domains.

First, my research not only has proved the assumption that teachers from different cultural backgrounds would have different emotional reactions to the same situational

antecedent, but also identified differences on concrete emotions. It presents significant contribution to the current knowledge of international teachers' emotional experiences during teaching.

Second, results from the qualitative study recognise the importance of each appraisal dimension in differentiating teachers' emotional experiences. They add new insight to the knowledge of the relationship between teachers' cultural background, self-efficacy and their emotional experiences. They also justify directions for future research in discovering the influences of culture and personality on teachers' judgements of students' disruptive behaviours.

Third, while taking account of the previous research on teachers' emotional experience, the current research is distinct since it innovatively employs a questionnaire which uses video behavioural scenarios as triggers to evoking teachers' emotional reactions. This more direct and effective instrument can improve the effectiveness in measuring people's emotions, although it still need to be widely tested and verified in future studies.

Fourth, this research also makes important contributions to the practice. It calls for attentions from the Higher Education policy makers on university teachers' mental health through pointing out the clear difficulties in emotion that university teachers have faced during their teaching. In addition, it also provides practical solutions to mental difficulties that teachers have reported.

Fifth, this research provides the first-hand knowledge of relationship between teachers' emotional experience and their classroom management effectiveness to the designers of teacher training programme. All the difficulties and challenges of teaching abroad, which

were reported by participants in this research, can be developed into training materials for helping future international teachers.

Sixth, speaking of the impact beyond the academic discipline, the present research provides references in revising university policy which can improve university teachers' teaching style and assist new/international teachers to build their professional skills.

In all, this PhD research shed some light on our understanding of teachers' emotional reactions to students' disruptive classroom behaviours through a cross-cultural scope. Findings of this research directly relate to the well-being of university teachers and teaching effectiveness in British higher education. Therefore, it has great implications not only in academic fields but also the practice.

Appendices

Appendix A Chinese cultural values Volume 7 Number 2 2000

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Table 1a: Chinese Culture Values	
National Traits	38 Thrift (saving)
1 Patriotism	39 Persistence (perseverance)
2 A sense of cultural superiority	40 Patience
3 Respect for tradition	41 Prudence (carefulness)
4* Bearing hardships	42 Adaptability
5 Knowledge (education)	
6* Governing by leaders instead of by law	Business Philosophy
7* Equality /egalitarianism	43 Non-competition
8 Moderation, following the middle way	44*Not guided by profit
	45*Guanxi (personal connection or networking)
Interpersonal Relations	46*Attaching importance to long-lasting relationship not gains
9 Trustworthiness	47 Wealth
10 Jen-ai / Kindness (forgiveness, compassion)	48 Resistance to corruption
11*Li / Propriety	49 Being conservative
12*People being primarily good	50*Morality
13 Tolerance of others	
14 Harmony with others	Personal Traits
15 Courtesy	51*Te (virtue, moral standard)
16 Abasement / Humbleness	52 Sense of righteousness / Integrity
17 A close, intimate friend	53 Sincerity
18 Observation of rites and social rituals	54 Having a sense of shame
19 Reciprocation of greetings, favours and gifts	55*Wisdom / Resourcefulness
20 Repayment of both the good or the evil that another person has caused you	56 Self-cultivation
21 Face (protecting, giving, gaining and losing)	57 Personal steadiness and stability
	58 Keeping oneself disinterested and pure
Family /Social Orientation	59 Having few desires
22 Filial piety	60*Being gentleman anytime
23 Chastity in women	61*Obiligation for one's family and nation
24*Kinship	62*Pragmatic / to suit a situation
25*Vebneration for the old	63*Contentedness with one's position in life
26 Loyalty to superiors	
27*Deference to authority	Time Orientation
28 Hierarchical relationships by status and observing this order	64*Past-time oriented
29*Conformity / group orientation	65*Continuity / time viewed as circular rather than linear
30*A sense of belonging	66*Taking a long rang view
31*Reaching consensus or compromise	
32*Avoiding confrontation	Relationship with Nature
33 Benevolent autocrat / Paternalistic	67*The way (Tao)
34 Solidarity	68*Fatalism / Karma (believing in one's own fate)
35*Collectivism	69*Yuarn
	70*Harmony between man and nature
Work Attitude	71*Unity of Yin and Yang
36 Industry (working hard)	
37 Commitment	

Source: Those with asterisk are added by the author. Amended and revised from the Chinese Value Survey by the Chinese Culture Connection.

