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**A STUDY OF CHINESE UNIVERSITY ENGLISH-AS-A-
FOREIGN-LANGUAGE (EFL) TEACHERS' BELIEFS,
PRACTICES AND IDENTITIES**

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A THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
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Abstract

The 21st century has seen the Chinese government initiating multiple nationwide reforms to improve the efficiency of its English education at all educational levels, which promotes a shift from teaching discrete linguistic knowledge to emphasizing the development of students' communicative competence. Against this backdrop, teachers and their cognitions have been placed at the center of attention because they are the key decision makers in the classrooms, and their beliefs about how English should be learned and taught as a foreign language are one of the most influential constructs in shaping teaching behaviors and practices. With a holistic interest in understanding English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching within the Chinese tertiary context, focusing on the mental lives of Chinese tertiary English teachers of non-English majors, or *College English* (CE) teachers, this study set out to investigate the intersection between CE teachers' beliefs, practices and identities, which has not been addressed adequately in the existing literature.

Adopting a mixed-methods research design, this study involved collecting both questionnaire data to identify dimensions of Chinese tertiary EFL teachers' collective cognitions and practices, and interview and observation data to elucidate the complex interrelationships between them. Exploratory Factor Analyses (EFA) results of the questionnaire data suggested that the collective beliefs of this cohort of teachers are a hybridity of a communicative orientation and sporadic traditional conceptions on the pedagogical level. Correspondingly, their practices demonstrated a mixture of both student-centered activities fostering communicative abilities and language-based didactic teaching activities. In terms of identities, teachers were found to identify strongly with the roles as the motivator/advocate for English learning, the facilitator for

English learning, and the reflective practitioner and researcher, but generally resisted being recognized as textbook-centered scripted teachers.

The in-depth multiple case study, drawing on narrative interviews and classroom observations, further probed into individual teachers' beliefs systems, practices and identity formations. In spite of the intention to engage in communicative language teaching, the plural contextual discourses of social heteroglossia embedded in CE teachers' working environments made teachers swing between the orientations of traditional approaches and communicative language teaching. Within this conflictive context, teachers drew on multiple I-positions which involved a dynamic range of positioning and repositioning activities as a strategy to cope with the dilemmas. Conceptualizing the CE teacher's mind as a polyphony containing multiple discourses and voices, three patterns of identity formation were identified: (a) the active identity resolver referred to the teachers who did not allow themselves to be crippled by the unfavorable contextual discourses but chose to confront challenges by exercising agency to resolve the conflicts and tensions; (b) the passive identity resolver referred to those who were sensitive to disrupting discourses and developed emotional blocks giving rise to adoption of a passive, safe strategy by returning to the traditional teaching approach; (c) the identity seeker referred to the CE teachers who were aware of the competing discourses and were striving to define their own positions to create meaningful learning conditions for students in tertiary settings. The stories and experiences of the participants indicated the complex, dynamic, dialogic interplay between beliefs and practices, and crafting a teacher self or an identity mediating both cognitions and behaviors as sense-making mechanisms.

The study has contributed to our current understanding of CE teacher's cognitions about English language teaching and learning after ten years of a nation-

wide College English reform, which is expected to inform the ongoing CE teaching and teacher development programs. It is argued that top-down reforms which neglect teachers' subjectivities, internally persuasive discourses, and identification with the promoted teaching methodology can be hardly effective. Supporting teachers in situated identity construction and investing in the identity capital is essential for future reform initiatives. Implications of the study and recommendations for further research are also offered.

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

| | |
|-------|--|
| BANA | = Britain, Australasia, and North America |
| CE | = College English |
| CET-4 | = College English Band-IV for Non-English Majors |
| CET-6 | = College English Band-VI for Non-English Majors |
| CLT | = Communicative Language Teaching |
| EAP | = English for Academic Purpose |
| EFL | = English as a Foreign Language |
| ELT | = English Language Teaching |
| ESL | = English as a Second Language |
| L1 | = First Language |
| L2 | = Second Language/Language Other than First Language |
| NST | = Native Speaker Teacher |
| NNST | = Non-Native Speaker Teacher |
| SLA | = Second Language Acquisition |
| TESOL | = Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages |

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to investigate EFL teacher beliefs and identities in relation to classroom practices in the Chinese tertiary context. It falls under the umbrella of language teacher cognition research (Borg, 2009, 2015). The study of teachers' cognition or mental lives is motivated by the desire to promote teacher development and improve teacher education, with the ultimate goal of enhancing teaching and learning (Borg, 2015), and has recently become more prominent in L2 and foreign language education (Borg, 2003, 2015; Johnson, 2006; Johnson & Golombek, 2011a). Johnson (2006) describes it as the most significant factor that has advanced the fields' understanding of language teachers' work, because this line of research captures "the complexities of who teachers are, what they know and believe, how they learn to teach, and how they carry out their work in diverse contexts throughout their careers" (p. 236). In terms of teaching practice and professional development, language teacher cognition research helps make teachers cognizant of their tacit cognitions and provides insights into the processes of language teacher development, which can, in turn, lead to improvements in language teacher education and professional development.

This chapter begins with a discussion of the rationale for the current study followed by an introduction of the context in which the study was located. It then identifies the research gaps and presents the research questions. This chapter concludes with definitions of key terms and provides an overview of the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Rationale for the Study

Research consistently shows that teachers have the greatest potential to make a difference in students' learning (e.g., Darling-Hammond, Berry, & Thoreson, 2001; Felter, 2001; Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain 2005). Shulman (1992) asserts that teaching is and has always been at the center of all education and education reform. Influenced by the development of cognitive psychology, research on teacher cognition emerged and began to accumulate, representing a collective effort to understand teaching as a cognitive process. Teacher cognition (Borg, 2009, 2015; Calderhead, 1996; Kagan, 1992; Woods, 1996), an inclusive term used to describe the various related research topics ranging from teacher knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, to teacher thinking and decision-making processes, has become one of the most prolific areas of research in education since the 1970's.

In the field of foreign language teaching, language teachers have traditionally been seen as technicians applying the right methodology for language learners to acquire the target language. This “experimental laboratory” (Breen, 1985, p. 137) metaphor, stemming from second language acquisition research, reduces language learning to linguistic and behavioral conditioning and neglects the cognitive aspect of teaching (Holliday, 1994; Johnson, 2006). By contrast, researchers studying the behavior of teachers argue that teaching is a thought process and they stress the importance of understanding what teachers think and what their beliefs are (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Pajares, 1992). Informed by such conceptualizations, researchers in language teaching have begun to recognize language teachers as thinking beings, holding a personalized set of beliefs that guide their decision making and shape their teaching behaviors. This line of research—language teacher cognition—has yielded significant findings in (a) identifying what beliefs language teachers hold (e.g., Barnard

& Scampton, 2008; Goh & Chen, 2014; Richards, Tung, & Ng, 1992); (b) describing the relationships and interactions between language teacher beliefs and practice (e.g., Baker, 2014; Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004; Breen et al., 2001; Burns, 1992); and (c) tracing and delineating sources of language teacher beliefs (e.g., Zeng & Murphy, 2007).

Nevertheless, initial explorations of language teacher beliefs, knowledge and attitudes (e.g., Johnson, 1992; Woods, 1996) has made it clear that teachers' cognitions cannot fully explain the goings-on of classroom teaching, because the linkage between cognition and practice is more complicated than a direct linear one. To deepen our understanding, research on language teachers and teaching should engage in holistic investigation of who they are, what they do, and what they know, that is identity, practice, and cognition (Clarke, 2008; Lee, 2013; Richards, 2010). Thus, language teacher identity emerged as a salient theme at the beginning of this century (Beijarrd, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004; Borg, 2012) and a growing number of studies began to focus on language teacher identities (e.g., Ben Said & Shegar, 2014; Duff & Uchida, 1997; Farrell, 2011; Kamhi-Stein; 2013; Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Tsui, 2007). Teacher identity research is also considered as an important strand of the wide range of topics covered by teacher cognition research in that identity is a social and psychological construct that seems to be invisible but actually permeates teachers' everyday activity and interacts with their beliefs and practices (Borg, 2015; Bullough, 2005; Cohen, 2008). "Identity" thus has become an analytic lens to understand language teachers' practices and trajectories of professional development (e.g., Lee, 2013; Tsui, 2007; Zhang & Zhang, 2014).

Holliday (1994) points out the western English language teaching (ELT) methodology, which was developed by the language schools and universities in Britain,

Australasia, and North America (BANA), dominates the research discourse while the teaching of EFL at tertiary, secondary and primary levels throughout the world becomes marginalized and is forced to adopt the western methodologies which do not really suit. The same is true of research on language teacher cognition. Most of these studies have been conducted with native speaker teachers in western countries, reflecting the BANA methodological culture and characteristics; fewer studies have been conducted in what Kachru (1985, 2006) describes as Expanding Circle countries, such as China, where student population and classroom cultures are different from those in the west (Zhang, 2010a; Zhang & Ben Said, 2014). There are approximately 500,000 non-native English-speaking teachers in China (Bolton, 2004) and, in particular in Chinese universities, the institutional contexts, teachers' backgrounds, and student characteristics all vary significantly. For these reasons, it is necessary to explore Chinese university EFL teachers' beliefs and identities in relation to their practices within their peculiar historical, sociocultural and educational contexts.

To summarize, language teacher cognition proves to be a valuable line of inquiry to gain an in-depth understanding of language teachers' work. However, few studies have attempted to construct a unified, holistic conception of language teachers with respect to who they are. Most have failed to look at how teachers' beliefs, practices and identities interact in real classroom settings. In addition, most studies on EFL teachers' beliefs, practices, and identities have focused on primary and secondary levels (e.g., Li, 2013; Nishino, 2012; Tian, 2014; Zheng & Davison, 2008) or have been conducted in English-speaking countries with native speaker teachers, while little scholarly effort has been devoted to such a study on non-native English speaking teachers (NNEST). Therefore, this study presents a significant contribution to the

current literature on EFL teacher cognition and practice, in particular within the Asian-Chinese tertiary context.

1.2 Context of the Study

Educational contexts constitute the social and cultural aspects of teaching which create constraints or opportunities for teachers' actions and thoughts. Hence, providing a detailed description of the sociocultural environments is essential for understanding language teaching in context. This section begins with a brief introduction of the history of foreign language teaching in China to highlight the fact that foreign language education in China is driven by political and economic interests. In describing the present social and cultural environments in which ELT takes place, the second part of this section aims to locate the present study in its particular context and examine, within that context, the social values regarding the status of English and Chinese traditions of teaching. The last section outlines the current situation of ELT in China, the conflicts between traditional Chinese teaching philosophy and modern language teaching methodologies, as well as the challenges facing ELT at the tertiary level.

1.2.1 The Historical Background

In China, English is taught and learned as a foreign language. There are significant linguistic differences between the two languages, Chinese and English. The Chinese language is characterized as logographic and tonal while the latter is alphabetic and phonetic. These linguistic differences, along with social political factors, have exacerbated the challenges to Chinese people of learning English at various times in history (Gil & Adamson, 2011).

Since the foundation of People's Republic of China in 1949, the status of English has waxed and waned with the political tides in China. As summarized by Ross

(1993), “support for foreign language training is high when sustained participation in the global community is deemed commensurate with China’s political and economic interests and low when it is perceived as threatening to internal political and cultural integrity” (p. 42). The tensions created by a complex interaction between these political, economic and social interests and forces have manifested in policy swings that have far-reaching impacts on educational systems (Adamson, 2001, 2004; Xu & Connelly, 2009).

In the early communist period, with an intimate partnership with the Soviet Union forged by the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) for support and mentorship, Russian became a popular language in mainland China, mainly for technical transfer, whereas English was officially condemned as the language of the enemy, the U.S., which was ideologically opposed to the Soviet Union (Gil & Adamson, 2011). Students were required to learn Russian beginning from high school. Teachers who were trained to teach English were then asked to teach Russian instead. In the early 1960s, the breakdown of China’s relations with the Soviet Union revived the focus on the English language. A new curriculum was created and English textbooks for primary and secondary schools were compiled accordingly. Instructional time for English teaching increased to two-thirds of the overall time for foreign language education while the time for Russian was cut down to one-third (Adamson & Morris, 1997). The successive changes to the foreign language curriculum shattered the dominance of the Russian language in mainland China. The turbulent Cultural Revolution between 1966 and 1976 forced a suspension to foreign language education and then a complete prohibition, as revolutionaries associated with foreign languages were perceived as infiltrators of foreign culture and anyone who could speak a foreign language was suspected of espionage (Gil & Adamson, 2011; Tang, 1983).

After the ten-year Cultural Revolution, mainland China resumed economic development and opened its door to the outside world in the late 1970s. With the rapid growth of Chinese international trade, economy and communication, the demand for proficiency of English as a tool for international exchange escalated. Consequently, English learning gained continuous momentum and has become “a mania for the nation” (Tang, 1983, p. 46).

1.2.2 The Sociocultural Context

In the new millennium, the status of English in China is reaching an all-time high (Gil & Adamson, 2011; Jin & Cortazzi, 2002). The phenomenon of English as a global language has a significant influence on China. For policymakers, English is perceived as a multinational tool for enhancing the country’s image and influence; for individuals, it is an indispensable resource and a prerequisite for personal, social and professional advancement (Jin & Cortazzi, 2002; Nunan, 2003; Tsui & Tollefson, 2007; Zhang, 2008). At present, the English language enjoys unprecedented importance and status in the Chinese context, and ELT is flourishing at all levels of the Chinese education system (Lam, 2005; Wette & Barkhuizen, 2009). The explosion of interest in English learning and the impressive commitment of teachers and students to the study of English at all levels are partly due to the policy making which has placed the subject of English on a number of high-stake national tests, such as the National College Matriculation Examination (NCME) and College English Test-Band 4 (CET-4) and Band 6 (CET-6). The former is a nationally administered examination for university admission while College English Tests, used to be required for graduation from tertiary institutions, and are still considered by potential employers as an important measurement of students’ English proficiency. The whole nation has come to a realization that English proficiency has a power of transforming an individual’s life

prospect and offering more opportunities for higher education and employment (Ng & Tang, 1997; Zhang, 2008).

1.2.3 ELT in China

1.2.3.1 An overview of mandates and the status quo

Chinese foreign language education is operated with a top-down approach to policy implementation. The Ministry of Education (MoE) enacts decrees, formulates syllabi and sets out guidelines for instructional goals for all levels of education, including the stipulation of, and policies for, foreign language teaching.

English was taught as a compulsory subject for at least six years at primary and secondary schools in China. More recently, initiatives have been taken to promote English proficiency from an even earlier age. In January 2001, MoE issued a decree making English compulsory in primary schools from grade three onwards with two to three hours of instruction per week. After primary school, students continue to study English in junior secondary school, where it takes up 16% of the curriculum and in senior secondary school, 30% of the time is devoted to Chinese and a foreign language, in most cases, English (Gil & Adamson, 2011). At the university level, non-English majors whose foreign language was English still need to study English for two years by taking a course officially known as *College English* (CE) (Wang, 1999). Students undertaking this course must pass CET-4, a national English test for college students, to get their degrees and are encouraged to take CET-6, which offers better employment opportunities (Wang, 1999; Zhang, 2008).

1.2.3.2 Traditionalism versus Communicative Language Teaching

Traditionally between the 1950s and early 2000s, ELT in China focused on grammar, vocabulary, and reading, with little relevance to real life or authentic

communication. ELT had been dominated by a teacher-centered, textbook-based, and test-driven method with a strong emphasis on repetition and rote memory. The teacher was typically treated as a knowledge transmitter and students were passive learners (Tsui, 2007; cf. Zhang, 2010b). With a strong grammar-translation orientation and a focus on accuracy, teachers devoted almost all their efforts to explicating the text in detail, explaining sentence structures, paraphrasing, asking specific questions about the text, translating between L1 and L2, and making students practice patterns, read aloud, or even recite the text by heart (Rao, 1996). English was treated as discrete knowledge to be transmitted to the students and linguistic accuracy was particularly accentuated. Such traditional approaches are a mixture of the grammar-translation tradition, audiolingual methods, and elements inherent in the Chinese culture of learning, which emphasizes the teacher, the book, modelling, and memorization (Hu, 2005b; Jin & Cortazzi, 2006). Traditional approaches made it legitimate for Chinese EFL teachers to build up knowledge-based expertise and conduct teaching in the transmission model, which proved effective in preparing students for knowledge-oriented tests. However, as China's interaction with the outside world increased, high scores in English tests were no longer sufficient for students. Traditional approaches were often criticized for producing students with a good grasp of grammar who can score high in tests, but were not able to communicate in English because of their difficulties in listening and speaking, or "deaf-and-dumb English" (Tsui, 2007, p. 662; see also Lu & Ares, 2015, p. 113).

At the beginning of the 21st century, MoE launched a new round of curriculum reform nationwide to meet the challenges of globalization. Reformists argued that English in the classroom should maximally simulate English in the real world so that *communicative competence* could be optimally developed through authentic use of the

target language. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which stressed the importance of providing learners with opportunities for real-life language use, was thus promoted as a replacement for the traditional pedagogy (see Ministry of Education, 2003, 2011). The assumptions underlying CLT are that language proficiency is best achieved through communicating in the target language, and communication is thought to create a better opportunity for learning than a grammar-based approach (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The principles for designing CLT activities include a focus of language learning on real communications, providing opportunities for learners to experiment with what they know, being tolerant of students' errors, linking language skills together, providing opportunities for both accuracy and fluency development, and allowing student autonomy in learning and discovering language rules (Richards, 2006). The more recent language teaching methods or approaches, such as Task-Based Language Teaching, Content-Based Instruction and Content and Language Integrated Learning, are all applications of principles of CLT (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Table 1.1 compares and contrasts the traditional approaches and CLT, based on the key features illustrated in Nunan and Lamb (1996) and Richards and Rodgers (2014).

Table 1.1. *Traditional Approaches vs. Communicative Language Teaching*

| | Traditionalism | CLT |
|--------------------|--|--|
| Theory of language | Language is a rule-governed system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning. | Language is a system for expression of meaning; the primary function of language is interaction. |
| Theory of learning | Habit formation through repetition and reinforcement; skills are learned through practice. | Learning through meaningful tasks and through using the language for real communication tasks. |

Table 1.1 *Continued*

| | | |
|-------------------------|--|---|
| Objectives | Product-oriented: control of the structure of sound, form and order, mastery of symbols of the language—grammatical accuracy, vocabulary acquisition, and perfect pronunciation. | Process-oriented: priority is given to developing the ability to express oneself meaningfully; objectives reflect needs of the learner including both functional skills and linguistic knowledge. |
| Syllabus | Linguistically focused and language based: graded syllabus of phonology, morphology, and syntax; contrastive analysis. | Functionally oriented: including structures, functions, themes and tasks; sequencing may be according to students' proficiency levels. |
| Activities | Dialogues and drills, repetition and memorization, pattern practice. | Engage learners in communication; involve processes such as information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction. |
| Learner Roles | Passive recipient of teaching. | Active processor of language and information. |
| Teacher roles | Central and active; teacher-dominated method. Teacher provides model, and controls direction and pace. | Facilitator of the communication process, needs analyst, counsellor and process manager. |
| Instructional Materials | Teacher-oriented textbooks designed to assist the teacher to develop language mastery in learners, containing exercises and drills. | A variety of materials to support communicative activities; may include text-based materials, task-based materials and other authentic, real-life materials. |

1.2.3.3 Tertiary level English language teaching and learning

At the university level, English is a compulsory subject for both English and non-English majors. For non-English majors, English is taught as an integrated course called *College English (CE)*. In most universities, the course consists of a reading and writing section and a listening and speaking section. Like ELT in primary and

secondary schools, a national syllabus guides ELT in tertiary institutions with a few national textbooks for institutions to choose from. After two years' study, students take CET-4 and CET-6 to enhance their opportunity for employment. Although a pass at CET-4 or CET-6 is not an exit requirement for graduation any more, most college students still desire the certificates as a proof of their English proficiency. According to MoE's statistics, 9.38 million tertiary students registered for CET-4 and CET-6 in December 2012 (Education Online, 2012).

Chinese tertiary institutions are categorized into hierarchical classes. Tier 1 institutions are national key universities receiving funding primarily from MoE. Universities belong to Tier 2 are provincial tertiary institutions which are mainly supported by the local governments. Tier 3 institutions include public and private schools which are smaller in scale and offer a limited range of programs. Tier 1 and 2 institutions usually attract top students with high matriculation scores while Tier 3 institutions are at disadvantage in recruiting high academic achievers. Institutions can also be classified into comprehensive universities, specialized institutions, and vocational colleges. Comprehensive universities offer a wide range of academic programs, while specialized institutions may excel in one or several related academic disciplines and only offer certain programs, such as medical universities. Vocational colleges are geared toward skill training for diploma-seeking students. Students enter tertiary level education with varying levels of English proficiency and motivation and their prior learning experiences and strategies also differ since they come from different parts of China with uneven economic and educational development.

The teaching of CE to non-English majors is often handled by a relatively independent unit of teaching staff called College English Department or Public English Department. CE teachers are generally regarded as instructors rather than academics,

because CE departments are typically viewed as service units rather than as academic departments; and their teaching work load is much higher than their academic colleagues (Borg & Liu, 2013). CE teachers also differ from EFL teachers working in primary or secondary schools in terms of qualification. CE teachers are not required to receive teacher training; rather they are expected to be experts in their chosen fields. The majority of university EFL teachers graduated with a postgraduate degree in Applied Linguistics, English and American Literature, Translation Studies, or English Education.

In response to the rapid development of the economy and sociocultural exchange, the government strives to improve Chinese students' English language proficiency by implementing multiple educational reforms. The focus of ELT has been shifted from reading and writing instruction to communicative competence. This shift has also been reflected in CE teaching in tertiary institutions. The 1999 syllabus indicated that the purpose of CE teaching was to equip students with strong reading skills and modest listening, speaking, writing and translation capabilities, so that they can communicate in English. The emphasis was to help students build a solid foundation and provide them with language learning strategies to improve literacy to meet the needs of social and economic development. In 2007, Department of Higher Education, a division of Ministry of Education, published the new syllabus, *College English Curriculum Requirements*, explicitly stating that the goal of CE teaching is to improve students' English language proficiency, in particular listening and speaking abilities, so that they can engage in effective communication in English to meet the needs for the nations' social and economic progress. As CLT is gaining popularity nationwide, more textbooks are published with a CLT orientation. However, debate on the appropriateness of communicative language teaching is on-going. Opponents claim

that CLT is not applicable to the Chinese context because students have virtually no opportunity to use English in real life and many contextual constraints, such as large class size, heavy workloads, limited resources, and strong orientations toward exam, pose serious challenges for the teachers to make CLT a reality at the classroom level. They also point out that communicative approaches are in conflict with traditional Chinese cultures of learning, as they do not provide a well-organized foundation for language learning and they make heavy demands on the teachers (Liu & Jackson, 2009; Lu & Ares, 2015; Penner, 1995; Wette & Barkhuizen, 2009; Yu, 2001). Proponents of CLT, on the other hand, consider CLT as a positive and constructive development in ELT in China and suggest blending memorization and accuracy with communicative activities (Adamson, 2001; Rao, 1996; Zhang, 2011). In spite of heated political and scholarly discussion, it is the teachers who will make the final decision in the classroom that will impact thousands of students' English learning. Yet empirical studies about Chinese EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching and how these beliefs are related to practice and intersect with identities are lacking. As teachers' beliefs are frameworks through which teachers make sense of new information and knowledge, a priority should be made to understand these beliefs before any reform can be implemented successfully.

1.3 Research Questions

Given the brief review of the literature above, it is evident that a plethora of research has been reported on language teachers' beliefs and identities in different contexts around the world (e.g., Burns, 1992; Borg, 1998, 1999a, 1999b, 2001; Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Farrell, 2011). However, in relation to the Chinese EFL context, insufficient work has been done. Given the significance of the role of teachers' beliefs and their perceptions of themselves, there is a need to investigate how Chinese EFL

teachers think of ELT and in the process of this professional activity how they view themselves. This study was designed to fill this research gap.

The purpose of the study was to identify Chinese tertiary EFL teachers' beliefs, practices and identities, and explore how beliefs and identities are constructed in teaching practice in the Chinese tertiary context. It was guided by the question: "How are Chinese university EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching, and their identities related and interacted in their teaching practice?" Specific questions embedded are as follows:

- 1) How can Chinese university EFL teachers' language teaching beliefs, role identities, and their teaching practices be characterized?
- 2) How do Chinese university EFL teachers' beliefs, role identities, and practices differ between groups in terms of years of teaching, qualifications, majors, overseas experience, ELT training, and institution types?
- 3) How have Chinese university EFL teachers constructed individual selves in relation to the promoted communicative approach in local working environments?
- 4) What are the challenges or difficulties hindering teachers' application of communicative approaches?
- 5) How do teachers use identity and strategic positioning to resolve potential epistemological and contextual tensions to survive and thrive in teaching?

1.4 Definitions of Key Terms in This Study

1.4.1 Teacher Beliefs

Belief is notoriously difficult to define and it is often used interchangeably with knowledge, attitudes, and other cognitive constructs, because people conceptualize

beliefs and interpret the nature of beliefs differently (Borg, 2015; Pajares, 1992; Tsui, 2003; Woods, 1996; Woods & Çakır, 2011). Some researchers argue that beliefs are taken-for-granted personal conceptions of the physical and social reality, whereas knowledge is propositional, factual with a truth value (Calderhead, 1984; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Rokeach, 1968). For these researchers, teacher beliefs are conceived of as a construct distinct from teacher knowledge. Other researchers view teacher knowledge as personal, idiosyncratic, and highly context-specific (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987; Elbaz, 1983) and as a result, beliefs are subsumed under such a conceptualization of teacher knowledge. In this study, beliefs are defined in line with the latter group as practical, personal and implicit dimension of knowledge originating from individual experiences, conceptions, and interactions with local contexts.

1.4.2 Teacher Identity

Exploring one's identity involves asking such questions as "Who am I?" and "how do I understand myself in this context?" It is a way of understanding who we are and being recognized as a certain "kind of person" in a given context (Gee, 2001, p. 99). The concept of identity connotes specific relational, temporal and contextual meanings for individual selves; therefore, identities represent how individuals make sense of the world. We all engage in multiple identities (Holzman, 2009; Mead, 1934); some identities are ascribed by others, while others are claimed by oneself (Swain, Kinnear, & Stenman, 2010). Closely related to the concept of identity is *identification*, that is, individuals identifying with and partaking in alternative ways of making sense of the world (Brown & McNamara, 2011).

1.4.3 Discourse

Many theorists have offered multiple ways to define discourse. Among these definitions, Gee's (1999) understanding of discourse is dialogic in nature. It took into

consideration the holistic nature of human expression and encompasses the effects of discourses on the material world and human lives (Alsup, 2006). Gee views Discourse not only as spoken or written language, but rather “situated identities (Gee, 1999, p. 38). The individual’s identity is embodied through engaging in certain discourses to be part of a community. Gee (1999) defined discourses as:

different ways in which we humans integrate language with non-language “stuff,” such as different ways of thinking, acting, interacting, valuing, feeling, believing, and using symbols, tools, and objects in the right places and at the right times so as to enact and recognize different identities and activities, give the material world certain meanings, distribute social goods in a certain way, make certain sorts of meaningful connections in our experience, and privilege certain symbol systems and way of knowing over others (p. 13).

In Gee’s definition of Discourse, the individual brings subjectivities to a discursive act, while, at the same time, the discourses affect the individual engaging in it. Based on such an understanding, a discourse is therefore broadly defined as a pattern of thinking, speaking, behaving, and interacting that is socially, culturally, and historically constructed (Miller Marsh, 2003).

1.5 Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is composed of eight chapters. In Chapter One, I discuss the rationale for and the context of the study, present research questions, and provide definitions of key terms. Chapter Two provides a review of the literature on language teacher beliefs and identities and identifies the research gaps in the existing literature. Chapter Three delineates the conceptual and theoretical frameworks which informed and guided the

design of this research and the interpretation of the data. In Chapter Four, I describe in detail the design of the study—a combination of questionnaire surveys and multiple case studies, the data collection procedures, and the processes of data analyses. In Chapter Five and Six, I report results from the survey study and the findings emerged from multiple case studies respectively, and synthesized them for an in-depth discussion in Chapter Seven. Chapter Eight endeavors to summarize research findings as a whole while outlining the theoretical and pedagogical implications. Limitations and suggestions for future research are also discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter aims to present a thorough review of the existing literature in the field of language teacher cognition. The review of literature comprises studies on both topics of teacher beliefs and identity in relation to practice. In the first half of this section, I explore the aspects that are crucial to an understanding of beliefs, that is, the nature and characteristics of beliefs and the relationships between beliefs and practices. The second half reviews studies related to language teacher identities. Due to the space constraint and the extensive nature of teacher cognition research, I will focus my literature review on EFL/ESL and foreign language teachers' beliefs and identities which are more relevant to the current study. Following the review of the existing research, research gaps will be identified.

2.1 Teacher Beliefs

2.1.1 Nature and Characteristics of Teacher Beliefs

Teacher beliefs are important avenues for understanding teacher's thought processes, instructional practices, learning to teach, and change in behavior. Although beliefs have been acknowledged as the most valuable psychological construct in teacher education (Pintrich, 1990), beliefs are also viewed as a "messy construct" (Pajares, 1992). There are two reasons. First, the concept of belief is broad and encompassing, covering a range of specific issues and subsequent topics, for instance, beliefs about a teacher's ability to affect students' performance (self-efficacy), beliefs about teaching specific subjects (e.g., reading, science, and math), and beliefs about the nature of

knowledge and knowledge acquisition (epistemological beliefs). Second, beliefs are hard to operationalize and define; it is difficult to separate beliefs from other constructs, such as attitude, knowledge, etc. This “overwhelming array of concepts” has been noted by Borg (2015, p. 23) as a confounding characteristic because it causes confusion. However, Woods (2009) argued that using different terms does not necessarily mean that authors are talking about conceptually “different things”. Even the term “teacher belief” is not used consistently in empirical studies (Kagan, 1992). Table 2.1 summarizes terms used in the corpus of empirical studies of language teachers’ cognitions.

Despite the diversity of terminology, prior research and reviews have contributed to an agreement on some of the characteristics of teacher beliefs. First, beliefs are subjective mental presentations of the physical world formed by individuals. Calderhead (1996) emphasized the subjectivity of beliefs by referring to them as “suppositions, commitments, and ideologies” (p. 715). Beliefs are also defined as personally held truths (Richardson, 1996), which consequently serve as important frameworks for individuals to judge and evaluate people and events (Dewey, 1983) and define goals and tasks (Nespor, 1987). Johnson (1995) described teachers’ theoretical beliefs as filters through which they make instructional judgments and decisions.

Second, beliefs are regarded as the best indicators of individuals’ behaviors because beliefs contain a strong affective and behavioral component (Calderhead, 1996; Rokeach, 1968; Pajares, 1992) and influence how people know, feel and do (Nespor, 1987). Teachers’ beliefs have a powerful influence on their decision-making and instructional practice. Teachers with very similar content knowledge structure may teach in different ways due to the disparity between their beliefs (Ernest, 1989). Empirical studies have indicated that a teacher’s beliefs tend to be associated with a

congruent style of teaching that is often evident across different classes and grade levels (e.g., Evertson & Weade, 1989) and teachers' beliefs are generally consistent with their classroom practices (e.g., Feryok, 2008; Grossman, 1990; Johnson, 1992).

Third, beliefs are found to be developed from personal experiences and therefore are strongly rooted in episodic memory (Kane, Sandretto, & Heath, 2002; Nespor, 1987). Beliefs are formed early and once discrete beliefs are consolidated and incorporated into a system, they are resistant to change (Pajares, 1992). Sources of teachers' beliefs may include past events, schooling and learning experience and teaching experience (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Connelly & Clandinin, 1995; Farrell & Tomemson-Filion, 2014; Grossman, 1990; Lortie, 1975). In particular, a number of studies have revealed a connection between prior in-class learning experience and teacher beliefs (Farrell & Tomemson, 2014; Horwitz, 1985; Johnson, 1994; Zeng & Murphy, 2007).

Fourth, teachers hold beliefs about every aspect of their work. Research has examined teacher beliefs about learners and learning, teaching, subject matter, learning to teach, and self, and the teaching role (Calderhead, 1996). Although belief systems are generally "loosely-bounded" and highly variable, some beliefs are central, primary, governing a variety of applications (Nespor, 1987, p. 321), while others may be peripheral (Green, 1971).

Fifth, the teachers' belief system is a dynamic mental structure, and it contains conflicting beliefs which may cause tension and cognitive dissonance (Sakui & Gaies, 2003). While beliefs begin to form early in life and are hard to change, they are not static. Evidence has been found that teachers' beliefs are subject to modification as a

result of teacher education (Flores, 2001; Lee, 2013; Walker et al., 2011), and teaching practice (Farrell & Tomemson, 2014; Tripp, 1994; Tsui, 2003).

Table 2.1 *Terms Synonymous with Beliefs*

| Term | Definition | Source |
|--|---|--------------------------|
| culture of teaching | beliefs and attitudes that serve as a background of teacher's decision making | Richards et al., 1992 |
| conceptions of practice | a set of ideas and mental orientations toward actions | Freeman & Richards, 1993 |
| maxims | a personal philosophy of teaching which reflects teachers' understanding and beliefs about what good teaching is and how to achieve it | Richards, 1996, 1998 |
| BAK (belief, assumption and knowledge) | a hypothetical construct, a continuum where placement of knowledge and belief is temporary and contextualized; analogous to schema | Woods, 1996 |
| teachers' principles | teacher's beliefs, dispositions and knowledge in action that guide their practice | Breen et al., 2001 |
| personal practical knowledge (PPK) | based on Connelly and Clandinnin's (1995) notion of personal practical knowledge, a body of convictions and meanings, conscious or unconscious, that have arisen from experience (intimate, social, and traditional) and that are expressed in a person's practices | Golombek, 1998, 2009 |
| practical theory | understanding of, commitment to, and use of a particular language teaching approach, e.g., CLT | Mangubhai et al., 2004 |

Apart from these identified characteristics, one more observation is evident from the extant language teacher cognition literature: Although beliefs are primarily defined as cognitive constructs, the social and cultural contexts also exercise strong influences on the formation of beliefs. For instance, a teacher who is living in a test-driven school culture may find himself teaching examination techniques in spite of his strong propensity for CLT (Pan & Block, 2011; Richards & Pennington, 1998). The context is influential in shaping teachers' beliefs as it creates or restrains the opportunities for teachers to act according to what they believe. Teachers learn to reconcile to the social, cultural and educational context and find an identity, a way of being a language teacher, which enables them to survive and thrive in this given context.

In a nutshell, teachers' beliefs are a reliable guide to teachers' practices and, therefore, can be used as an important lens through which to examine teachers' thought process and to understand actions. However, due to the encompassing and inclusive but complex, personal, and idiosyncratic nature of teacher beliefs, the study of teacher beliefs needs to have a clearly defined framework and purposes (Borg, 2015).

2.1.2 Language Teachers' Beliefs

A substantial body of research suggests that the teacher's belief system is a complex mix of highly individualized, idiosyncratic, specific beliefs about almost every aspect of the teaching work. In the field of language teacher cognition, research efforts have been mainly focused on identifying teachers' beliefs and mapping teachers' beliefs with practices.

With quantitative and qualitative methods, researchers have identified the various beliefs of language teaching, which has contributed to our understanding of the wide range of beliefs language teachers espouse. Some researchers focused on teachers'

beliefs with regard to the content of language teaching, for example, grammar teaching (e.g., Borg, 1998, 1999a, 1999b, 1999c; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Jean & Simard, 2011; Watson, 2015), reading instruction (Meijer, Verloop & Beijaard, 1999, 2001), writing instruction (Burns, 1992; Lee, 1998, 2003, 2008, 2009), listening and spoken English teaching (Baker, 2014; Goh & Chen, 2014; Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2014); while others looked at teachers' beliefs about CLT (Mangubhai et al., 2004; Nishino, 2012; Tayjasanant & Barnard, 2010), learner autonomy (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012), teaching English for Academic Purpose (EAP) (Alexander, 2012), intercultural learning (Gobel & Helmke, 2010; Llorca & Lasagabaster, 2010), technology use (Mathews-Aydinli & Elaziz, 2010), and assessment (Xu & Liu, 2009).