Appendix B. Introduction to the “Confucius Institute” Project

Aimed at promoting friendly relationship with other countries and enhancing the understanding of the Chinese language and culture among world Chinese learners as well as providing good learning conditions for them, the National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language is to set up “Confucius Institute” in the world, whose major activities includes Chinese teaching in countries that have the needs and conditions. At the same time, the “Confucius Institute Headquarter” will be established in Beijing.

I. Name

The English name of this institute is “Confucius Institute”. Confucius is a famous thinker, educator and philosopher in Chinese history. His doctrine has a very important influence throughout the world. To name this institute after him shows the longevity and profundity of Chinese language and culture. It also embodies the development trend of the integration of Chinese language and culture into the world in the new century.

The “Confucius Institute Headquarter” is to be established in Beijing and enjoys an independent legal person status. Its branches, the “Confucius Institute ” will be set up abroad, with a Chinese name “XX 孔子学院” (XX is the name of city where the institute is located and an English name “Confucius Institute in XX”. Names in other languages will be translated from English.

II. Definition

“Confucius Institute” is a non-profit public institute with a mission of promoting Chinese language and culture and supporting local Chinese teaching. It abides by the local law and regulations and is subject to supervision and inspections from the local educational administrative authorities.

III. Business Line

The business lines of “Confucius Institute” are Chinese language teaching and promotion with a local flavor. Generally speaking, it includes the following:

- 1.multimedia and web-based Chinese teaching;
- 2.professional training for university, secondary and elementary

school Chinese teachers;

3.HSK tests and examination for certificate of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language;

4.all types of Chinese programs (corporate program, preparation course for study in China, pre-examination training for HSK and other Chinese tests) and course of Chinese for special purposes (translation, tourism, business, finance or Traditional Chinese Medicine);

5.Chinese degree courses integrated with those in Chinese universities and institutes;

6.helping formulate Chinese teaching curriculum or teaching plan;

7.promoting Chinese teaching materials and recommending Chinese teachers;

8.co-developing practical Chinese teaching materials tailored for local regions;

9.academic activities and Chinese competition;

10.showcasing Chinese movies and TV programs;

11.consulting service about study in China

12.library service for reference

IV. Type of Institution

“Confucius Institute” is a non-profit public organization, usually with an independent legal person status. The locality of “Confucius Institute” should be a rather busy business district where there’s a large flow of people and a very convenient transportation system. The Headquarter provides teaching pattern and curriculum products as the main teaching resources for all the branches. Each branch will follow in their teaching and evaluation work a unified set of quality certification system and standard for teaching, testing and training. The “Confucius Institute” mainly offers training of Chinese for special purposes for the public and professional training for Chinese teachers. All these trainings fall into the category of non-degree education. The teaching focus of the “Confucius Institute” is applied Chinese.

“Confucius Institute Headquarter” also cooperates with universities in setting up on-campus Chinese centers to support degree programs like Chinese language major and Chinese as a public course as well as research centers to fuel research work in the field of China studies. Based on certain needs and conditions, these Chinese centers can also undertake teaching and promotion activities outside the university. In such case, these on-campus Chinese centers, China studies centers or Confucius Institutes set up in cooperation with universities do not necessarily have to take an independent legal person status.

V. Founding Pattern

“Confucius Institute” can be built with direct investment from the Headquarter, partnership between the Headquarter and a local institute, or franchise authorized by the Headquarter. Currently the “Confucius Institute” will be built mainly through partnering with foreign institutes. The partnership mode is subject to discussion between the Headquarter and its partners from abroad.

Eligibility requirement for partners

Higher learning institutes and other organizations with a purpose of promoting Chinese teaching and cultural exchange can offer to establish partnership with the headquarter (NOCFL) in jointly setting up the “Confucius Institute ”. However, in principle, potential partners should meet the following prerequisites:

1. Accept operational guidance from the Headquarter and follow relevant teaching standard.
2. Have experiences in language teaching or educational and cultural exchanges
3. Familiar with the development of Chinese teaching in the country and region
4. Have an independent legal person qualification
5. Enjoy strong economic and managing abilities, can provide input in real estate, finance and resources for establishing the “Confucius Institute”.