2.1.2.1 Identification of language teacher beliefs

Research on language teacher cognition began to emerge in the 1980s following the trends in general education research. Initial research was characterized by a normative approach (Barcelos, 2003) with the focus on exploring teachers' beliefs, often without reference to actual practice, through quantitative approaches such as questionnaires. These studies were often guided by a cognitive Cartesian view which purported a linear relationship between beliefs and behavior, thinking and doing. Also, they were based on the assumption that teachers' self-reported beliefs were consistent with what they did in the real classroom.

Horwitz was one of the first to use questionnaire surveys as a key data collection method to study language teachers' beliefs. Horwitz (1985, 1988) developed a questionnaire called *Beliefs About Language Learning (BALLI)* to investigate pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding language learning and teaching. This survey instrument evaluates what teachers believe about foreign language aptitude, the difficulty of language learning, the nature of language learning, learning and

communication strategies, and motivations. After initial use with students and pre-service language teachers, *BALLI* has been adapted and used by Kern (1995) and Peacock (1998) to investigate the match and mismatch between teachers' and students' language learning beliefs.

Richards, Tung, and Ng (1992) employed a self-developed questionnaire to investigate 249 Hong Kong elementary and secondary teachers' views of the ESL curriculum, their attitudes towards the use of English and Chinese for language teaching, their classroom practices and procedures, their role as teachers, and their views of language teaching as a profession. The data were subject to statistical analysis, and differences were found in three areas of beliefs between experienced trained teachers and inexperienced untrained teacher. In terms of classroom practices, teachers' self-reports suggested the existence of two distinct orientations to language teaching—function-based and grammar-based.

Burgess and Etherington (2002) had a particular interest in beliefs about grammar and grammar teaching held by 48 teachers of English for academic purposes in UK universities. Overall, their survey study reported that teacher held positive attitudes toward formal instruction; they believed that grammar instruction helped improve EAP students' proficiency and conscious knowledge of grammar played a role in these students' use of language. Over 90% of the teachers felt that their students expected them to present grammar points explicitly. The study concluded that teachers in this study were more inclined to favor a focus-on-form approach for grammar teaching.

It can be observed that early research on identification of language teacher beliefs focused on ESL contexts, and just recently, research on EFL contexts, such as

in China and Japan, has begun to emerge. For instance, a more recent quantitative study which bears immediate relevance to the current research topic was conducted by Goh and Chen (2014) who applied factor analysis to 527 Chinese tertiary EFL teachers' responses to a questionnaire about oral English teaching. These teachers' beliefs were then examined in terms of two dimensions: beliefs about developing students' communicative competence and linguistic accuracy. The results showed that teachers believed more strongly in the promotion of students' communicative competence than linguistic accuracy in spoken English teaching.

As the body of research on language teacher beliefs accumulated, researchers began to experiment with other ways to investigate teacher beliefs or to collect data to supplement questionnaires. For example, Wette and Barkhuizen (2009) crafted narrative frames to elicit Chinese tertiary EFL teachers' perceptions on their teaching experiences, the contexts in which they taught, and the material covered in teacher development courses. Nishino (2012), after conducting a path analysis in a study of Japanese high school EFL teachers' beliefs, used interviews and observations to validate and explain the path model. Graham, Santos, and Francis-Brophy (2014) asked teachers to respond to open-ended questions in addition to rating pre-formulated statements in a survey questionnaire about their beliefs on how to teach listening in schools in England.

Some researchers have drawn on the tradition of qualitative inquiry for a detailed, in-depth revelation of language teachers' belief systems. Such an approach attends to the context in which teachers teach and is called a contextual approach by Barcelos (2003). For instance, Mangubhai et al. (2004) used semi-structured interviews and stimulated recalls to investigate one Australian teacher's beliefs or practical theory in teaching a foreign language communicatively and documented this particular

teacher's range of beliefs on goals, sequence of lesson phases, use of L1 and L2, grammar teaching, pedagogy, and social system. She found this teacher had a sophisticated and well-developed personal practical theories of CLT and this was consistently reflected in her classroom practices.

It is noteworthy within the contextual approach (Barcelos, 2003) to studying beliefs, the use of narrative emerged as a significant means of “getting at what teachers know, what they do with what they know and the sociocultural contexts within which they teach and learn to teach” (Golombek & Johnson, 2004, p. 308; cf. Barkhuizen, 2008). These studies were not restricted to the description and identification of beliefs; they attended to the development and change of beliefs, as well as the relationships between beliefs and practices within the teachers' working contexts (see Xu & Liu, 2009)

To summarize, the normative approach and the contextual approach have their strengths and limitations in terms of identifying teacher beliefs. Questionnaire surveys allow researchers to collect quantitative data sets with relatively large samples and use statistical tools to look for trends, patterns, and make generalizations within the populations. It is an efficient way of identifying, describing and comparing teachers' beliefs. However, as pointed out by Borg (2015), questionnaire data are limited in their ability to capture the complexity of teachers' cognition. Studies merely relying on self-report instruments, primarily questionnaires, are being critiqued for telling half of the story (Kane et al, 2002). It should be noted that the self-reported data should be treated with caution as teachers may choose the belief or practice that is socially desired and commonly accepted rather than what they really espouse. To overcome this deficiency, researchers are required to look at the actual classroom teaching before any conclusion is drawn about the relationship between beliefs and practice (Borg, 2015; Kane et al,

2002). As a result, a growing number of qualitative case studies focusing on one single or several teachers in a particular context (see Feryok, 2008; Mangubhai et al., 2004; Tomemson-Filion, 2013; Xu & Liu, 2009) have become a salient trend of the research on language teacher cognition. They have attended to the complexity, idiosyncrasy, and individuality of teachers' belief systems as well as the specific contexts to depict the mutually informed relationship between pedagogical beliefs and practices.

2.1.2.2 Mapping language teacher beliefs and practices

During the past 25 years or so, teacher cognition research has made significant strides in revealing the inside world in teachers' minds, in particular unravelling the complex relationship between teacher beliefs and classroom practices, acknowledging the interactive relationship between them. The issue of consistency and inconsistency of these two, however, is recurring in literature (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2015; Fang, 1996). This section reviews studies exploring the relationships between subject-specific beliefs and practices for a range of content teaching including reading instruction, writing instruction, grammar teaching, and oral language teaching.

Among all the aspects of EFL teaching, grammar instruction has attracted enormous scholarly attention (e.g., Andrews, 2003; Barnard & Scampton, 2008; Basturkmen et al., 2004; Borg, 1998; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Jean & Simard, 2011; Underwood, 2012). Borg (1998, 1999b, 1999c, 2001) has made a significant contribution to the literature on language teachers' cognitions of grammar teaching. Drawing on interview and observational data, Borg's research has provided valuable insight into teachers' pedagogical beliefs about grammar teaching with specific reference to English as a second or foreign language. For example, based primarily on classroom observation, Borg (1998) traced one teacher's beliefs about teaching grammar by prompting him to explain his individual practices. The study showed this

experienced teacher placed emphasis on error analysis, reference to student's first language (L1), and a discovery approach of teaching grammar rules. Central to the findings is that the teacher's decision-making and practice are belief-driven.

Another major area in language teaching is reading instruction. With an interest in ESL teachers' beliefs in reading, Johnson (1992) investigated 30 ESL teachers' theoretical beliefs to reading. The participants of this study worked at elementary, secondary and adult and college levels in the U. S. She examined the extent to which these teachers' theoretical orientations, which were categorized as skill-based, rule-based, and function-based, corresponded to their practices. She found the majority (60%) of teachers possessed clearly defined theoretical rules which consistently reflected their methodological approach to second language teaching. A function-based orientation towards reading instruction which emphasized authentic language, situational contexts, and meaningful communication emerged as the most commonly espoused. The study also found a significant difference in theoretical stances held by teachers with varying years of teaching experiences, that is, less experienced teachers tended towards the most recent, function-based theoretical stance, while more experienced teachers were inclined to align with the skill-based orientation.

Despite a general alignment between beliefs and practices, inconsistencies were found by Graden (1996) in six secondary French and Spanish teachers' beliefs and observed teaching practices in three areas: (1) providing students with frequent opportunity to read facilitates their proficiency development; (2) the use of students' mother tongue should be minimized; and (3) oral reading interferes with reading comprehension. According to Graden's understanding, the incongruence resulted from teachers compromising their beliefs to accommodate students' needs.

Similar findings were evident in research conducted in Hong Kong. Tam's (2006) study of 12 Chinese secondary ESL teachers' beliefs and practices documented a fairly high level of consistency between these teachers' stated beliefs and observed practices, but situational constraints kept teachers from adhering to their beliefs consistently. Also with Hong Kong secondary English teachers, Lee (2008, 2009) observed both consistency and inconsistency in their practice of providing error feedback. Teachers attributed their practices to constraints imposed by institutional context and values, like exam pressure and a school policy that highly valued error feedback.

Li (2013) drew on conversation analysis to research the moment-by-moment relationship between beliefs and practices as it unfolded in real classrooms. Focusing on a single case, she interviewed a Chinese secondary school EFL teacher, Yuan, and video-taped his classroom interactions with students. In the interview, Yuan explicitly expressed his endorsement for CLT, and yet Li found Yuan' espoused beliefs and actions were not always aligned. In particular, she discovered an episode in which Yuan moved away from interactive talk to correcting students' pronunciation, a switch from communicative teaching to traditionalism. In Yuan's reflection, he referred to this shift as giving priority to short-term goals, namely, improving students' linguistic knowledge for the college entrance examination.

Clearly, studies revealing inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and practices indicate that contextual factors, such as institutional culture, student performance, curricular constraints, or classroom management have a role to play in teacher's decision making and teachers' behaviors in practice. These findings highlight the fact the teaching practice is a highly complex, dynamic process in which teacher beliefs are mediated by multiple factors (Johnson, 2006). Thus, when designing a study

for teacher cognition, it is crucial to take various social, cultural and contextual elements into account to generate a holistic picture of how teacher beliefs are reflected and instantiated in classroom practice (Kubanyiova, 2012; Lee, 2008, 2009; Phipp & Borg, 2009).

2.1.3 Summary

As noted above, recent development in teacher cognition research has pointed to the inadequacy of merely looking at the cognitive aspect of teaching and presuming the link between cognition and behaviors is linear and direct. In addition to contextual factors, researchers, when eliciting teachers' beliefs, also found that the teachers are inclined to talk about their identities (e.g., Connelly & Clandinin, 1995, 1997, 2007; Li, 2013; Tsui, 2003; Xu & Liu, 2009) and, hence, they argue that teaching is a way of being, an ongoing process of forming senses of selves in relation to the ways of inhabiting roles and imagined positions that matter to these teachers (Holland & Lachicotte, 2007).

2.2 Teacher Identity

2.2.1 Teaching as a Way of Being

Identity comes into play when we interact with another. Everyone performs his or her multiple identities according to his/her understanding as a sense of self in multiple social roles and contexts (Holzman, 2009; Swain et al., 2010). In educational research, identity is a perennial topic, generating much discussion in academia. Hamachek (1999) highlights the importance of the identity issue in teaching by saying, "consciously, we teach what we know; unconsciously we teach who we are (p. 209)." Danielewicz (2001) maintains that good teaching is contingent on identity rather than on ideology or methodology. This line of thinking recognizes teacher identity as a

crucial component in determining how teaching is played out. Echoing this point, Feldman (2002) proposes a model based on theories of Dewey and Greene suggesting that teaching should be viewed as a way of being (Danielewicz, 2001; Feldman, 1997). Feldman (1997, 2002) also suggests that to understand what teachers know, think and believe is not enough because the linkage between cognition and practice is more complicated than a direct linear one, not as in the Cartesian dualism— “I think, therefore I do.” Strongly opposed to the conception of the self as distinct and separate from the world in which it operates, he further criticizes the current cognitive perspective of researching teacher cognition as being Cartesian dualism that implies there is a computer in our brain and thinking is like computation. Feldman’s teaching as a way of being perspective inspires us to look beyond the cognitive dimension of teaching and use “identity” as an analytical lens to understand how teachers conceive of what they do and how they think about their classroom practices (Freeman & Richards, 1996; Miller, 2009).

Before delving into the literature of language teacher identity, I would like to juxtapose several definitions of identity by different authors to characterize the concept of identity. Norton (1997) defines identity as “people’s understanding of their relationship to the world, the construction of that identity across time and space, and people’s understanding of their possibilities for the future (p. 410).” Norton’s definition places an emphasis on the influence of social structures on identity construction, which is congruent with Vygotskian sociocultural theory. By the same token, Wenger’s theory of identity highlights the role of participation in socially valued activity as a “community of practice” (1998). Wenger (1998) writes that an identity is “a layering of events of participation and reification by which our experience and its social interpretation inform each other... identity exists—not as an object in and of itself—

but in the constant work of negotiating the self (p. 151).” Gee (2001) recognizes that identity suggests a “kind of person” or several different “kinds” at once within a particular context; while one may have a “core identity”, there are multiple identities as one operates and performs across contexts (p. 99). Based on this notion, he proposes four ways that identity may be perceived: nature-identity (a product of one’s natural state); institution identity (a calling or an imposition derived from authority); discursive identity (recognition by others); and affinity identity (a result of participation in communal groups). Gee’s understanding of identity points to the multi-faceted nature of identity—each of us may have several sub-identities that interplay with one another and they must be balanced to avoid conflicts (Cohen, 2008; Morgan, 2004; Thomas & Beauchamp, 2011).

Identity is also found to be intimately related to one’s cognition, such as beliefs, values, attitudes, and knowledge (Day et al., 2006; Pajares, 1992). It has been observed that teachers invest their values and beliefs in their work, merge multiple identity modalities, negotiate their varying roles, and manage a way of being in and out the classroom that fulfils their missions and purposes as teachers (Day et al., 2006; Lee, 2012; Nias, 1996; Tsui, 2007; Walkington, 2005). Identity is socially developed, interpreted and adjusted according to shifts in the context. Teacher identity is both a product and a process, so the shifting nature of identity presents on-going challenges. Understanding selves as teachers thus becomes part of the never-ending professional development (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Johnson, 2003).

Taken together, the notion of identity comprises relational, temporal, and contextual dimensions; and the understanding of self as a teacher is “not static or fixed, but is constantly shifting, unstable and multiple” (Johnson, 2003, p. 788). Synthesizing these definitions, teacher identity is an embodiment of personal beliefs and values, a

self-definition and recognition by others. It is a dynamic construct that develops and changes with personal experiences, contexts, and relationships with others. It bridges the inner self and the outer self, the personal and the professional (Zembylas, 2003).

2.2.2 Language Teacher Identity

Recently, the field of second language acquisition (SLA) has seen a dramatic increase of research interest in language teacher identity (e.g., Duff & Uchida, 1997; Gao, 2012; Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Kiernan, 2010; Liu, 2009; Pavlenko, 2003; Morgan, 2004; Trent, 2007; Trent & DeCoursey, 2011; Tsui, 2007). These studies use “identity” as an analytical tool to gain a better understanding of language teachers and teaching (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Erlam & Gray, 2012; Farrell, 2011; Lee, 2012; Nagatomo, 2012; Zhang & Zhang, 2014). It is not surprising that the theme of teacher identity receives renewed attention in research on teaching and teachers, because a view of identity reflects how teachers see themselves and how they enact their roles in different settings (Korthagen, 2004; Richards, 2010; Varghese et al., 2005). Teachers’ identities are constructed within their world and are found to be intertwined with their beliefs, values and assumptions about teaching and being a teacher (Farrell, 2011; Nagatomo, 2012).

Several recurring characterizations of teacher identity figure prominently in the literature: the multiplicity of identity, teachers having multiple sub-identities; the complexity and continuity of identity formation; and the social-cultural nature of identity. There is an emergent but growing corpus of literature on the identity of foreign language teachers, in particular, EFL teachers. This body of literature will be reviewed from the above three perspectives.

2.2.2.1 Language teachers' multiple role identities

Role identity is a sociological notion (Zurcher, 1983). Role identities can be formal, such as being a doctor or a teacher, defined by professions, or informal and momentary (Cohen, 2008). According to Farrell (2011), teacher role identity includes all the functional roles a teacher uses to perform his or her duties. It manifests teachers' configuration and interpretation of these roles, shaped by teachers' beliefs, values and assumptions about teaching and being a teacher. Role identities reveal the tacit and unconsciously held self-images teachers attach to themselves, as related to the different roles they enact, the various professional activities they participate in, and how others recognize these roles and activities.

To explore language teachers' role identities, Farrell (2011) used group discussions and interviews to elicit three native English speaking, experienced (with over 15 years teaching experience) ESL teachers' reflections on their role identities. A total of 16 main teacher role identities were identified and were divided into three main clusters: teacher as manager, teacher as acculturator, and teacher as professional. In his analysis, Farrell distinguished between ready-made roles and individually created roles. He found teacher as vendor, entertainer, and careprovider were examples of institutionally created ready-made roles, whereas teacher as collaborator, source of knowledge, and learner were individually created and negotiated roles. This study supports a socio-constructivist conception of identity (Grad & Rojo, 2008) which implies that people have not only one self but many aspects of self-identities. Furthermore, it suggests that teachers not only assume identity roles that are thrust upon them (e.g., by the administration in a top-down mode) but also actively construct their own identities through interactions in specific social settings.

Farrell's study provides empirical evidence for the multiple and interrelated role identities we assumed of language teachers or took for granted, and gives us insights into the complexity of the job as an English language teacher. This study is also of immediate relevance to the current study as, in China, teachers are inherently ascribed multiple role identities by sociocultural traditions. For example, Wette and Barkhuizen (2009) found, during the professional development program they conducted with over 200 tertiary Chinese EFL teachers in Beijing, the Chinese teachers were evidently imbued with two commitments to teaching: "*jiao shu*" (teach the book) and "*yu ren*" (educate the person). *Jiao shu* (teach the book) refers to developing communicative competence in the students while *yu ren* (educate the person) indicates their desire to help students become competent life-long learners. The results, derived from coding of narrative frames of teachers' responses to the researchers' prompts, revealed teachers' espoused beliefs and identities, and the ensuing tensions between subject-centered and learner-centered approaches in their practices. The Chinese participants in this study expressed their struggles in balancing both roles and frustrations in combating with the social and institutional constraints.

2.2.2.2 Identity formation

A number of researchers have focused on the construction of language teacher identity. Drawing on Wenger's (1998) social theory of identity formation, Tsui (2007) documented the process of formation of a Chinese EFL teacher's (Mingfang) identity. This narrative study examined Mingfang's lived experience as an EFL learner and EFL teacher throughout his six years of teaching. It is suggested that the teacher's identity construction is highly complex; teacher's past experience of EFL learning has an abiding effect on the identification and negotiation of meanings.

Trent & DeCoursey (2011) traced the trajectory of six female Chinese English language teachers' identity construction from their experience as students in mainland China and as pre-service teachers in a teacher education program in Hong Kong, to their employment as English teachers in local secondary schools. Participants' discursive and participative experiences were recorded and examined through semi-structure interviews. These teachers' experiences underscored the role of agency and power relations in identity construction.

Nagatomo (2012) explored Japanese university English teachers' professional identity drawing on narrative accounts of eight Japanese English teachers working in tertiary institutions across Japan. This multiple case study, with thick descriptions of each participant, used two complementary frameworks to provide a rich view of how these teachers constructed and maintained their professional identities within the Japanese social cultural terrain. This study highlights teachers' struggles in competing identities between who they are (specialists in English-related areas) and what they do (English language teaching).

Drawing on a tripartite conceptual framework—identity-in-discourse, identity-in-practice, and identity-in-activity, Lee (2013) examined four Hong Kong secondary EFL writing teachers' identity development over a course study. At the end of the course, all four teachers had constructed new identities as a writing teacher, evidenced in their interviews. This study shows the identity construction is on-going and teacher education or professional development opportunities could serve as mediating factors in this process.

Liu's (2009) narrative inquiry of two Chinese tertiary English teachers' identities represented two salient trends in the extant language teacher identity literature:

using narratives as a key method and focusing on non-native speaking English teachers in a context where English is not a medium of communication. By juxtaposing two experienced tertiary EFL teachers' life stories, that is, critical incidents that shaped these two teachers' trajectories of professional identity, Liu found the pervasive and principal impact of Chinese historical and social changes on both teachers' professional development, summed up in one teacher describing himself as a "product of the times." The other teacher, Mr. Lee emphasized his study of English had significantly transformed his character, enhanced his personal life and brought him great satisfaction with her career and life. Mr. Lee's case resonates with what Day et al. (2006) and Nias (1996) noted in teachers' lives and work that unavoidable interrelationships exist between professional and personal selves, and events and experiences in the personal lives of teachers are intimately linked to the performance of their professional roles. Again, Liu's narrative study demonstrated the "emancipating power" (p. 266) of personal narratives in making teachers' inner voice heard and revealing the mostly invisible lived experience of teachers to the wider audience. This study also has its limitations. First, the two participants were of the same age and gender and of an identical academic position. Some variability in the age, gender and career stage may yield different perspectives. Second, as indicated in the conclusion the researcher admitted that EFL teachers' identity in China is still in its initial stage and it required more than two cases to explicate such a complex notion; meanwhile, other aspects of professional identity such as social cultural identities remained unexplored in the Chinese context.

This strand of research with a focus on the construction of language teacher identity offers empirical support to the current conception of identity as a fluid, changing and context-sensitive construct. Identities are not something teachers *have* or

are but a resource that they *use* or *claim*. Identities are experienced as a constantly defining characteristic of the self. Changes in purpose, context, and participant role which are common in social interaction may result in variability of identities.

These studies also underscore the role of agency and discourse in identity construction. Danielewicz (2001) refers to agency as the starting point of doing; the belief of one's capability of action. Teachers with a strong sense of agency are more likely to realize and enact their identities in performance within teaching contexts (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009). In Tsui's (2007) study, Mingfang's lived experience illustrated that his enhanced competence and agency contributed to his identity construction as a CLT teacher. In a similar way, in Lee's (2013) study, after the participants completed the writing instruction course, three out of four teachers exhibited an orientation to taking up the role of a change agent to introduce new practices of teaching writing in their schools. On the other hand, with the rise of post-structuralist theories of language and meaning, sociocultural and sociopolitical discourses are thought to be instrumental in shaping individual identities because discourses determine what resources are available for the making of identity, or identity work (Clarke, 2008). A discourse can be described as "a pattern of thinking, speaking, behaving, and interacting that is socially, culturally, and historically constructed and sanctioned by a specific group or groups of people" (Miller Marsh, 2002, p. 9). Given this definition, discursive construction of identity is not limited to a focus on language or oral communication, though language remains the most important part of it, but also embraces the broad sociocultural and political discourses within which meanings are negotiated and identities are formed.

2.2.3.3 Social-cultural identity

A teacher's identity is closely related to the sociocultural context in which he or she works. Duff and Uchida (1997) posit that: "The English language teaching industry is not culturally, politically, socially or economically neutral" (p. 452). A spectrum of issues may have a potential to influence the profession of English language teaching. These include the social and cultural aspects of ethnolinguistic groups, particularly associated with the target language; prejudices or biases related to gender roles, nationality, ethnicity, and teaching methods, etc. The view of identity as socially constructed also requires our attention to the social, political and cultural terrains of language teaching which may play a powerful role in shaping roles, identities, and relations.

Johnson (2001) drew on the social identity model to investigate the nascent language teacher identity of a non-native English speaking graduate student in an MA TESOL program. The social identity model claims that the construction of identities is based on social categorization in relation to power and status. Johnson followed Marc, a Mexican female student, over a year and a half through interviews, informal discussions, and construction of both personal and collaborative reflective journal, which began during Marc's second year in the program and lasted over six months following the completion of her degree. Johnson found Marc was aware of her multiple identities as a TESOL graduate student, an ESL teacher as well as an English language learner, and struggling to balance these identities. Her non-native English speaker (NNES) status engendered a negative association with this categorization. During her practicum, her mentor's interjecting in her teaching posed serious challenges for Marc as she perceived it as questioning her competence as an ESL teacher and thus her status as a non-native teacher became more pronounced. This study presents a real case of the

“identity crisis” facing the massive populations of NNES teachers around the world (Braine, 1999, p. xvii). The context may not be typical because the majority of English language teachers in the world are working in countries where English is not the dominant language. Yet the native speaker (NS) and non-native speaker (NNS) categorization is inherently detrimental and influential but highly relevant to the issue of identity in this field.

In foreign language teaching and learning, the term “native speaker” convincingly carries the weight of authority. Linguists base their description of language on native speaker usage; the ultimate goal for foreign language learning is to be able to speak like a native speaker. Language teachers or users in doubt about some linguistic point will often consult a native speaker (known as doing a “native check”). The dominance of this native-speakerness has been questioned because it is ideologically constructed to favor native-speaker teachers with insufficient concern for local needs (Medgyes, 1992, 1999).

Despite criticism against the divide between NSs and NNSs, the native speaker teachers still enjoy power and status that non-native speaker teachers do not. This dichotomy which is power-driven and identity-laden has resulted in discrimination in the hiring practices of English teachers in many parts of the world and affected non-native speakers’ confidence (Braine, 2010; Liu, 1999). In particular, in the expanding circle countries, this discrimination can be extremely strong. Shao (2005), an American-born Chinese, recounted her frustration of seeking an English teaching job in China with her Chinese face. Although she is a native speaker of English with a TESOL qualification, she was rejected or offered with a lower pay because the Chinese employers favor Caucasian teachers.

Still within the sociocultural realm, Duff and Uchida (1997) approached language teacher identity from a somewhat different perspective. They looked at the cultural content of EFL curricula and sociocultural representation in language teachers' identities. The informants were four EFL teachers, three of whom were native speakers of English from a local Japanese language school. The study adopted an ethnographic methodology and reported very interesting findings with respect of language teacher identity. First, like the studies reviewed previously, the researchers found the construction of identity is complex, constantly changing and sometime involves contradictions. Second, all these teachers invested and instantiated their espoused beliefs and values in their teaching contributing to a formation of an identity, for instance, as a feminist, who would like to empower women in his class; or as an egalitarian educator, who desired equal relationship between teacher and students; or as a bilingual model, who had acquired English proficiency as a language learner herself. At last, although these teachers did not explicitly claim they were teaching culture, it was found they were implicitly transmitting cultural knowledge to students. This study stands out of the literature with a unique perspective as well as its vivid portrait of these four teachers, their processes and ways of negotiating their sociocultural identities, and the detailed penetrating analysis of biographical, professional and contextual aspects of the research topic.

2.2.3 A Dialogic Approach to Teacher Identity

Despite the fact that Bakhtin was primarily a literary scholar, his dialogic theories are increasingly applied in other fields of empirical studies, for instance, gender issues in workplace (Baxter, 2014); language, culture and self-authoring in second or foreign language learning (Hall, Vitanova, & Marchenkova, 2004; Vitanova, 2005, 2010); and practices and pedagogy in bilingual or multilingual education (Blackledge

& Creese, 2014). In the field of educational research, the interest in Bakhtin's ideas is also increasing (Hermans, 2013).

Akkerman and Meijer (2011) proposed that a dialogical conceptualization of teacher identity is particularly useful as an analytical framework in studying the professional development of both novice and experienced teachers. They perceived that a dialogical approach towards identity has the potential to account for the complexity of teacher identity being “both unitary and multiple, both continuous and discontinuous, and both individual and social” (p. 309). Based on a dialogical understanding of self, they further defined *teacher identity* as “an ongoing process of negotiating and interrelating multiple I-positions in such a way that a more or less coherent and consistent sense of self is maintained throughout various participations and self-investments in one's (working) life” (p. 315).

Bakhtin's dialogic approach pays attention to voices, or utterances interacting externally with others, the *heteroglossia*, and simultaneously these discourses when interacting within the self creates a *polyphony* in one's mind. Therefore, combining a macro (examining the multiple voices present in a specific working context) analysis of the ambiguities teachers face, and a micro (examining the voices within a dialogic self) may reveal not only individual identity struggles and challenges teachers are confronted with, but also the various aspirations teachers attempt to display in being a teacher (Akkerman & Meijer 2011). For example, Johnston (1997) examined 17 Polish EFL teachers' life histories in an attempt to find out whether they saw themselves as professionals and how they portrayed discursively the meaning of “profession” in their sociocultural context. Johnston's study took place in 1994 when every aspect of the Polish society was undergoing a post-Soviet transformation. With an explosion of economic activity, in particular trading of exports and imports, EFL increased

exponentially. Against this backdrop, Johnston's attempt to find a shared discourse of professional identity among the Polish EFL teachers failed. Rather, he found, drawing on Bakhtin's discursive approach, teachers' stories reflected dynamic and nonunitary identities interacting discursively with a range of other discourses from the social, economic, and political context. Professional commitment was seen only in day-to-day terms, as the socioeconomic conditions made it impossible for them to make a long-term commitment. In a similar vein, Menard-Warwick (2011) drew on the concept of heteroglossia to examine Chilean EFL teachers' engagement with English popular culture (music, video, and the Internet) and how popular culture influenced their decisions on becoming EFL teachers and pedagogy. She found Chilean EFL teachers' identities and practices were dialogically constructed through individual engagement with English popular culture.

2.2.4 Summary

The growing corpus of research on language teacher identity indicates an interest to holistically investigate what constitutes a good teacher, with illuminating implications for teacher development and teacher education. It can be noted that researchers agree that professional identities are multifaceted but diverge on whether the sub-identities should be balanced or whether the formation of identity is a site of conflicting identities (e.g., Duff & Uchida; Johnson, 2001; Tsui, 2007). The second salient point in regard to the complexity and continuity of identity formation is that, methodologically, many studies have mainly relied on self-reflections, for example, narratives, focus group discussions, diaries, to provoke contemplations of language teachers' role identities (Farrell, 2011; Liu, 2011; Trent & DeCoursey, 2011; Tsui, 2007) and the construction of shifting of identities. Unlike research into teachers' beliefs, a quantitative approach is highly rarely used. Since most studies have focused on

individual teachers and their personal experiences, collective identity, shared conceptions of teachers' senses of selves and roles, have not been addressed adequately, and this is an area that warrants equal scholarly attention.

2.3 Research Gaps

Emerging from the review of the empirical literature on language teacher cognition and identity, several observations can be made regarding these studies. A salient observation is that while the literature acknowledges, overtly and covertly, the intricate and inseparable relationship between beliefs, identity and practice, the investigation of how language teacher beliefs intersect with teacher identity remains invisible. Teachers' beliefs about self and the roles they play are investigated as a category under beliefs or studied separately under the label of teacher identity. However, no effort has been made toward a holistic understanding of the interrelationships between language teachers' beliefs, practices and identities. Empirical data are needed to make the link explicit and accessible to both language teachers themselves and teacher educators. The present study was conceived to fill this void.

Some scholars (e.g., Braine, 1999, 2010; Holliday, 2000; Wang & Gao, 2008) have recognized that we know little about the EFL teachers in the Expanding Circle countries such as China. Braine (2010) estimated, based on official statistics, that the number of English learners in Chinese public schools and universities to be around 230 million; if added to by the number of learners at private language school or receiving individual tuition, it could be a staggering population of 600 million. With special reference to the tertiary level, Braine pointed out that about 5.4 million Chinese tertiary students were enrolled in the *College English* course nationwide, and it is estimated that approximately 60,000 teachers teaching English at Chinese tertiary institutions (Borg

& Liu, 2013; Zhang, 2010b, 2015). Nevertheless, many of the studies on language teacher cognition and identity have focused on the Inner Circle and Outer Circle countries and regions where English resources are abundant and easily accessible, leaving the large number of the Expanding Circle countries of a very different linguistic environment out of scrutiny. The current study is, therefore, to help in furthering our understanding of this under-researched context.

Another point is that the personal and professional narratives of the teachers play a central role for both teachers and researchers in analyzing teachers' cognition and identity formation. This process allows the teachers to reflect critically on their past, present, and future experiences to understand how they perform in their personal and professional lives. While personal narratives offer focused, individualized perspectives that are illuminating and reflexive, they do not aim for generalizing findings to a wider population or other settings. The current study, with a combination of large-scale questionnaire survey and multiple-case design, attempts to meet this challenge, at least partly.

Further, questioning unequal power relations within local institutional structures does not factor into the aforementioned studies. For example, the curriculum in most, if not all, educational institutions, is hierarchical. Policy makers, program developers, and teacher educators develop curricula without taking into consideration the needs, knowledge, preferences and so on of other stakeholders. On the one hand, therefore, it is my intention that the study of Chinese EFL teachers' beliefs and identity formation will have implications for teacher education programs, curriculum design, educational policy-making, and classroom teaching. On the other hand, I hope to contribute to the theorization of language teacher identity and cognition through undertaking a holistic approach to researching identity and beliefs.

Therefore, the present study, responding to the extant gaps above, juxtaposes teachers' beliefs, practices and identity to gain a richer understanding of how they mutually shape one another. This research is aimed to (1) identify Chinese university EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching, their role-identities, and practices; (2) explore the relationships between these beliefs and their teaching practices; and (3) understand in what ways EFL teachers construct their beliefs and identities in practice. This study will provide an original and important contribution to the current literature in applied linguistics and language teacher cognition with significant implications for language teacher education and professional development.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

A theoretical framework provides a particular perspective, or lens, through which a topic is examined (Green, 2014; Parahoo, 2006). In this chapter, I will discuss how Bakhtin's theory of dialogism and the Dialogical Self Theory (DST) helped expanded current thinking in teacher cognition research and explore the potential of adopting a Bakhtinian perspective to make sense of and interpret data.

3.1 Dialogism and the Dialogical Self Theory

Many of Bakhtin's concepts are of particular relevance in terms of theorizing and framing my interpretation of the qualitative data. Bakhtin asserts that the configuration of the human world is fundamentally dialogic, and there is nothing outside the dialogic relationship. Ubiquitous dialogism not only applies to individual relationships to others, but also crystalizes the interactivity and generativity of ideas, consciousness, and identity. Dialogue takes place between people as well as within an individual person's mind, or both externally and internally. The notion of dialogic self implies that the functioning of human mind is as well dialogic and the self, and society are thus interconnected at the intra-individual and inter-individual territories (Hermans, 2014). The current study, in particular the qualitative portion, adopts a dialogic approach to understanding teacher beliefs, identity and practices. The following concepts and theories were drawn on to frame my interpretation of the data.

3.1.1 Answerability and Addressivity

Bakhtin (1986) contends that people living in the world are compelled to respond. The state of being and existing is a state of being addressed and a process of answering (Holland, Lachiotte, Skinner, & Cain, 1998). The task of “answering to” others is a significant one for Bakhtin, because it defines an individual’s personhood, state of being, and marks individual identities. To live means keeping on forming responses to the world (Holquist, 1990, p. 30).

Answerability and addressivity constitute one another which implies a two-way relationship. The world addresses us and we are alive and human to the degree that we are answerable, that is, to the degree that we can respond to addressivity (Holquist, 2002). The central tenets of Bakhtin’s two-sided answerability and addressivity include an insistence on engagement in dialogues with others as a way of living and an emphasis on a human’s creative acts and utterances as a form of authoring. In other words, the subject is constantly impelled by the power and authority of its circumstances, while authoring self to respond (Holquist, 1986, 2002).

Addressivity and answerability are helpful conceptualizations to understand the relationships between teachers and their contexts. As self-authoring subjects, teachers are compelled to form responses and answers to their working environments through which their identities are formed.

3.1.2 Heteroglossia and Polyphony

Heteroglossia, literally means the speeches or language of others. It is the embodiment of a diversity of social voices and speech types. It refers to “the complex, dynamic, and creative forces of the life of languages on the macro level” (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 738). The concept of heteroglossia accentuates the primacy of context. All utterances

are generated within a set of social, historical, political, and physiological conditions. Heteroglossia, once incorporated into one's consciousness, serves to express an individual's authorial intentions in a refracted way. For Bakhtin, language, or people's utterances, is not a neutral medium or a mirror to reflect the structure of extra-verbal reality, but "a conglomerate of specific and concrete conceptualizations of the world" (Lähteenmaki 2010, p. 28). Heteroglossia is, therefore, the coexistence of different competing ideological points of view and social discourses, whether constituted in a single authoritative language or within the complex communicative repertoires in play in modern societies. Inherent in the social heteroglossia is a constant battle between two opposing forces, the centripetal and the centrifugal. The centripetal force attempts to standardize and unify multiple languages or voices of a community as one, whereas the centrifugal force serves to stratify, decentralize, and shake a language into multiple sub-languages that are socio-ideological: languages and voices of social groups, professions, genres, different generations and so on (Baxter, 2014).