What the Headquarter Can Offer

- The Headquarter offers part or all of the following in light of the actual needs:
1. authorized use of the title of “Confucius Institute ”;
 2. universal logo and emblem used by “Confucius Institute” worldwide;
 3. teaching mode and curriculum planning;
 4. user right to the “Great Wall Chinese” multimedia courseware, Chinese course books, supplementary materials, audio and video materials and web-based courses authorized by the Headquarter;
 5. training on the operational and teaching patterns of the institute;
 6. unified image package, publicity and promotion plan;
 7. guidance to the operational management and development planning;
 8. facilitation for timely communication of information about global Chinese language teaching;
 9. a certain number of instructors teaching in the institute;
 10. a certain number of books to help build a Chinese library;
 11. a certain amount of financial support for organizing Chinese

teaching and promotion activities.

Organization and Management

The president of “Confucius Institute” works under the leadership of the Board of Trustees and is responsible for institute affairs. The Board of Trustees comprises of trustees from the Headquarter and its partner. The president and vice-president are selected through agreement reached by both partners.

1. Board of Trustees

Board of Trustees consists of one chair, several vice-chairs and trustees. Chair and vice-chairs are elected by the Board.

2. President

The president is nominated by chair of the Board and elected and appointed by the Board. The president needs to sign with the Chair (representing the Board) on a regular basis a contract clearly defining the president’s mission and goals, working period, responsibilities, rewards & punishments and standard of performance assessment.

3. The two partners will discuss on how to co-manage financial, teaching and personnel affairs.

Founding Process

The founding process is as follows:

The foreign partner submits to the Headquarter a proposal and related materials → the Headquarter evaluates its qualification and conditions → the two partners exchange field trips and conduct negotiations → a cooperative agreement signed → Board of trustees set up → President and directors of different departments selected → official opening of the Institute.

The prospective partners need to submit the following materials:

Letter of Proposal, cooperative agreement (draft), analytical report of the history, current status and future prospects of local Chinese teaching and qualification certificate (legal person certificate or registration certificate).

Quality Certification

In order to ensure the special feature and teaching quality of the “Confucius Institute”, the Headquarter will regularly assess the institutes and conduct quality certification.

Content of quality certification includes: overall scale, performance, operational administration, teaching quality and special features, annual working report, development plan.

Contact us

The “Confucius Institute” project is to be implemented by the “Confucius Institute Headquarter”. At the moment, The National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language is responsible for this project. We welcome higher learning institutes and also organizations with a purpose of promoting Chinese teaching and cultural exchange to contact us for partnership in building the “Confucius Institute”.

Contact Information:

Division of Confucius Institute Affairs

Tel : 0086-10-58595870

Fax : 0086-10-59595868

Address : 129 Deshengmenwai Street

Block A, Desheng Up-town

Xicheng District, Beijing 100088

China

Appendix C. Invitation email

Dear Instructors,

Would you be interested in completing a very brief survey on emotional reactions to classroom behaviour?

This study which is conducted by Xinyuan Xu (PhD student supervised by Professor Robert Klassen, Psychology in Education Research Centre, University of York) uses video-based scenarios to understand differences among British and Chinese teachers'/instructors' emotional experiences when encountering classroom behaviours in the UK. There are three parts of the study: a video-scenario questionnaire, a diary study and an interview. If you are interested in this project, please take 10 minutes to complete the video-scenario questionnaire (see the link below). The information and consent form will be presented after you open the survey website. Participation presents an opportunity to be a partner in developing a cross-cultural understanding of instructors' emotions during instruction. (Please note: The deadline of this questionnaire is 22/12/2015. It will be trully appreciated if you could fill in it before the deadline.)

Participants who meet the following criteria are eligible for taking part in the survey.

1. You are currently teaching or have teaching experience in UK.
2. Your nationality is either British or Chinese.

Survey link: https://york.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_a4ABzM2Rs1Feyyx

We sincerely appreciate your participation! In addition, please feel free to circulate this survey to other people who you think might be interested in it.

For your information, this study has been approved by the Ethics Committee of the Department of Education, the Univerisity of York. For further information please contact Xinyuan Xu (xx553@york.ac.uk) or if you have any questions regarding your rights as research participants, please contact the Chair of Ethics Committee in the Department of Education via email education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk

Truly grateful for your help!