The concept of *polyphony* emerged after Bakhtin's extensive reading of Dostoevsky's novels (Bakhtin, 1984). Rather than be subsumed to the author's unified voice, the characters were given their individual voices. Polyphony calls attention to the coexistence of a plurality of voices that do not fuse into a single consciousness, but rather exist as different styles or register, generating dialogical dynamism among themselves. This polyphonic metaphor when applied to the self has the potential to extend the self to a broader societal and historical context. The self is no longer conceived as having a fully centered, unified inner core, but rather consists of different parts or even contradictory identities that pull the self into different directions. The decentered subject is highly contingent on the changes in the environment (Hermans, 2013).

For Bakhtin (1981) each cultural voice exists in dialogue with other voices “so that utterances are not indifferent to one another and are not self-sufficient: they are aware of and mutually reflect each other” (p. 60). The voices are juxtaposed and counterposed so that the polyphony can generate a creative energy, synthesis, or productive outcome beyond the original. Thus, “the juxtaposition of dissonant viewpoints has the potential to bring about a transformative and life-affirming interdependence between them” (Baxter, 2014, p. 739).

3.1.3 Ideological Becoming, Internally Persuasive Discourse, and Authoritative Discourse

Bakhtin suggests that the internalization and interplay of social discourses is the mechanism behind identity development. Bakhtin posits that the dynamic interaction of discourses in the world, or social heteroglossia, creates a polyphony in the mind, out of which the identity is made. He envisions discourses competing for acceptance and prominence, and he suggests that through this ideological battle, individual identity takes form. He uses the term *ideological becoming* to describe this identity-making process. Bakhtin’s explanation of ideological becoming is governed by two central concepts: *authoritative discourse* and *internally persuasive discourse*. Authoritative discourse is discourse that is enshrined. Bakhtin describes it as “religious, political, moral; the word of a father, of adults and of teachers” (1981, p. 342). It is discourse whose “authority was already acknowledged in the past,” “a prior discourse” (1981, p. 342). Authoritative discourse demands our unconditional allegiance. In contrast, internally persuasive discourse is authoritative discourse that has been explored, questioned, and made one’s own. Thus, internally persuasive discourse is a hybrid discourse, consisting of language that is “half-ours and half-someone else’s” (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 345). For authoritative discourse to become internally persuasive, an individual

must “[populate] it with his own intention, his own accent...adapting it to his own semantic and expressive intention” (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 293).

The making of a self, or ideological becoming, unfolds through the transformation of authoritative discourse into internally persuasive discourse. It is through “the process of selectively assimilating” that the individual integrates new social languages into the complex of languages that comprise one’s own identity (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 341). The outcome is a mosaic constructed from pieces of various social languages.

Bakhtin’s theorization of how authoritative discourses become internally persuasive discourses provides a distinct perspective to examine the development of teacher beliefs and convictions which is an interest of the current study. Bakhtin’s ideas highlight the central role of discourse in self-development. His ideas suggest that discourse is the raw material for identity making, and that discursive conflict spurs identity construction and reconstruction. Analyzing the interplay of discourses, thus, can shed light on the work of sense-making and integrating disparate strands of an individual’s identity into a cohesive whole. This interplay will be the focus of the case studies discussed in Chapter Six.

3.1.4 The Dialogical Self and Positioning

Hermans (2001b, 2013, 2014) and other scholars (e.g., Hermans-Konopka 2010; Raggatt, 2012) applied Bakhtin’s ideas to the development of a theory focusing on the self and identity, the Dialogical Self Theory (DST). They posit that the self at the locus of multiple dialogical relations can be conceived as an extended position repertoire. The repertoire contains a variety of interacting internal positions, external positions, and outside positions. Individuals move from one position to another in a process of positioning and counterpositioning. This positioning process, with its dynamic

arrangements, is at play on multiple levels in all kinds of human activities, for example, in our internal dialogues, in our relationships, in the social orders we inhabit, and in our cultural activities, such as learning and teaching. The presence of multiple, possibly conflicting I-positions, can be helpful in understanding teacher identity, especially when teachers handle dilemmas and tensions (Akkerman & Meijer, 2011). Teachers' positioning strategies will be another focus of the case study in Chapter Six. Table 3.1 lists a glossary of terms in positioning theory that was involved in the qualitative data analysis.

Table 3.1 *Terms in Positioning Theory of DST*

| Positions | Definitions |
|-------------------------|---|
| I-position | A location appropriated by the <i>I</i> within a repertoire of positions. Differentially positioned in time and space, felt as belonging to the self. |
| Meta-position | A superordinate position-the product of two or more positions; an observing ego or meta-cognition. |
| Third position | A mediator between two conflicting positions. |
| Coalitions of positions | Cooperation of a range of positions. |

(Sources: Hermans & Hermans-Konopka, 2010; Raggatt, 2012)

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

To address the research questions, the design of the study is a combination of a survey study and a multiple case study. This chapter begins with a justification for my use of a mixed method. I will then describe the sampling strategy for the survey study, the selection process of participants for case studies, and the procedures for collecting both quantitative and qualitative data. I will also include a discussion about the quality issues of this mixed-methods research project followed by a description of what instruments were employed and how data were analyzed.

4.1 Research Design and Methods

4.1.1 Rationale for Mixed Methods

There are three broad research traditions in social sciences: quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods. Quantitative research entails gathering numeric data and analyzing data with statistical techniques to test a hypothesis for generalizing results from a sample to a larger population. By contrast, qualitative researchers mainly rely on interviews and observations to collect words, text and images in order to understand the participant's experience with the central phenomenon in a natural setting. While the quantitative approach seeks an objective truth, the qualitative method is oriented to an exploration and detailed description of the central phenomenon to be investigated. Both traditions have their strengths and limitations. In combining these two approaches, mixed methods emerged as a procedure for collecting, analyzing, and mixing quantitative and qualitative data at some stage of the research process for a more

complete understanding of the research problem (Creswell, 2009; Dornyei, 2007; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007).

Research design involves “the intersection of philosophy, strategies of inquiry, and specific methods” (Creswell, 2009, p. 5). Philosophical worldviews or research paradigms (Croker, 2009; Crotty, 1998; Lincoln & Guba, 2000) are fundamental underpinning guidelines that shape the researcher’s approach to research and guide actions (Creswell, 2009). A worldview is a general orientation or belief about how the world should be viewed and studied. The researcher’s worldview often leads to embracing a qualitative, quantitative or mixed-methods approach to addressing the research questions. The positivists who believe in a fixed, universal truth and reality are more likely to endorse a quantitative orientation, whereas the constructivists, with a belief that “meaning is socially constructed by individuals in interaction with their world” (Merriam, 2002, p. 3), tend to favor a qualitative approach for research. These opposite worldviews also result in different methods of gathering data and interpreting the findings (Croker, 2009).

For this study, a pragmatic worldview is consistent with mixed methods research as it focuses attention on the research problem and the utilization of pluralistic methods to derive knowledge about the problem (Creswell, 2009; Patton, 2001). Pragmatic researchers draw on multiple means of collection and analyzing of data rather than subscribing to only one way to provide a thorough understanding of the research problem; they also look to the social, historical, political, and cultural contexts in which it occurs for a contextualized view of the examined issue (Creswell, 2009).

In terms of strategies of inquiry, the present study adopted a mixed concurrent triangulation design because I intended to obtain different but complementary data to

best understand the research problem (Creswell, 2010, 2012). In particular, this design affords the possibility to directly compare and contrast quantitative statistical results with qualitative findings or to validate, confirm, corroborate or expand quantitative results with qualitative data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The merit of this design well serves the purpose of this study by bringing together the differing strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses of quantitative methods (large sample size, trends, and generalization) with those of qualitative methods (small number, details, and depth) (Patton, 1990). Specifically, this study incorporated survey and case studies for a holistic, in-depth analysis of the research topic. Respectively, a questionnaire survey allowed a large number of data to be collected quickly and economically (Creswell, 2004, 2009; Patton, 2001). In particular, the employment of web-based questionnaire generating tools made the administering process much easier and less demanding on the researcher's part (Borg, 2015). A survey design provided a quantitative or numeric description of the beliefs held by Chinese university EFL teachers by studying a sample of this population, which allowed the researcher to identify collective beliefs and identities, generalize or make claims about this population (Creswell, 2009, p. 145). Detailed case studies which were conducted within the school contexts provide *depth*, *detail*, and *individual meaning* of how Chinese university EFL teachers' beliefs and identity emerged and developed and how they intersected with their daily teaching practices (Duff, 2008; Patton, 2001; Yin, 2009, 2012). Since the qualitative strand is of more importance for answering the research questions, the qualitative portion was given a priority in analysis and interpretation (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Previous research suggests that belief inventories and self-report scales are limited as beliefs are generally held unconsciously, and teachers when given a scale are very likely to choose the most socially desirable correct answer (Borg, 2015; Kagan,

1990). To counter such deficits, multiple sources of qualitative data, namely, interviews, classroom observations, artefacts and/or reflective journals, were collected to corroborate findings and extend the breadth of inquiry (Bartels, 2005; Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989; Rossman & Wilson, 1985). The present study attends to *what*, what beliefs and identities teachers hold and assume, as well as the processes of *how*, how they have developed such beliefs and identities in practice. Thus, conducting a mixed methods study is a sensible design to achieve what and how questions and to address the complexity of the phenomenon of interest. The following sections provide a detailed description as to how participants were recruited, how instruments were devised, how cases were selected, and how a variety of data were collected.

4.1.2 Data Collection

4.1.2.1 Selecting the region

Given China's expansive territory, Shandong Province was selected as a site for data collection. The major criterion for selecting a region was to choose an area representative of the fast-changing social and economic landscape of China. Shandong, located at the intersection of ancient as well as modern north-south and east-west trading routes, has been a well-established business center. Since 1949, Shandong has emerged as one of the most populous (95,793,065 inhabitants at the 2010 Census) and most affluent provinces in the People's Republic of China. On the other hand, Shandong has always been known as the hometown of Confucius and Mencius, as well as the land of ceremony and propriety. Throughout history, Shandong has produced many celebrities who have exerted great influence on Chinese culture, and that continues to this day. Confucianism, the philosophical teaching of Confucius, the great thinker, educator, who is honored as a sage, is pivotal to Chinese culture and still exerts influence in the province. The traditional Chinese cultures of learning, which elevate

obedience to the authority (teachers, parents, and governments) and diligence in learning, are prominent in Shandong Province. Another reason for choosing Shandong for this research was more practical. The researcher, a local of Shandong, was more likely to gain access to tertiary institutions in her hometown province than in other areas in China. Shandong Province, a mixture of modernization and tradition, was therefore chosen for both theoretical and practical reasons.

4.1.2.2 Population and sampling

Comprising a survey study and a multiple case study, the present study collected quantitative and qualitative data separately and then merged the data sets in the interpretation. For the survey study, the target population was EFL teachers who teach English to non-English majors in Chinese tertiary institutions in Shandong Province. Teachers of English majors were not included in the study because their teaching goals and curriculum are significantly different from these of non-English majors. The sample for the questionnaire survey consisted of the entire population of EFL teachers working in 35 tertiary institutions in Shandong Province, including technical, medical, professional business, and normal (teacher education) universities. There were two reasons for including such a diverse range of institutions. First, institutions are becoming more comprehensive in terms of the courses offered even though they still retain their old names which might indicate a specialized orientation in training. Second, all institutions conform to the national *College English Curriculum Requirements* (Ministry of Education, 2007), so their goals for English teaching are identical—there is no departmental or institutional difference. Students come to the university with individual choices of a major, but they all have to take the *College English* course as a requirement for fulfilment of their degrees. Hence it was expected that the potential participants, EFL teachers of *College English* in these institutions, would constitute a

homogenous sample for the study. Participation was voluntary based on ethical considerations, and thus made the sample a convenience one (Creswell, 2012). Altogether 326 teachers from 22 institutions responded with completed questionnaires. The response rate was 79.5%. Table 4.1 presents demographic details of the survey respondents.

Table 4.1 *Demographics of Survey Participants (N=326)*

| Category | Details | <i>n</i> | Percentage |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------|----------|------------|
| Gender | Male | 84 | 26.0 |
| | Female | 242 | 74.0 |
| Years of Teaching EFL | 0-2 years | 27 | 8.3 |
| | 3-5 years | 18 | 5.5 |
| | 6-10 years | 95 | 29.1 |
| | 11-20 years | 170 | 52.2 |
| | Over 20 years | 16 | 4.9 |
| Qualification | B.A. | 41 | 12.5 |
| | Master's | 253 | 77.7 |
| | Ph.D. | 32 | 9.8 |
| Overseas Experience | Never | 201 | 61.7 |
| | Less than a year | 70 | 21.4 |
| | 1-3 years | 46 | 14.1 |
| | Over 3 years | 9 | 2.8 |
| Major | English/American Literature | 55 | 16.8 |
| | English Education | 95 | 29.1 |
| | Linguistics/Applied Linguistics | 135 | 41.6 |
| | Translation | 26 | 7.9 |
| | Others | 15 | 4.6 |

Table 4.1 *Continued*

| Category | Details | <i>n</i> | Percentage |
|------------------|------------------|----------|------------|
| Institution Type | Tier 1 | 120 | 36.7 |
| | Tier 2 | 106 | 32.4 |
| | Tier 3 | 100 | 30.9 |
| ELT Training | With training | 258 | 78.9 |
| | Without training | 68 | 21.1 |

The second phase involved recruiting five or six individual teachers for multiple case studies. Teachers indicated their willingness to participate in case studies by filling out a section on the questionnaire. Initial contact was made through email to provide details about the expected time commitment and nature of involvement in participating in the case studies. To enable contrast and cross-case analysis, two sampling strategies, typical case sampling and maximal variation sampling, were used to draw five teachers out of a voluntary pool of 12 potential participants (Creswell, 2004; Patton, 2001). Specifically, typical cases referred to the different categories of institutions. In maximal variation sampling, the researcher is required to identify certain characteristics or traits to locate individuals that display these different dimensions of the phenomenon, so as to develop multiple perspectives to address the complexity of the research question (Creswell, 2004).

Due to ethical constraints, participating teachers can only be drawn from a pool of voluntary participants. To balance convenience sampling and purposeful sampling, an effort was made to maintain as much diversity as manifested in the sample in terms of qualification, years of teaching experience, overseas experience and institution type. Eventually five teachers from three institutions were selected. Table 4.2 presents an overview of the five teachers' characteristics.

Table 4.2 *Case Study Teachers' Profiles*

| Teacher's name (pseudonym) | Gender | Background (u-undergraduate, m-master's, d-doctorate) | Teaching experience | Overseas experience | Classes being observed |
|----------------------------|--------|---|---------------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| Tony | Male | English(u) linguistics (m) | 6 years | yes (2 years) | Reading |
| Nancy | Female | English (u) American Literature(m) Applied linguistics (d) | 7 years | yes (2 years) | Listening and Speaking |
| Sunny | Female | Marketing (u, m both in English-speaking countries) | 4 years | yes (6 years) | Integrated English |
| Jessie | Female | English (u) American Literature (m) Applied linguistics (d) | 13 years | yes (2 years) | Reading and Writing |
| Ellen | Female | English Education (u & m) | 19 years | no | Integrated English |

All five teachers are Chinese, non-native speakers of English, working in three different tiers of institutions. Tony and Sunny worked at a tier-1 institution, Nancy and Jessie in a tier-2 institution, and Ellen in a tier-3 institution. All teachers were capable of using English as the medium of instruction. A brief biography for each participating teacher is provided below. Pseudonyms were used to maintain the anonymity of research participants.

Tony: Tony began his teaching career as a CE teacher in a national key university, T University, in 2008 after graduating from a prestigious normal university with a master's degree in Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching. Prior to taking up this full-time position, he had tutored at private language schools for IELTS training

so teaching English has been his specialty since then. Tony had been through two rounds of curriculum reform since 2008. CE was once taught as an integrated course and then was broken down to two big chunks (reading and writing, and listening and speaking) and, when the study took place, the department offered extension courses specifically for advanced learners, such as American Cultures and Practical Reading. Tony was teaching the Practical Reading class when this study took place, but he actually has experience of teaching reading, writing, listening and speaking at T University.

Nancy: Nancy's institution, S University, was a Tier 2 university. Nancy graduated with a master's degree in English and American Literature from this university. Due to her academic excellence, she was offered a teaching position by her university to become a CE teacher. She has spent most of her time teaching English Listening and Speaking to freshmen and sophomores in this university. At the time of the present study, it was her fifth year of teaching the Listening and Speaking classes. According to the placement test scores, her students were at the basic level.

Jessie: Jessie worked at the same institution as did Nancy with the same group of students but she was responsible for the teaching of Reading and Writing. She has been teaching CE for 12 years. Her Bachelor's and Master's specialty was American Literature. Jessie was working on her Ph.D. part-time at the time of study.

Sunny: Sunny had taught CE in T University for four years. Sunny has a bachelor's and a master's degree in Marketing and has studied for four years in New Zealand and UK. For Sunny, this EFL teaching job came to her as the most unexpected "windfall." Teaching in a university is an ideal job for females in China. Without a degree in English, Sunny did not expect to have a good chance of getting this job. When

she applied, the department welcomed applicants with overseas experience and Sunny stood out with her academic background and good English proficiency. Sunny's academic background was distinctive from other participants because traditionally EFL teachers in China are required to have a bachelor's degree in English or English Education.

Ellen: Ellen's university, Y University, is Tier 3 institution located in a small city in Shandong Province. It used to be a three-year teacher training college and was only promoted to be a provincial university in 2000. Ellen had worked in her institution for 19 years so she had been through the stages of the school's development from a city college to a provincial comprehensive university. At the time of study, Ellen was an associate professor in the Department of College English. Ellen graduated from one of the best national normal universities with a bachelor's degree in English and a Master's degree in English Education. She was very proud of being able to study in a nationally renowned university. After graduating, she took up a teaching position in Y College, which later became Y University.

4.1.2.3 Data collection procedure

Data were collected in two phases. During the first phase, I sent out emails to the deans and heads of CE departments of the 35 tertiary institutions located in Shandong Province to seek permission for access to the institutions and teachers. 22 departmental heads granted me the permission to conduct research with their teaching staff. Potential participants were then recruited through the department secretaries without any coercion. The recruitment procedure has been described in detail in the PIS for Deans and has been approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee (see Appendix A-G). Recruited participants were invited to complete a web-based survey consisting of three questionnaires, *Beliefs about Language*

Learning and Teaching Questionnaire (BALLTQ), *Teaching Practice Questionnaire (TPQ)*, and *Teacher Identity Questionnaire (TIQ)*. The survey took about 30 minutes to complete. Participants were asked to submit or return the completed survey within one month. Participation was voluntary based on ethical considerations and thus made the sample a convenience one (Creswell, 2004). Ultimately, 326 teachers from 22 institutions responded with completed questionnaires.

The questionnaire survey was followed by case studies including interviews and classroom observations to obtain descriptive and interpretive data. Five teachers were recruited and selected for one-on-one semi-structured interviews to probe into their beliefs and identities in narratives followed by observations of classroom teaching practices. Individual teacher interviews were conducted as three separate interviews spanning over a period of several weeks. The aim of initial interview was to create a profile of each participant, their biographical details including their language learning experiences and their previous and current teaching experiences as a university EFL teacher. Following the initial interview, I observed the practices of individual case study teachers. Classroom observations were audio taped to minimize the possible impact of video recording on the teacher and students. Observations were recorded in writing in field notes and each teacher's practices was recorded on a grid (see Chapter Six). Individual teachers were observed for two consecutive sessions for a total of 180 or 200 minutes. Post-observation interviews were conducted immediately after the classes when teachers' memories were still fresh. The grid and my field notes were drawn on to stimulate teachers' recall of instructional activities. In particular, they were prompted to give their rationales for teaching activities as well as for their reactions to students' performances or responses.

All interviews with teachers were conducted in Chinese in order to eliminate any barrier created by using a foreign language. The data were transcribed in Chinese and then analyzed by the researcher. Table 4.3 illustrates how data were collected and triangulated to address research questions.

Table 4.3 *Data Collection and Triangulation Matrix*

| | Instrument/ Method | Length | Purpose | Questions to be addressed |
|---------|---|--|--|------------------------------|
| Phase 1 | Questionnaire Survey | 30 minutes (return in 4 weeks) | To identify EFL teachers' collective beliefs, practices and identities | 1, 2 |
| Phase 2 | Interviews | 60 minutes | To create a profile of each participating teacher | 3, 4, 5 |
| | Classroom observations | 180 minutes (two sessions) | To record the teacher's practice | 3, 4, 5 |
| | Stimulated recalls/post- observation interview | 60 minutes (two sessions) | To map beliefs with practices | 3, 4, 5 |

4.1.3 Quality Issues

The quality issue is central to any research project. As yet for mixed methods research there are no accepted criteria for assessing its quality (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011), and a number of approaches have been proposed: the Generic Research Method, the Individual Components Approach, and the Mixed Methods Approach (Bryman, Becker, & Sempik, 2008; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). For the current study, I took the Individual Components Approach (Bryman et al., 2008; O'Cathain, 2010),

so the quality issues of the quantitative components and qualitative components will be discussed respectively.

4.1.3.1 The survey study

Validity: In order to achieve content validity, efforts have been made to ensure the items were measuring what they were intended to measure. The questionnaires were carefully designed under the guidance of the researcher's supervisors who are specialists in the field of the study. Some modifications were suggested and the questionnaires were revised several times before they reached the final versions.

The questionnaires in the original English language were sent to a group of Ph.D. students and a small number of university EFL teachers for feedback or criticism. It was found to be cognitively taxing and time-consuming for them to respond to the English items. The researcher thus translated the items into Chinese. Using a "back translation" procedure (Harkness, 2003, p. 42), the translation produced for a target language population was re- (or back-) translated into the source language. The two source language versions were compared to try to find out if there were problems in the target language text. Two Ph.D. students who were both proficient in English and Chinese were involved in this process to ensure both linguistic equivalence and conceptual equivalence, the translation was comparable in terms of language and was conceptually comparable as well (Harkness, 2003).

Reliability: The test of reliability was accomplished through statistical means. Cronbach α coefficients were obtained for items within each factor and each scale (see Chapter Five). All Cronbach α coefficients exceeded the recommended value of .70 indicating a good level of internal consistency of the items within each scale.

4.1.3.2 Case studies

The validity and reliability issues in qualitative research is generally phrased as “trustworthiness” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). It corresponds to the criteria of truthfulness—credibility to internal validity, transferability to external validity, dependability to reliability, and confirmability to objectivity (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Credibility: For qualitative naturalistic inquiries, the researcher must demonstrate that the findings are an adequate representation of the complex multiple reality to establish credibility of the study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested several ways to do this. First, a credible study needs to show evidence of prolonged engagement in the field. Data for this study were collected over a period of six months. Conscious efforts were made to build rapport and trust with the participating teachers. Interviews were conducted in the language with which they felt most comfortable. Participants were given the right to choose the settings and time to suit them. In all cases of the participating teachers, they were assured that interviews as well as classroom observations were not for the purpose of evaluation or assessment of their teaching. The researcher remained non-judgmental throughout and refrained from revealing her personal views and opinions verbally or non-verbally. Second, the technique of triangulation was employed to improve the credibility of the findings and interpretations. Specifically, triangulation by different data collection modes and by multiple sources of data, was present in the study (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). In all cases of teachers, interview data were triangulated with classroom observations, lesson plans and their responses to questionnaires. Some teachers also supplied autobiographies and reflective journals as additional sources of qualitative data. Third, interview transcripts and profiles depicting analytic categories of individual teachers’ beliefs were sent back

to the participants for member checking, one of the most important techniques for establishing credibility in qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). All teachers agreed that the transcripts were accurate and changes were made to their profiles based on individual teachers' feedback and clarifications. Member checking in both formal and informal ways occurred continuously throughout the collection and analysis phases. A session to review my findings was offered but declined as participating teachers were not able to attend.

Transferability: This criterion refers to the applicability of findings from one setting (where the study was done) to other settings. In qualitative research, the researcher's job or task is not to provide such an index of transferability. Other researchers who wish to make the transfer or generalization to other contexts would have to make their own decisions whether such a transfer is justifiable. To facilitate the transferability of analysis, thick description of the phenomena under study and of the context in which the study took place was provided.

Dependability: It refers to the extent to which the instruments, data and interpretation are reliable and consistent. Lincoln and Guba (1985) emphasized "inquiry audit" (p. 317) as an important measure which might enhance the dependability of qualitative research. This involves having an auditor to examine both the process and the product for consistency. The researcher's supervisor was engaged in the process of data collection and analysis, and therefore qualified for the role as an auditor. The design of instruments and data collection procedures were clearly explained to the auditor and was deemed acceptable. After data were collected, the products—the data, findings and interpretations, were also examined by the auditor.

Confirmability: This refers to the degree to which research results can be verified or corroborated by others (Jensen, 2008). The major technique for establishing confirmability is through an audit trail, which was parallel with the steps of involving an auditor for the dependability audit. In addition, strategies to strengthen confirmability of the study included: reference to literature and findings by other authors was made to confirm the inquirer's interpretations; examples of data analysis and coding was provided, and interpretations were undergirded by extensive quotations from the data.

4.1.4 Instruments

4.1.4.1 Questionnaires

Prior to data collection, the researcher began to develop a series of questionnaires to examine teachers' collective beliefs, practices and role identities. Three questionnaires were devised for the target population: teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching, teachers' practices, and teachers' role identities. These themes emerged from an extensive literature review. The development of *the Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching Questionnaire (BALLTQ)* drew on a number of extant instruments, for example, *BALLI* (Horwitz, 1985, 1988), Burns' (1992) and Allen's (2002) works. Teacher beliefs on language teaching and learning were examined from different aspects: the nature of language learning and teaching, language teaching as it relates to curriculum, language teaching methods (pedagogy), and language learners' ability to learn. The questionnaires used a 5-point Likert scale with 1 being "Strongly Disagree" and 5 being "Strongly Agree" (see Appendix H). *The Teaching Practice Questionnaire (TPQ)* asked teachers to rate the frequency of performing a range of teaching activities and behaviors from a 5-point Likert scale with 1 being never and 5 being very often (see Appendix H). Similarly, *the Teacher Identity*

Questionnaire (TIQ) elicited teachers' role-based identities by asking them to rate the degree of conformity to their teaching realities. The specific items were derived from a synthesis and adaption of findings from empirical studies, such as Ferrell (2011), Tsui (2003), and Duff and Uchida (1997). Demographic information was also collected, including age, gender, years of teaching experience, qualification, overseas experience, teacher training, and institution category.

4.1.4.2 Narrative interviews

Narratives are regarded as teachers' accounts of teaching in the form of diaries, stories, or negotiated biographies in which a researcher works with the teacher to make the teacher's life and experiences of teaching explicit (Calderhead, 1996). The rationale for eliciting teacher beliefs and identities in story forms has been established by a number of previous studies (e.g., Clandinin & Connelly, 1990, 2000, 2006; Golombek, 1998; Golombek & Johnson, 2004; Johnson & Golombek, 2011a, 2011b; Pavlenco, 2003). Researchers suggest that the study of teacher cognition should focus on teachers' perceptions, the insider's experience, the subjective understanding rather than researcher's interpretation (Borg, 2003, 2015; Johnson & Golombek, 2002, 2011b). Stories told by the teacher, therefore, are epistemologically the most authentic way to understand teaching from the teachers' perspective, because teacher cognition, their knowledge, beliefs and values, are largely structured through stories (Bell, 2002; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Golombek & Johnson, 2004; Zembylas, 2003).

Humans are essentially story telling beings. When researchers engage participants in conversational interviews, they enter a joint story telling experience. As Bruner (1990) observed that human life is fundamentally narrative and stories are a common way of organizing knowledge, the study of experience as story should be "first and foremost a way of thinking about experience" (Connelly & Clandinin, 2006, p. 375).

In educational research, narrative has emerged as both a method in, and an object of, inquiry in teacher education, especially in descriptions and analyses of teacher knowledge and identities (Clandinin & Connelly, 1996, 2000; Elbaz, 1983; Tsui, 2007; Xu & Liu, 2009). In narrative analysis, a life space is defined as a three dimensional space consisting of a temporal continuum (past-present-future), a personal-social continuum, and place (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). In other words, narrative analysis allows the researcher to see the change processes, to detect both the personal and social conditions related to the person, and to capture the contextual influences in a way that other research methods may not. With such merits, narratives were employed as tools to explore teachers' implicit theories of teaching, their beliefs and their identities. Narrative interviews are generally conducted in a semi-structured form with a set of questions guiding the interview (Bold, 2012), so I drafted a set of questions and created hypothetical profiles of four teachers (adapted from Mohamed, 2006, pp. 314-315) as prompts to provoke teachers' thoughts and reflections (see Appendix I). This enabled me to maintain focus, while allowing the interviewee to tell stories related to the raised questions or concerns. However, these questions and prompts were only designed to guide narrative elicitation rather than dictate or delimit teachers' thoughts and reflections.

4.1.4.3 Classroom observation

Previous research (e.g., Bao, Zhang, & Dixon, 2016; Graden, 1996; Tam, 2006; Lee, 2009; Li, 2013) shows that what teachers say may not match what they do in the real classroom. To understand the complexity of the situation, direct observation of teaching is necessary to complement the self-reported data. Observation takes place in a naturalistic setting in which the observer consciously notices, examines, and records in detail the participant's behaviors (Cowie, 2009; Patton, 2001). With varying degrees

of observer involvement, observation can be classified as participant observation and non-participant observation. This distinction is not definite because the extent of participation can change with a great deal of variation along the continuum between complete participation and non-participation (Patton, 2001). In this study, I assumed the role as a participant observer, because to be a participant observer means I can interact with people and setting while they are engaged in their normal tasks or routines. While experiencing the goings-on of the research site, I took detailed field notes which helped me to make sense of the observation and were subject to analysis in the data analysis stage.

4.1.4.4 Stimulated recall/Post-observation interviews

Stimulated recall is an elicitation procedure in which teachers are asked to recall their thinking at specific points in the lesson, with the help of a replay of the recordings of the lesson soon after (Calderhead, 1984; Clark & Peterson, 1986). The purpose of using stimulated recall is to capture the teachers' underlying cognitions, with particular reference to the actual teaching practice and student-teacher interaction episodes documented during observation. Stimulated recall procedures were conducted immediately after classroom observations. I recorded episodes of teaching behaviors and practices and, in the post-observation interviews, I asked them to elaborate on the rationales behind their behaviors. Teachers' explanations were often mixed with their underlying beliefs, perceptions of their identities, justification of their teaching behaviors, and understanding of their teaching contexts, all of which became rich sources of data for subsequent analysis.

4.1.4.5 Artefacts

I viewed and copied webpages of the three institutions' College English Department which provided relevant information about the program of College English

teaching, the promoted approach to teaching and assessment, updates of on-going reforms, research and teacher development programs. For each case study teacher, I photocopied pages of their textbooks and downloaded their electronic teaching plans and PowerPoint presentations for all observed units. In addition, Nancy and Jessie provided the teaching syllabus developed by the department. Tony provided his autobiography and students' writing samples of advertisements. Sunny and Ellen shared their reflective journals and Sunny allowed me to photocopy her students' initial and revised drafts of writing. I used all these artefacts as supplementary data, and they increased my understanding of observational notes and the participants' narratives in the interviews.

4.2 Data Analysis

4.2.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

For a mixed concurrent triangulation design, the quantitative and qualitative analyses were carried out separately before merging different sets of data and results for a single holistic interpretation. The survey results served to address the first and second research questions to identify and characterize Chinese tertiary EFL teacher's collective beliefs, practices, and identities. Quantitative data from the survey were subjected to quantitative analysis with SPSS. The participants' responses to the three questionnaires were subjected to an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with squared multiple correlations as prior communality estimates. Factor analysis is a data summarization and reduction procedure to identify the underlying structure of the responses which aggregate mathematically into conceptually meaningful pools (Hair et al. 2010; Kline, 1994). Given two types of factor analysis, EFA and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), EFA was chosen because it identifies likely pools of items explained

by a shared trait, whereas CFA is often used to test the fit of a proposed factor structure (Jöreskog, 2007).

For the exploratory nature of this study, EFA with Maximum Likelihood and varimax rotation, setting the eigenvalue greater than 1 as cut-off with scree plot check was applied to the responses. The decision on the number of factors to be retained was based on the following criteria as suggested by Hair et al. (2010). First, the presence of many coefficients of .30 and above indicated the suitability of the data for factor analysis. Second, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value, measure of sampling adequacy exceeded the recommended value of .60 and the Barlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ($p = .000$), supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. Third, items with significant cross loadings were removed. Internal consistency reliability was measured by the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient. The recommended Cronbach alpha value for internal reliabilities was .70, and should not be less than .60. The extracted factors were given descriptive titles and factor-based subscales were thereafter created.

After EFA, factor means for teachers' collective beliefs, practices and identities were calculated and compared to check alignment and identify features and trends. Then, in order to answer the second research question, one-way ANOVA tests were applied to examine if there was any significant difference in self-reported beliefs, role identities, and practices with different teacher characteristics, that is, teaching experience, qualification, overseas experience, major, institution type, and teacher training. The factor means were set as dependent variables with the different groupings as independent variables. Teachers were divided into five groups in terms of teaching experience: 1 – 0-2 years, 2 – 3-5 years, 3 – 6-10 years, 4 – 11-20 years, 5 – over 20 years. Qualification was divided into three groups: bachelor's degree, master's degree

and Ph.D. Overseas experience was divided into four groups: 1 – never, 2 – less than a year, 3 – 1-3 years, 4 – over 3 years. Teachers' academic backgrounds were broken down into English/American literature, English Education, Linguistics and Applied linguistics, Translation and others. Teachers' institutions were categorized as Tier 1, Tier 2, and Tier 3. The last characteristic asked teachers if they had received training about language teaching methods or not. To control for Type 1 error resulting from multiple ANOVA tests, chosen confidence levels of .05 were divided by the number of tests to adjust error rates (Field, 2009). An alpha value of .01 was therefore requested for tests of significance.

Finally, the statistical results, including extracted factor dimensions; identified characteristics of teacher beliefs, practices and identities; and relationships between factors and teacher characteristics, were merged with the qualitative findings for validation, corroboration and final interpretation.

4.2.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data analysis is a continuous, iterative enterprise. The three streams of qualitative data analysis—data reduction, data display and conclusion/verification—are interwoven before, during, and after data collection in parallel form (Miles & Huberman, 2013). Analysis of qualitative data began as soon as I entered the field and continued throughout the process of data collection. Conducting data collection and preliminary data analysis simultaneously enabled me to focus and shape the study as it proceeded through consistent reflection on the data and attention to what the data were saying (Glesne, 2011). Furthermore, it helped me make decisions about subsequent data collection, and identify emerging patterns.

4.2.2.1 Transcription of interviews and observations

I began the transcription of interviews immediately after each interview was completed. Reissman (1993) suggests that the transcription process and the analysis cannot be separated because the transcript is arranged in ways to support the researcher's thinking about the meaning of the interview. Interviews were transcribed verbatim so the features of the interviewees' speeches were retained in the process of representing the oral data to written text (Bucholtz, 2000). This transcription decision was informed by the theoretical choice of a voice-centered, dialogical analysis of narratives (Reissman, 2008). Transcription conventions were used to capture nonverbal actions (e.g., pauses, emphases, etc.). Symbols for transcription conventions can be found in Appendix K (Bailey, 2008; Bucholtz, 2000). Since all the interviews were conducted in Chinese, I decided to analyze the transcript in its original language. Only the themes/categories and the quotations cited in the thesis were translated into English. The main reason is that language differences often cause loss of information in the course of translation, as it is very difficult, if not possible, to find equivalent vocabulary, syntax, idioms, and concepts in the source language and the target language (Sechrest, Fay, & Zaidi, 1972). Therefore, there is a risk of arriving at incorrect conclusions if the analysis is based on a translation.