Sincerely,
Ella (Xinyuan) Xu

Appendix D. Names of Confucius Institutes and universities have been contacted

1. Confucius Institute for Business London, London School of Economics and Political Science(LSE)
2. Confucius Institute for Traditional Chinese Medicine at London south bank university
3. London Confucius Institute at SOAS, University of London
4. Nottingham Confucius Institute, The University of Nottingham
5. Confucius Institute at the University of Manchester
6. Liverpool Confucius Institute, University of Liverpool
7. Confucius Institute at the University of Sheffield (SCI)
8. Cardiff Confucius Institute, Cardiff University
9. The Confucius Institute, University of Wales
10. UCLan Confucius Institute, University of Central Lancashire
11. Confucius Institute for Scotland in the University of Edinburgh
12. IOE Confucius Institute, Institute of Education - UCL
13. Confucius Institute at the University of Glasgow
14. Confucius Institute for Scotland's Schools, the University of Strathclyde, Glasgow
15. Confucius Institute at the University of Lancaster
16. The Confucius Institute, University of Southampton
17. Confucius Institute at the University of Ulster, Northern Ireland
18. Confucius Institute for Dance and Performance Goldsmiths, University of London
19. Confucius Institute at the University of Bangor
20. Confucius Institute at the University of Newcastle
21. Confucius Institute at the University of Aberdeen
22. Confucius Institute at the University of Edge Hill
23. Confucius Institute at the University of De Montfort, Leicester
24. Scottish Confucius Institute for Business and communication, the University of Heriot-Watt
25. The Business Confucius Institute at the University of Leeds.
(see <http://www.edu-chineseembassy-uk.org/publish/portal24/tab5260/info94750.htm>)

In addition to Universities mentioned above, the following universities were contacted as well.

1. The University of York
2. The University of Bath
3. The University of Exeter
4. The University of Oxford
5. The University of Bristol

Appendix E. Questionnaire Informed Consent Form

Introduction

This study which is conducted by Xinyuan Xu (PhD student supervised by Professor Robert Klassen, Psychology in Education Research Centre, University of York) focuses on differences among British and Chinese teachers'/instructors' emotional experiences when encountering classroom behaviours in the UK.

Procedures

To conduct this study, a video-scenario questionnaire, a diary study and an interview are employed. You will be asked to complete a short questionnaire about your emotional reactions to brief video-clips of classroom behaviours. This questionnaire will take less than 10 minutes and will be conducted with an online Qualtrics-created survey. At the end of the questionnaire you will be invited to join the diary study and interview.

Risks/Discomforts

Risks are minimal for involvement in this study. However, you may feel emotionally uneasy when asked to make judgments based on the video provided.

Confidentiality

All data obtained from participants will be kept confidential and will only be reported in an aggregate format (by reporting only combined results). The researcher may present some of the findings publicly at conferences or in journal publications, but no participants will be identified in the published reports. All questionnaires will be concealed, and no one other than the primary investigator will have access to them. The data collected will be stored in the HIPPA-compliant, Qualtrics-secure database until it has been deleted by the primary investigator.

Participation

Participation in this research study is completely voluntary. You may opt out (quit participating) at any time at no cost to you and you may contact us to request that your data is removed from the study up to 10 days after data collection. If you desire to withdraw, please close your internet browser and notify the principal investigator at this email: xx553@york.ac.uk.

Questions about the Research

For further information or to request a copy of the results of study, please contact Xinyuan Xu (xx553@york.ac.uk) or If you have any questions regarding your rights as research participants, please contact the Chair of Ethics Committee in the Department of education via email education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk

Appendix F. Ethical approval form



Education Ethics Committee

Ethical Issues Audit Form

This questionnaire should be completed for each research study that you carry out as part of your degree. Once completed, please email this form to your supervisor. You should then discuss the form fully with your supervisor, who should approve the completed form. **You must not collect your data until you have had this form approved by your supervisor (and possibly others - your supervisor will guide you).**

Surname / Family Name:	Xu
First Name / Given Name:	Xinyuan
Programme:	PhD in Education
Supervisor (of this research study):	Professor Robert Klassen
Topic (or area) of the proposed research study:	
Chinese and British teachers' emotional experience towards students' classroom behaviours.	
Where the research will be conducted:	
In Universities and schools across UK. In Universities and schools across China.	
Methods that will be used to collect data:	
Questionnaire survey, Diary study, and Interview survey.	
If you will be using human participants, how will you recruit them?	
Here is a revision of recruiting methods. Firstly, I will contact the heads of Departments/Institutions to ask for the help in circulating my survey invitation email to their teaching staff. Secondly, the survey information and a link will be sent to persons whom I know that can get access to qualified participants through social media tools (e.g. What's App/Facebook messages and phone texts). Thirdly, a brief survey invitation and a link will be posted in on-line social groups (e.g. postgraduates group on facebook) where the potential participants can be. Last but not least, the survey invitation will be directly sent to targeted participants whom I can find.	

All supervisors, please read *Ethical Approval Procedures: Students*.

Taught programme supervisors. Note: If the study involves children, vulnerable participants, sensitive topics, or an intervention into normal educational practice,

this form must also be approved by the programme leader (or Programme Director if the supervisor is also the Programme Leader)

Research student supervisors. The application is a joint one by the research student and supervisor(s). It should be submitted to the TAP member for initial approval and then to the Higher Degrees Administrator who will seek a second opinion from a designated member of Education Ethics Committee.

All students: forms may also require review by the full Ethics Committee (see below).

First approval: by the supervisor of the research study (**taught students**); or TAP member (**research students**) (after reviewing the form):

Please select one of the following options.

I believe that this study, as planned, meets normal ethical standards. I have checked that any informed consent form a) addresses the points as listed in this document, and b) uses appropriate language for the intended audience(s).	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am unsure if this study, as planned, meets normal ethical standards	<input type="checkbox"/>
I believe that this study, as planned, does not meet normal ethical standards and requires some modification	<input type="checkbox"/>

Supervisor/TAP member's Name (please type):	
Date:	

Taught student supervisors - If the study involves children, vulnerable participants, sensitive topics, or an intervention into normal educational practice (see *Ethical Approval Procedures: Students*), please email this form for second approval to the Programme Leader (or Programme Director if the supervisor is also the Programme Leader). For this second approval, other documents may need to be sent in the same email e.g. the proposal (or a summary of it) and any informed consent and participant information sheets. If the study has none of the above characteristics, the supervisor should email this completed form to the Programme Administrator. This signals the end of the

approval process and data collection can begin. If the study has none of the above characteristics, the supervisor should email this completed form to the Programme Administrator. This signals the end of the approval process and data collection can begin. The member of the EEC will notify the Programme Administrator only when the final outcome has been decided.

Second approval: by the Programme Leader; or Programme Director; or designated Ethics Committee member for research students:

Please select one of the following options:

I believe that this study, as planned, meets normal ethical standards. I have checked that any informed consent form a) addresses the points as listed in this document, and b) uses appropriate language for the intended audience(s).	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am unsure if this study, as planned, meets normal ethical standards	<input type="checkbox"/>
I believe that this study, as planned, does not meet normal ethical standards and requires some modification	<input type="checkbox"/>

Name of Programme Leader; or Programme Director; or Ethics Committee member (please type):	
Date:	

The supervisor should now email this completed form to the Programme Administrator, unless approval is required by the full Ethics Committee (see below).

Approval required by the full Education Ethics Committee

If the application requires review by the full Education Ethics Committee, please select one of the following options then forward the application to the Research Administrator (education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk).

	<input type="checkbox"/>
	<input type="checkbox"/>
The topic is sensitive or potentially distressing	<input type="checkbox"/>
The study involves vulnerable subjects	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other reason:	

Name of Programme Leader; or Programme Director; or TAP member (please type):	
Date:	

FOR COMPLETION BY THE STUDENT

Data sources

- 1 If your research involves collecting secondary data only **go to SECTION 2.**
- 2 If your research involves collecting data from people (e.g. by observing, testing, or teaching them, or from interviews or questionnaires) **go to SECTION 1.**

SECTION 1: For studies involving people

- 3 Is the amount of time you are asking research participants to give reasonable?
- 4 Is any disruption to their normal routines at an acceptable level?

- 5 Are any of the questions to be asked, or areas to be probed, likely to cause anxiety or distress to research participants? MAYBE
- 6 Are all the data collection methods used necessary? YES
- 7 Are the data collection methods appropriate to the context and participants? YES
- 8 Will the research involve deception? NO
- 9 Will the research involve sensitive or potentially distressing topics? (The latter might include abuse, bereavement, bullying, drugs, ethnicity, gender, personal relationships, political views, religion, sex, violence. If there is lack of certainty about whether a topic is sensitive, advice should be sought from the Ethics Committee.) NO

If YES, what steps will you take to ensure that the methods and procedures are appropriate, not burdensome, and are sensitive to ethical considerations?