The processing and analysis of observation data took a different approach. The audio data of classroom observations were uploaded to a computer and were listened to repeatedly while they were compared with the field notes and memos were taking accordingly (Miles & Huberman, 2013). For each teacher, I identified portions of recordings which included distinctive instructional features, representative of the particular teacher's teaching in the class, and transcribed such teaching episodes. To draw a general picture for each teachers' actual teaching practices, I recorded their

instructional actions in sequence in tables. The descriptive data and the amounts of time spent on each instructional activity were tabulated (see Chapter Six). Instructional activities were analyzed and categorized, based on a matrix elaborated in Littlewood (2004, 2007), which comprises a five-category continuum with varying degrees of focus on forms and/or meaning (see Table 4.4). The left side of the matrix highlights activities that focus more on the teaching of formal features, whereas the right side illustrates more open-ended, authentic communication focused on meaning.

In its original version, Littlewood (2004) provided examples of activities in the table, but I found most of the activities were not common in the EFL context. To facilitate the classification of the observed class activities and to enable me to match these activities with teachers' stated beliefs and conceptions, under the supervisor's guidance, I added a row to the table and supplemented with examples of teaching activities more typical in the Chinese EFL context (see the fourth row of Table 4.4). This new table also served as a coding scheme which helped my classification and coding of the teaching activities of the participating teachers in the case studies.

After my initial coding of the teaching activities, I opened up my categorization and codes to another Ph.D. student, whose research interest was also in Communicative Language Teaching, for verification to enhance the credibility (Chenail, 2008). As an external reviewer, she agreed on most of the categorization with an inter-coder agreement of 95.3%. When disagreement occurred, we turned to my supervisor for a discussion conducive to a final decision on the codes.

Table 4.4. *Continuum of Communicativeness of Activities (Littlewood, 2004)*

| Focus on forms | ← | → | Focus on meaning | |
|--|---|--|---|---|
| Non-communicative learning | Pre-communicative language practice | Communicative language practice | Structured communication | Authentic communication |
| Focusing on the structure of language, how it is formed and what it means. | Practicing language with some attention to meaning but not communicating new messages to others. | Practicing pre-taught language in a context where it communicates new information. | Using language to communicate in situations which elicit pre-learnt language, but with some unpredictability. | Using language to communicate in situations where the meanings are unpredictable. |
| Examples: Teacher presentation (teacher-dominated talk), pronunciation drills, grammar exercises, etc. | Examples: Modeling or guided practice, translation, vocabulary exercises, filling in blanks with new vocabulary words, etc. | Examples: Teacher-led discussion on a given topic, question-and-answer (comprehension questions based on the reading or listening materials), etc. | Examples: Structured role-play, communicative tasks based on pre-taught vocabulary or knowledge, etc. | Examples: Creative role-play, e.g., job interviews, students' presentations, problem-solving, open discussion, etc. |

4.2.2.2 Combining thematic and structural approaches

The analysis of qualitative data was multi-layered with different levels of data coding and condensation. To facilitate the process, I outlined the following tasks to be accomplished through qualitative data analysis to address Research Questions 3, 4, and 5.

- 1) Identify each participating teacher's beliefs and characteristics of his or her belief system.
- 2) Identify features of individual teachers' practices (i.e. content, focus, organization, the teacher's role, and the students' role), and compare them with their explicit or implicit beliefs.
- 3) Identify teachers whose beliefs and practices were in congruence and whose were not.
- 4) Identify difficulties or challenges teachers were experiencing when implementing their espoused beliefs and pedagogy.
- 5) Identify and categorize what factors (discourses) might have caused such tensions.
- 6) Identify and categorize teachers' various ways of responding to tensions and conflicts.

Similar to Grossman's (1990) three-level analysis, the first level of qualitative data analysis focused on individual cases, aiming to provide an in-depth portrait of each teacher, "with as much salient data as possible, and to interpret the case with reference to the research questions of this study" (p. 157). During this stage, I used a deductive thematic analysis approach (Braun & Clarke, 2012) to analyze the interview transcripts. By segmenting and coding text data, I was able to identify each individual teacher's explicit and implicit beliefs and the characteristics of their belief systems.

For the observation data, I listened to audio recordings multiple times, along with my field notes, to identify the distinctive features of their practices; categorized their instructional activities in terms of their communicativeness, and then compared them with their explicit or implicit beliefs. After contrast and comparison, I was able to identify three teachers who showed a high level of consistency in actualizing their beliefs with the other two teachers being less congruent in terms of practicing what they had articulated. To my surprise, the less congruent teachers seemed to be fully aware of such dissonance and they seemed to have chosen this way as a response to the challenging working environment. This initial observation led me to probe further into the data to carry on my analysis with the structural approach to narratives.

According to Labov's six-part model, a minimal narrative constituted a sequence of temporally ordered clauses: abstract (A), orientation (O), complicating action (CA), result (R), evaluation (E), and coda (C). Through analyzing these elements, in particular the soul of narratives—the evaluation, the researcher gains an understanding of the narrator's perspective on the events being told and the narrator's justification of the telling (Labov, 1972; Riessman 1993, 2008). This approach of identifying and analyzing narratives was called structural analysis. Nevertheless, the Labovian approach only treated past events as narratives so subjective experiences and events that extend over time and even extend into the present might be missed if Labovian criterion were strictly followed.

Recognizing this limitation, I used Riessman's method (1993, 2008) which extended Labov's limited criterion to allow for the inclusion of the narration of ongoing or enduring states of being, or of present, future or hypothetical experience. The structural approach has a number of advantages pertaining to the study. First, it facilitated the identification and analysis of event narratives. Critical events are

influential in shaping teachers' beliefs and their trajectories of identity construction (Tripp, 1994, 2012). Teachers' accounts of critical incidents with a lingering effect on them help trace the sources of their espoused beliefs and identity (see Farrell, 2008; Hashweh, 1996; Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2011; Tripp, 1994). Second, the evaluation element highlights the narrator's perspective, in particular the ways the narrator made sense of the events, experiences in relation to the making of self. In personal narration, a particular "personal, social, cultural identity" is claimed by narrators (Patterson, 2008, p. 29). Using the structural approach, I was able to identify narratives/stories told by each participating teacher and, for each story, I created a short descriptive title. Table 4.5 presents the numbers of stories identified by the structural approach for each participating teacher. Examples of Labovian structural analysis and thematic analysis can be found in Appendix L.

Table 4.5 *Teacher Stories Identified by the Labovian Approach*

| Participating teacher | Number of stories identified |
|-----------------------|------------------------------|
| Tony | 20 |
| Nancy | 19 |
| Sunny | 15 |
| Jessie | 11 |
| Ellen | 11 |

The second level involved processing data holistically examining the three dimensions embedded in stories: temporality, sociality and place. As Barkhuizen (2008) suggested, teachers' personal stories, interpersonal stories, and stories within the socio-political context represent three levels of the context and they are interconnected and mutually constructed. At this stage, I scrutinized teachers' stories identified by the

structural approach to examine how individual teachers made sense of the promoted CLT approach within their peculiar intermediate working context, and how they managed to sort out a position in competing discourses to survive or even thrive in teaching. Challenges and difficulties in implementing CLT were identified; commonalities and differences in patterns of responding were mapped from the perspective of identity construction.

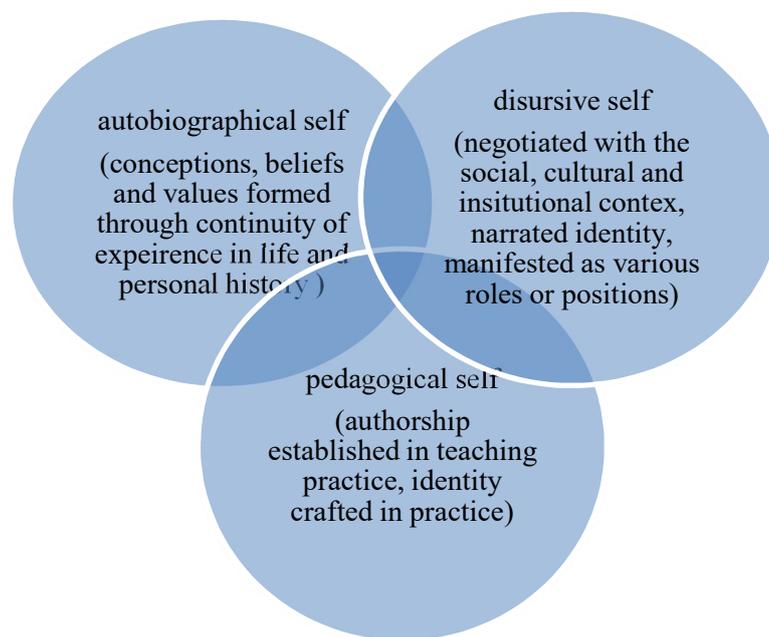


Figure 4.1. Three facets of self: Intersection between beliefs, identities, and practices.

The third level of data analysis went further and involved cross-case analysis across contexts. Exploration of similarities and differences and identification of patterns proceeded during the process. I created a concept map to illustrate the relationships between beliefs, identities, and practices, to help me form hypotheses (Figure 4.1). At this stage, Bakhtin's theoretical concepts were applied to interpret the qualitative findings. The three levels of analysis are illustrated in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 *Three Levels of Qualitative Analysis*

| Stage | Focus of analysis | |
|----------------------|---|---|
| Thematic Analysis | Themes related to beliefs and identities; Characteristics of Practices | |
| Structural Analysis | Identification of personal narrative/stories and evaluations | Temporality, sociality and place in stories |
| Cross –case analysis | Identification of patterns and analysis with theories | |

4.3 Ethical Considerations

The study was approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants’ Ethics Committee (UAHPEC). Participant Information Sheets (PIS) and Consent Forms (CF) had been prepared specifically for different participants and written in appropriate language. Every effort was made to give each participant as much information as possible so as to ensure that participants were well informed of the purpose of the study and their involvement in the study. The voluntary nature of participation was clearly explained in each PIS, along with participant’s rights to withdraw themselves and their data. It was made clear that teachers’ participation or non-participation would not affect their careers, future employment, or employment evaluation at any level, to prevent any possibility that teachers may feel pressured to participate. Students’ rights and options were also explained in the information sheet. Appropriate financial compensation was arranged (see Appendix B-G).

CHAPTER FIVE

THE SURVEY STUDY: STRUCTURES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF CHINESE TERTIARY EFL TEACHERS' BELIEFS, PRACTICES, AND IDENTITIES

This chapter presents the results of three questionnaires completed by 326 teachers from 22 Chinese tertiary institutions. The data obtained from the questionnaires will contribute towards answering the following research questions of the study:

- 1) *How can Chinese university EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching, their role identities, and teaching practices be characterized?*
- 2) *How do Chinese EFL teachers' beliefs, role identities, and practices differ between groups in terms of years of teaching, qualification, major, ELT training, and institution type?*

5.1 Chinese University EFL Teachers' Beliefs

5.1.1 Dimensions of Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching

Teachers' responses to *the Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching Questionnaire (BALLTQ)* were subjected to Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value, measure of sampling adequacy, was .883, exceeding the recommended value of .60 and the Barlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ($p = .000$), supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. Two factors

were retained accounting for a total of 58.39% variances. Four items with cross loadings were removed, with a total of 23 items retained.

Items loaded on the first factor were consistent with the CLT principles: a focus on language use and communication in real life situations with authentic input (items 17, 18, 20, 21, and 27); a view of all language skills and teaching of such skills as integrated and related (items 2, 7 and 12); an emphasis on meaning rather than form (items 3, 16, and 19), and a student-centered teaching style (items 10 and 25). In contrast, items aggregated on the second factor were statements essentially congruent with the traditional way of teaching English, for example, scripted teaching focusing on textbooks, ancillaries, and exams (items 11, 13, and 28), relying heavily on drills for language acquisition (item 30), vocabulary and grammar being the center of language learning with rote memory as a key method (items 14 and 15); teachers using translation for instruction and determining students' learning outcome (items 8 and 29); and emphasizing immediate error feedback for linguistic accuracy (items 22 and 24). Therefore, Factor I was labelled Communicative Conceptions (CC), and Factor II was named Traditional Conceptions (TC). The interrelationship between the two factors was very weak ($r = -.06$). The Cronbach alpha values of the whole scale (30 items) and the two subscales were good (.80, .85, and .74, respectively). Results of EFA are presented in Table 5.1 and descriptive statistics for the two subscales are summarized in Table 5.2.

Table 5.1 *Summary of EFA for the 30-item BALLTQ (N = 326)*

| Factors and Items | Loadings |
|--|----------|
| <i>I Communicative Conceptions of Language Learning and Teaching</i> | |
| 18 The goal of foreign language education is to develop students' communicative competence in real life situations. | .734 |
| 19 Foreign languages are learned through a process of trial and error, so errors should be seen as a natural part of learning. | .688 |
| 21 Authentic materials can better facilitate language acquisition. | .678 |
| 20 English teaching and learning activities in class should be related to students' real lives on or off campus. | .675 |
| 17 Language is acquired effectively when it is used as a vehicle for communication or doing something else. | .674 |
| 2 It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to learn English. | .632 |
| 27 The core of the teaching syllabi is to cultivate students' ability in communicating in English. | .627 |
| 10 Group/pair work activities play an important role in helping students acquire English. | .538 |
| 7 The listening, speaking, reading and writing skills of English are all interrelated. | .512 |
| 12 <i>College English</i> should be taught as an integrated course. | .488 |
| 25 If students are allowed to find out what was wrong and why, they will learn more. | .487 |
| 16 Meaning is more important than linguistic accuracy. | .460 |
| 3 Teachers do not need to stop students to correct them as long as they are able to get the message across. | .457 |
| <i>II Traditional Conceptions of Language Learning and Teaching</i> | |
| 14 To learn English is to learn the vocabulary words and grammar. | .646 |
| 28 The major task of a <i>College English</i> teacher is to teach the textbook. | .645 |
| 13 The primary curricular focus is on the adopted text book and accompanying ancillaries. | .606 |
| 11 To help students pass the CET Band 4 and Band 6 is one of the major concerns in <i>College English</i> teaching. | .573 |

| | | |
|----|---|------|
| 8 | The teacher's language ability determines the outcome of students' language learning. | .542 |
| 22 | When students make oral errors, the teacher should correct them immediately. | .538 |
| 24 | Teachers should point out every single mistake students have made in writing. | .519 |
| 30 | Massive drill and practice with language patterns is essential in English learning. | .458 |
| 15 | Rote memorization is of great importance in language learning. | .441 |
| 29 | It is necessary to translate English into Chinese in English instruction. | .370 |

The resulting factor structure resembles that of Goh and Chen's (2014) study with Chinese university EFL teachers. The same number of factors with a similar nature were identified in the present study, but the *BALLTQ* yielded more items loaded on each dimension, and thus provided a holistic picture of this group of teachers' cognitions. More specifically, the Communicative Competence dimension identified by Goh and Chen had a mean score of 4.19 and a standard deviation of 0.70, similar to the Communicative Conception identified by the current study (see Table 5.2). The Linguistic Accuracy dimension in their study indicated a moderate disagreement ($M = 2.43$), whereas the mean score of the Traditional Conceptions of the present study was very close to the neutral point ($M = 2.85$) indicating a slight disagreement.

Table 5.2 *Descriptive Statistics for Each Subscale in BALLTQ (N=326)*

| Subscale | No. of Items | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|---------------------------|--------------|----------|-----------|
| Communicative Conceptions | 13 | 4.16 | 0.71 |
| Traditional Conceptions | 10 | 2.85 | 0.98 |

5.1.2 Characteristics of Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching

5.1.2.1 *Communicative orientation*

In terms of the relative position of the main subscales, whose mean scores were above or below the midpoint of 3, the high mean score of Factor I indicated a strong endorsement of the communicative conceptions of language learning and teaching ($M = 4.15$).

Table 5.3 shows the frequencies of teachers' responses to the items comprising the Communicative Conceptions Factor. Specifically, teachers agreed that the purpose of English instruction was to help students develop language abilities for real life communications (item 18, 90.5% positive answers), and the majority tended to reject the traditional view of associating language learning with learning about grammar and vocabulary (item 14, 67.2% negative answers). To achieve this, the teachers agreed that incorporating cultural knowledge was essential (item 2, 96.4% positive answers). Instead of viewing language as discrete knowledge or separate areas of skills, teachers tended to view listening, speaking, reading and writing skills as related and integrated (items 7 and 12, 95.7% and 92.9% positive answers, respectively). In terms of pedagogy, using authentic materials and making class activities relevant to life received overwhelmingly favorable answers (items 20 and 21, positive answers 89.6% and 92.7%). In terms of error feedback, teachers agreed that errors are a natural part of learning a foreign language (item 19, 93.2% positive answers), and tended not to stop students to correct their errors (item 3, 79.5% positive answers). In general, teachers placed emphasis on meaning rather than language forms (item 16, 78.5% positive answers). Teachers' responses to these items implied a shift of focus from linguistic accuracy to communicative fluency. In terms of teacher-student relationship, teachers were willing to allow student autonomy by engaging them in group activities and

inquiry-based learning (items 10 and 25, 80.4% and 84% positive answers, respectively). The results seemed to indicate that teachers no longer regarded themselves as a model of the target language or the authority in the classroom, but a facilitator for learning and student interactions.