- 10 Does your research involve collecting data from vulnerable or high risk groups? (The latter might include participants who are asylum seekers, unemployed, homeless, looked after children, victims or perpetrators of abuse, or those who have special educational needs. If there is a lack of certainty about whether participants are vulnerable or high risk, advice should be sought from the Ethics Committee. Please note, children with none of the above characteristics are not necessarily vulnerable, though approval for your project must be given by at least two members of staff; see above). NO

If YES, what steps will you take to ensure that the methods and procedures are appropriate, not burdensome, and are sensitive to ethical considerations?

- 11 Are the research participants under 16 years of age? NO
If NO, go to question 12.

If YES, and you intend to interact with the children, do you intend to ensure that another adult is present during all such interactions?

If NO, please explain, for example:

i) This would seriously compromise the validity of the research because
[provide reason]

ii) I have/will have a full Disclosure and Barring Service check (formerly Criminal Records Bureau check).

iii) Other reasons:

Payment to participants

12 *If research participants are to receive reimbursement of expenses or any other incentives, including financial, before or after the study, please give details. You should indicate what they will receive and, briefly, the basis on which this was decided.*

No.

It is often considered good practice to consider what the researcher might offer the participants, in the spirit of reciprocity. Some ideas of what this might be include: materials at the end of the study, a workshop summarising the results of the study, a delayed treatment/intervention at the end of the study, an indication about where the findings might be accessed at a later date, a letter or token of thanks. Please ensure that you have considered the potential for reciprocity in your research.

If your study involves an INTERVENTION i.e. a change to normal practice made for the purposes of the research, go to question 13 (this does not include 'laboratory style' studies i.e. where ALL participation is voluntary):

If your study does not involve an intervention, go to question 20.

13 Is the extent of the change within the range of changes that teachers (or equivalent) would normally be able to make within their own discretion?

- 14 Will the change be fully discussed with those directly involved (teachers, senior school managers, pupils, parents – as appropriate)?
- 15 Are you confident that *all* treatments (including comparison groups in multiple intervention studies) will potentially provide some educational benefit that is compatible with current educational aims in that particular context? (Note: This is *not* asking you to justify a non-active control i.e. continued normal practice)

Please **briefly** describe this / these benefit(s):

- 16 If you intend to have two or more groups, are you offering the control / comparison group an opportunity to have the experimental / innovative treatment at some later point (this can include making the materials available to the school or learners)?

If NO, please explain:

- 17 If you intend to have two or more groups of participants receiving different treatment, do the informed consent forms give this information?
- 18 If you are randomly assigning participants to different treatments, have you considered the ethical implications of this?
- 19 If you are randomly assigning participants to different treatments (including non-active controls), will the institution and participants (or parents where participants are under 16) be informed of this in advance of agreeing to participate?

If NO, please explain:

General protocol for working in institutions

- 20 Do you intend to conduct yourself, and advise your team to conduct themselves, in a professional manner as a representative of the University of York, respectful of the rules, demands and systems within the institution you are visiting?

YE:

- 21 If you intend to carry out research with children under 16, have you read and understood the Education Ethics Committee's *Guidance for Ethical Approval for Research in Schools*?

Informed consent

- 22 Have you prepared Informed Consent Form(s) which participants in the study will be asked to sign, and which are appropriate for different kinds of participants?

If YES, **please attach the informed consent form(s).**

If NO, please explain:

--

- 23 Please check the details on the informed consent form(s) match each one of your answers below. Does this informed consent form:
- a) inform participants in advance about what their involvement in the research study will entail?
 - b) if there is a risk that participants may disclose information to you which you may feel morally or legally bound to pass on to relevant external bodies, have you included this within a confidentiality clause in your informed consent form?
 - c) inform participants of the purpose of the research?
 - d) inform participants of what will happen to the data they provide (how this will be stored, who will have access to it, whether and how individuals' identities will be protected during this process)?
 - e) if there is a possibility that you may use some of the data publicly (e.g. in presentations or online), inform the participants how identifiable such data will be **and** give them the opportunity to decline such use of data?

f) give the names and contact details (e.g. email) of at least two people to whom queries, concerns or complaints should be directed? One of these people should be on the Education Ethics Committee (please use education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk) and not involved with the research.

YES

g) in studies involving interviews or focus groups, inform participants that they will be given an opportunity to comment on your *written record* of the event?

YES

If NO, have you made this clear this on your consent form?

If NO, please explain why not:

h) inform participants how long the data is likely to be kept for?

YES

i) inform participants if the data could be used for future analysis and/or other purposes?

YES

j) inform participants they may withdraw from the study during data collection?

YES

k) provide a date/timescale by which participants will be able to withdraw their data and tell the participants how to do this? (NB. If your data is going to be completely anonymised, any withdrawal of data needs to happen before this.)

YES

**NA if your data will be anonymous at point of collection*

If your answer was NO to any of the above, please explain here, indicating which item(s) you are referring to (a-j):

24 Who will be asked to sign an Informed Consent Form? Please select all that apply:

CATEGORY	
Adult research participants	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

Research participants under 16	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teachers	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Parents	<input type="checkbox"/>
Head/Senior leadership team member	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Other (please explain)	<input type="checkbox"/>

- 25 In studies involving an **intervention** with under 16s, will you seek informed consent from parents?

If NO, please explain:

If YES, please delete to indicate whether this is 'opt-in' or 'opt-out'
If 'opt-out', please explain why 'opt-in' is not being offered:

SECTION 2

Data Storage, Analysis, Management and Protection

- 26 I am accessing data from a non-publicly available source (regardless of whether the data is identifiable) e.g. pupil data held by a school or local authority, learners' work.

If YES, I have obtained written permission, via an informed consent document, from a figure of authority who is responsible for holding the data. This informed consent a) acknowledges responsibility for releasing the data and b) confirms that releasing the data does not violate any informed consents or implicit agreements at the point the data was initially gathered.

- 27 I have read and understood the Education Ethics Committee's *Guidance on Data Storage and Protection*

28 I will keep any data appropriately secure (e.g. in a locked cabinet), maintaining confidentiality and anonymity (e.g. identifiers will be encoded and the code available to as few people as possible) where possible.

YE:

29 If your data can be traced to identifiable participants:

a) who will be able to access your data?

Only me.

b) approximately how long will you need to keep it in this identifiable format?

Until the end of my PhD study.

30 If working in collaboration with other colleagues, students, or if under someone's supervision, please discuss and complete the following:

We have agreed:

a) [*Insert name(s)*] will be responsible for keeping and storing the data

b) [*Insert name(s)*] will have access to the data

c) [*Insert name(s)*] will have the rights to publish using the data

Reporting your research

31 In any reports that you write about your research, will you do everything possible to ensure that the identity of any individual research participant, or the institution which they attend or work for, cannot be deduced by a reader?

YE:

If NO please explain:

Conflict of interests

32 If the Principal Investigator or any other key investigators or collaborators have any direct personal involvement in the organisation sponsoring or funding the research that may give rise to a possible conflict of interest, please give details:

Potential ethical problems as your research progresses

- 33 If you see any potential problems arising during the course of the research, please give details here and describe how you plan to deal with them:

--

Student's Name (please type):	Xinyuan Xu
Date:	07 January 2015

Please email this form to your supervisor. They must approve it, and send it to the Programme Administrator by email.

NOTE ON IMPLEMENTING THE PROCEDURES APPROVED HERE:

If your plans change as you carry out the research study, you should discuss any changes you make with your supervisor. If the changes are significant, your supervisor may advise you to complete a new 'Ethical issues audit' form.

For Taught Masters students, on submitting your MA dissertation to the programme administrator, you will be asked to sign to indicate that your research did not deviate significantly from the procedures you have outlined above.

For Research Students (MA by Research, MPhil, PhD), once your data collection is over, you must write an email to your supervisor to confirm that your research did not deviate significantly from the procedures you have outlined above.

Appendix G. Questionnaire

British and Chinese teachers'/instructors' emotional experiences during teaching

This questionnaire is designed to investigate teachers' emotional experiences during teaching. Your answers to this survey are confidential. By completing and returning the questionnaire you are consenting to participate in this project.

Part One. General information about yourself.

Gender

Your age

Years of teaching in UK

Main subjects of teaching

Age of students taught currently

Average class size

Country of birth

Ethnic/cultural heritage

Part Two. Your perspective on students' behaviours.

(Note: Think about the class you teach most frequently. If you teach several classes equally often, please choose the largest class and complete the survey in terms of this class as a whole.)

Below is a list of 17 student behaviours. Please rate the troublesomeness and frequency of the following 17 behaviours?

(Troublesomeness: 1 = "Not troublesome at all"; 2 = "Fairly acceptable"; 3 = "Not good behaviour, but I don't mind."; 4 = "Troublesome"; 5 = "Very troublesome". **Frequency:** 1 = "Rarely"; 2 = "Every few class"; 3 = "Almost every class"; 4 = "Every class at least once"; 5= "Every class 2-5 times"; 6 = "Every class >5 times")

1. Sitting in class and never answering questions
2. Talking out of turn, answering questions without raising hand
3. Getting out of seat without permission
4. Eating or drinking
5. Chatting, or joking with others during a lesson
6. Making non-verbal noise and disruption deliberately, such as banging doors/objects, scraping chairs
7. Sleeping
8. Playing with items (e.g., twirling pen)
9. Reading unrelated books or doing other homework
10. Late to class
11. Bullying, pushing, or fighting with other students
12. Disrespecting teacher, talking back or arguing with the teacher
13. Quarrelling or arguing with the teacher

- 14. Complaining about assignments
 - 15. Not coming to class
 - 16. Not taking initiative (e.g., slow to begin or finish work)
 - 17. Using or checking mobile-phone in the class.
- Any other behaviour? (please list)

Part Three. Your emotional reactions

There are several students' behaviours being showed in short videos. Please watch them and try to rate your feeling towards each behaviour.

Please rate the intensity of the emotions that you would feel if this behaviour happen in your class

	Low	Neutral	High
Anger			
Anxiety			
Hopelessness			
Relief			
Shame			
Sadness			

*Thank you for completing this survey. **We have one further request.***

We want to understand how teachers' judgment of students' behaviours relate to their long-term emotional experience. Therefore, we plan on doing a diary study and interviews to follow up this survey.

1. *Would you be willing to complete a brief (2-3 minutes per day) on-line diary for 5 working days about your emotional experiences during teaching?*
2. *After the diary survey, would you be willing to participate in a single (telephone or Skype) short interview about your emotions during teaching?*

I am willing to participate in the diary study and/or interview.

Email:

Phone:

Appendix H. Diary Form

Thank you for being willing to take part in a follow up diary study to the previous survey. Your answers to this survey are confidential.

Think of this as an ordinary diary. There are 5 pages and one page for each day. Please finish this diary after each teaching day by picking the most memorable class you have taught on the day.

Day One

Your perceptions of your class's performance:

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree

Students understood the material during this lesson.

Students were motivated during this lesson.

Students were disciplined during this lesson

Your feelings:

During this lesson, I felt:

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree

Enjoyment

Anger

Anxiety

Hopelessness

Relief

Shame

Sadness

Comment box:

Please note one positive behaviour, one negative behaviour, and the most memorable behaviour from students in today's class (They can be the same.)

Positive:	
Negative:	
Most memorable:	

Appendix I. Interview schedule

Interview questions

Thank you for participating in this interview which aims to explore instructors' emotional experiences. Your answers to this part of the study will remain confidential.

According to the results from the questionnaire survey, several differences were discovered between British and Chinese instructors. So, the next few questions are going to ask your opinions about factors that could result in those differences.

- 1. Firstly, as you recalled, we asked instructors to rate troublesomeness of 17 students' behaviours, and we listed top 5 most troublesome behaviours in British and Chinese instructors' views respectively and found that 4 out of 5 behaviours are matched, but behaviour 'Chatting or joking with others' is only in Chinese top5 and 'using mobilephone' is only in British top5. So, in your opinion why they are mis-matched?*
- 2. We also found there are 2 significant differences on British and Chinese instructors' perception of students talking out of turn (B>C) and being late to the class (B>C). Can you think of several reasons for that difference?*
- 3. In the second part of the questionnaire, we asked instructors to watch 5 video scenarios and rate their emotional response (Anger, anxiety, hopelessness, shame, sadness and annoyance) to these videos. Chinese instructors reported experiencing significantly higher level of anxiety and shame than British instructors. So, in your estimation, what factors might relate to that difference? (Any other factors than their perceptions of students' behaviours)*
- 4. At last, interestingly, we found British instructors viewed five behaviours in the videos more troublesome than Chinese instructors did but their emotional reactions to (feelings about) those behaviours in the classroom are less intensive than that of Chinese instructors. To your way of thinking how could this happen?*

The next two questions are about your personal experience of teaching in UK.

- 5. Could you give an example of a student invoking a memorable emotion from you in a class?*
- 6. In general how do you feel during your teaching?*

Abbreviations

AEQ: Achievement emotion questionnaire

EFA: Exploratory Factor analysis

OSTES: Ohio State teacher efficacy scale

PCA: Principal content analysis

PGWT: Postgraduates who teach

SOAS: The School of Oriental and African Studies

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