Table 5.3 *Communicative Conceptions: Frequencies (%), Means, and Standard Deviations*

| Factors and Items | Frequencies | | | | | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|--|----------------|-----|------|------|------|----------|-----------|
| | 1 ^a | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| <i>I Communicative Conceptions of Language Learning and Teaching</i> | | | | | | | |
| 18 The goal of foreign language education is to develop students' communicative competence in real life situations. | 0.3 | 2.8 | 6.4 | 55.8 | 34.7 | 4.22 | 0.71 |
| 19 Foreign languages are learned through a process of trial and error, so errors should be seen as a natural part of learning. | 0.3 | 1.2 | 5.2 | 55.2 | 38.0 | 4.30 | 0.65 |
| 21 Authentic materials can better facilitate language acquisition. | 0 | 0.9 | 6.4 | 53.1 | 39.6 | 4.31 | 0.63 |
| 20 English teaching and learning activities in class should be related to students' real lives within and out of school. | 0.3 | 2.5 | 7.7 | 58.0 | 31.6 | 4.18 | 0.70 |
| 17 Language is acquired effectively when it is used as a vehicle for communication or doing something else. | 0.3 | 2.8 | 7.1 | 58.6 | 31.3 | 4.18 | 0.70 |
| 2 It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to learn English. | 0.3 | 0.6 | 2.8 | 57.4 | 39.0 | 4.34 | 0.59 |
| 27 The core of the teaching syllabi is to cultivate students' ability in communicating in English. | 0.6 | 5.8 | 16.0 | 58.3 | 19.3 | 3.90 | 0.80 |
| 10 Group/pair work activities play an important role in helping students acquire English. | 0.3 | 2.5 | 16.6 | 58.9 | 21.8 | 3.99 | 0.71 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|----|---|-----|-----|------|------|------|------|------|
| 7 | The listening, speaking, reading and writing skills of English are all interrelated. | 0.6 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 46.9 | 48.8 | 4.41 | 0.68 |
| 12 | <i>College English</i> should be taught as an integrated course. | 0.6 | 1.8 | 4.6 | 50.0 | 42.9 | 4.33 | 0.71 |
| 25 | If students are allowed to find out what was wrong and why, they will learn more. | 1.5 | 4.0 | 9.5 | 61.7 | 23.3 | 4.01 | 0.79 |
| 16 | Meaning is more important than linguistic accuracy. | 0.9 | 7.4 | 13.2 | 58.6 | 19.9 | 3.89 | 0.84 |
| 3 | Teachers do not need to stop students to correct them as long as they are able to get the message across. | 0.6 | 6.0 | 13.9 | 59.6 | 19.9 | 3.92 | 0.79 |

^a1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neither agree or nor disagree; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree.

5.1.2.2 Traditional conceptions

Table 5.4 shows the frequencies of teachers' responses to the items comprising the Traditional Conceptions Factor. Teachers' responses to items in the Factor II subscale varied across items. Overall, based on the subscale mean (see Table 5.2), there was a slight disagreement on the traditional views of language learning and teaching ($M = 2.85$). To be specific, the majority (67.2%) disagreed that learning English was mainly about learning grammar and vocabulary, 20.6 % of the participants were uncertain, and only 12.2 % agreed. Over half of the teachers perceived their job was more than teaching the book and helping students to prepare for CET (item 28 and 11, 60.7% and 57.1% negative answers respectively). However, 57% of the participants believed translating English into Chinese was necessary in English instruction, and 47.9% considered drill and practice with language patterns were important.

Table 5.4 *Traditional Conceptions: Frequencies (%), Means, and Standard Deviations*

| Factors and Items | | Frequencies | | | | | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|---|--|----------------|------|------|------|-----|----------|-----------|
| | | 1 ^a | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| <i>II Traditional Conceptions of Language Learning and Teaching</i> | | | | | | | | |
| 14 | To learn English is to learn the vocabulary words and grammar. | 13.2 | 54.0 | 20.6 | 10.1 | 2.1 | 2.34 | 0.91 |
| 28 | The major task of a <i>College English</i> teacher is to teach the textbook. | 15.0 | 45.7 | 24.8 | 13.2 | 1.2 | 2.39 | 0.94 |
| 13 | The primary curricular focus is on the adopted text book and accompanying ancillaries. | 5.8 | 28.2 | 30.1 | 30.7 | 5.2 | 3.01 | 1.02 |
| 11 | To help students pass the CET Band 4 and Band 6 is one of the major concerns in <i>College English</i> teaching. | 11.7 | 45.4 | 20.6 | 20.6 | 1.8 | 2.56 | 1.00 |
| 8 | The teacher's language ability determines the outcome of students' language learning. | 7.4 | 26.4 | 36.8 | 25.8 | 3.7 | 2.92 | 0.98 |
| 22 | When students make oral errors, the teacher should correct them immediately. | 7.1 | 41.4 | 29.8 | 17.2 | 4.6 | 2.70 | 0.99 |
| 24 | Teachers should point out every single mistake students made in writing. | 4.9 | 31.6 | 23.9 | 33.4 | 6.1 | 3.04 | 1.05 |
| 30 | Massive drill and practice with language patterns is essential in English learning. | 2.5 | 19.0 | 30.7 | 40.2 | 7.7 | 3.31 | 0.95 |
| 15 | Rote memorization is of great importance in language learning. | 8.9 | 32.2 | 27.0 | 28.8 | 3.1 | 2.84 | 1.03 |
| 29 | It is necessary to translate English into Chinese in English instruction. | 2.1 | 17.2 | 23.6 | 50.3 | 6.7 | 3.42 | 0.92 |

^a1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neither agree or nor disagree; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree.

There were also several items on which participants' responses were almost equally divided for positive, negative and neutral answers. Just over a third (36.5%) of the participating teachers were uncertain about whether the teacher's language ability determines students' learning outcomes (item 8, 33.8% negative answers and 29.5% positive answers). Traditional approaches relied heavily on rote memorization. Regarding the importance of rote memorization in language learning and teaching, slightly more teachers gave negative answers (41.1%) than neutral and positive ones (27% and 31.9%). Comparisons of items across subscales showed nuances in teachers' beliefs about how they responded to students' errors. Teachers tended to disagree that oral errors should be corrected immediately, but slightly more teachers preferred to give detailed error feedback for students' writing by pointing out every mistake they made, which means, for some teachers, linguistic accuracy, in particular for written English, was still a concern.

5.1.2.3 Differences in belief factors across teacher groups

The two subscale means were subjected to one-way ANOVA to examine if there were any differences in teachers' conceptions with respect to their various characteristics. At the $p < .01$ level, no difference was found between groupings in terms of teaching experiences, qualifications, overseas exposure, training experience, and institution category (see Appendix M).

5.2 Teaching Practices

5.2.1 Dimensions of Teaching Practices

Teachers' responses to the *Teaching Practice Questionnaire* (TPQ) were subjected to EFA applying the same criteria as for *BALLTQ*. Two factors containing 13 items (with loading of 0.3 and above) were extracted, accounting for cumulative

percentage variance of 46.8%. The first factor described teaching practices mostly associated with the communicative approach, placing students at the center and providing students with plenty of opportunity to use the language (Cronbach alpha = .781) and, therefore, it was labelled communicative, student-centered teaching practices. The second factor including explaining grammar and vocabulary in Chinese and sentence-by-sentence explication of the text, was labelled didactic teacher-fronted teaching practices (Cronbach alpha = .670). The Cronbach alpha value of the *TPQ* was good (Cronbach alpha = .731). Table 5.5 presents the factor structure of the *TPQ*.

Table 5.5 *Summary of EFA for the 16-item TPQ (N = 326)*

| Factors and Items | | Loadings |
|---|---|----------|
| <i>I Communicative, Student-Centered Teaching Practices</i> | | |
| 5 | I have students discuss the text in groups to figure out the main ideas and the organization. | .727 |
| 3 | I ask questions to check students' understanding of the text. | .708 |
| 8 | I make students summarize the reading text orally or in writing. | .649 |
| 13 | I have students work in groups for a variety of activities, e.g., role-play, acting out a situation, debating, etc. | .623 |
| 6 | I engage students in talking about life-related topics. | .615 |
| 4 | I have students write topical essays or narratives to express their opinions and experiences. | .607 |
| 1 | I use English as the medium of instruction. | .595 |
| <i>II Didactic, Teacher-Fronted Teaching Practices</i> | | |
| 9 | I use Chinese to explain vocabulary and grammar. | .706 |
| 16 | I have students practice patterns for reinforcement. | .667 |
| 7 | I use lots of modelling in class and reinforce key points. | .560 |
| 2 | I explain the text sentence by sentence. | .526 |
| 15 | I do word dictations with students. | .524 |
| 14 | I have students translate the text. | .347 |

Table 5.6 *Descriptive Statistics for Each Subscale in TPQ (N=326)*

| Subscale | No. of Items | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|---|--------------|----------|-----------|
| Communicative, Student-Centered, Teaching Practices | 7 | 3.82 | 0.55 |
| Didactic, Teacher-Fronted Teaching Practices | 6 | 3.26 | 0.57 |

5.2.2 Characteristics of Teaching Practices

5.2.2.1 *Communicative, student-centered teaching practices*

The first factor of the *TPQ* was labelled as student-centered, communicative teaching practices. Table 5.7 shows the frequencies of teachers' responses to the items clustered around the Communicative Teaching Practices Factor. Over 90% (91.3%) of the teachers indicated that they mainly used English for classroom instruction (item 1); only 1.2% teachers chose never or rarely and 7.4% sometimes. CE teachers frequently engaged students in authentic conversations (item 6; 76.7% frequently and very frequently), writing activities (item 4, 63.8% frequently and very frequently), and employed group activities (item 13, 59.5% frequently and very frequently). When dealing with the reading text, approximately 60% teachers tended to give students the center stage and use cooperative learning for text comprehension (item 5, 60.4 % frequently and very frequently; 29.5% occasionally). Such practices provided students with language exposure, afforded them opportunities to use English for communicative purposes, so students were empowered to become active processor of information and participants of communication. The overall mean for this subscale was close to 4 (frequently) which indicated that their communicative practices were generally aligned with their communicative orientation as revealed by *BALLTQ*.

Table 5.7 *Student-Centered, Communicative Teaching Practices: Frequencies (%), Means, and Standard Deviations*

| Factors and Items | | Frequencies | | | | | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|---|--|----------------|------|------|------|------|----------|-----------|
| | | 1 ^a | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| <i>I Student-centered, communicative teaching practices</i> | | | | | | | | |
| 5 | I have students discuss the text in groups to figure out the main ideas and the organization. | 0.6 | 9.5 | 29.4 | 46.7 | 13.8 | 3.64 | 0.86 |
| 3 | I ask questions to check students' understanding and provoke their in-depth and critical thinking. | 0.9 | 8.3 | 25.5 | 41.1 | 24.2 | 3.79 | 0.94 |
| 8 | I make students summarize the reading text orally or in writing. | 0.6 | 12.3 | 31.6 | 42.3 | 13.2 | 3.55 | 0.89 |
| 13 | I have students work in groups for a variety of activities, e.g., role-play, acting out a situation, and debating. | 0 | 6.7 | 33.7 | 42.7 | 16.9 | 3.70 | 0.83 |
| 6 | I engage students in talking about life-related topics. | 0 | 2.1 | 21.2 | 53.7 | 23.0 | 3.98 | 0.73 |
| 4 | I have student write topical essays or narratives to express their opinions and experiences. | 0.6 | 7.1 | 28.5 | 45.7 | 18.1 | 3.74 | 0.86 |
| 1 | I use English as the medium of instruction. | 0.3 | 0.9 | 7.4 | 44.8 | 46.6 | 4.37 | 0.67 |

^a1 = never; 2 = rarely; 3 = sometimes; 4 = frequently; 5 = very frequently.

5.2.2.2 *Didactic, teacher-fronted teaching practice*

The second factor described teaching practices that focused on the language with little attention directed to the learners' needs. Such practices were typical in the older language teaching traditions. Normally, in the older traditions, teachers used the first language, Chinese, to explain unknown words and grammar to students, modelled the use of the target language by giving examples and sample sentences, and then gave students exercises and drills to practice patterns to reinforce the language points and enhance memorization. The traditional approaches were language-based, focusing on

the lexical and syntactical structures, while the more recent approach placed emphasis on the discourse level. Based on the frequency counts presented in Table 5.8, 42.2% of the participants would occasionally use Chinese to explain vocabulary and grammar; 30.2% frequently or very frequently (item 9). Drilling and practice of patterns were popular among the teachers with over half of the teachers and over 30% were occasional users (item 7). Doing word dictations and having students translate the text were still frequent practices for approximately 40% of the participating teachers (item 15, 42.6 % frequently and very frequently, and item 14, 44.3% frequently and very frequently). Teachers' responses to these items showed that approximately 30% to 40% of the participating teachers were still frequently or very frequently applying traditional approaches in their classrooms despite their acceptance of the communicative conceptions and principles. It was very likely that in reality they employed a mixture of both communicative and traditional approaches to fulfil their responsibilities in helping students develop English competence.

Table 5.8 *Didactic, Teacher-Fronted Teaching Practices: Frequencies (%), Means, and Standard Deviations*

| Factors and Items | Frequencies | | | | | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|--|----------------|------|------|------|------|----------|-----------|
| | 1 ^a | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| <i>II Didactic, Teacher-Fronted, Teaching Practices</i> | | | | | | | |
| 9 I use Chinese to explain vocabulary and grammar. | 3.7 | 22.9 | 42.2 | 27.5 | 3.7 | 3.05 | 0.89 |
| 16 I have students practice patterns for reinforcement. | 1.2 | 16.8 | 32.4 | 41.6 | 8.0 | 3.38 | 0.90 |
| 7 I use lots of modelling in class and reinforce key points. | 0.9 | 9.2 | 36.1 | 41.0 | 12.8 | 3.56 | 0.86 |
| 2 I explain the text sentence by sentence. | 5.2 | 22.0 | 42.5 | 25.4 | 4.9 | 3.02 | 0.94 |
| 15 I do word dictations with students. | 5.8 | 23.6 | 27.9 | 33.2 | 9.5 | 3.17 | 1.07 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|----|---|-----|------|------|------|-----|------|------|
| 14 | I have students translate the English text in to Chinese. | 2.1 | 12.9 | 40.2 | 36.5 | 8.3 | 3.36 | 0.86 |
|----|---|-----|------|------|------|-----|------|------|

^a1 = never; 2 = rarely; 3 = sometimes; 4 = frequently; 5 = very frequently.

5.2.2.3 Differences in teaching practice factors across teacher groups

The one-way ANOVA and *t*-tests results showed no significant impact of qualification, major, or teaching experience on teaching practices. However, a statistically significant relationship was found between teachers' self-reported practices and several other professional characteristics: training experience, overseas experience, and institution category. Teachers' student-centered, communicative practices seemed to differ by their training experience: $t(324) = 3.02, p = .003$; overseas experience: $F(3, 322) = 7.41, p = .000$; and institution category: $F(2, 323) = 8.43, p = .000$. Concerning their didactic, teacher-fronted practices, there were significant differences by the variable of institution category: $F(2, 323) = 7.94, p = .000$. T test results of Teaching Practice by training experience showed that teachers with teacher training had a higher mean score ($M = 3.87, SD = 0.54$) on the Communicative Teaching Practice subscale than teachers without any training experience ($M = 3.64, SD = 0.55$). Post hoc comparisons using the Scheffe tests indicated, for the Communicative Teaching Practice subscale, the mean score of teachers who had never been overseas ($M = 3.71, SD = 0.58$) was significantly different than that of teachers who had been overseas for one to three years ($M = 3.99, SD = 0.44, p = .002$). Correspondingly, the Didactic Teaching Practice mean score of teachers working in Tier 1 institutions ($M = 3.32, SD = 0.48$) was significantly different than that of teachers working in Tier 3 institutions ($M = 4.12, SD = 0.46, p = .000$) (see Appendix N).

5.3 Teachers' Role Identities

5.3.1 Dimensions of Teachers' Role Identities

Teachers were asked to rate to what extent they identified with the statements describing their role identities in classroom teaching, ranging from 1 (never true of me) to 5 (very true of me). Teachers' responses to these items were subjected to EFA applying the same criteria as for *BALLTQ* and *TPQ*. Four factors containing 21 items (with loading of 0.3 and above) were extracted, accounting for cumulative percentage variance of 52.47 %. The first factor was labelled Motivator and Advocate for English Learning (Cronbach alpha = .849), including statements describing the many ways by which teachers motivated students to learn English. The second factor was labelled Facilitator for English Learning (Cronbach alpha = .810). The third factor was named Reflective Practitioner and Researcher (Cronbach alpha = .828). The last factor was an aggregation of statements describing the teacher's role as transmitting knowledge and scripted book teaching, and therefore was labelled as Book Teacher (Cronbach alpha = .717). The Cronbach alpha values of each of the four factor subscales and the whole scale (.890) were good, implying satisfactory internal consistency of the subscales and questionnaire instrument to measure the intended construct. Table 5.9 presents the factor structure of teachers' role identities.

Table 5.9 *Summary of EFA for the 25-item TIQ (N=326)*

| Factors and Items | Loadings |
|--|----------|
| <i>I Motivator and Advocate for English Learning</i> | |
| 6 I want students to enjoy the class and the process of studying English. | .766 |
| 15 Through reflection, I search for ways to enhance my teaching practices. | .625 |
| 9 I make sure my lessons are interesting and engaging. | .624 |

| | | |
|---|--|------|
| 3 | I manage the classroom interaction. | .621 |
| 7 | I promote inquiry learning and autonomous learning | .600 |
| 1 | I use a variety of activities and strategies to stimulate students' interest in learning English. | .532 |
| 2 | I make students aware of the importance of learning English. | .600 |
| 19 | I look for original ideas to surprise students and engage them. | .498 |
| <i>II Facilitator of English Learning</i> | | |
| 12 | I teach English learning strategies. | .746 |
| 13 | I attempt to understand students' needs and the goings-on of their life and study. | .726 |
| 14 | I recommend English learning resources for students. | .601 |
| 24 | I encourage students to draw on various resources to learn English outside the class. | .548 |
| 25 | I care about students like parents. | .504 |
| <i>III Reflective Practitioner and Researcher</i> | | |
| 10 | I am involved in research on English language teaching and read related literature. | .689 |
| 20 | I am interested in learning about English pedagogies and linguistic knowledge. | .673 |
| 11 | I am in search of effective pedagogies and exploring the ways of being a qualified <i>College English</i> teacher. | .616 |
| 18 | I like to reflect on my teaching practices and search for ways of improvement. | .514 |
| <i>IV Book teacher</i> | | |
| 21 | I teach what is scripted in the textbook. | .804 |
| 23 | My job is to transfer the content from the book to the student. | .788 |
| 22 | I see my main responsibility as helping students pass tests. | .523 |
| 4 | I don't like to change my teaching method. | .515 |

Table 5.10 *Descriptive Statistics for Each Subscale in TIQ (N=326)*

| Identities | No. of Items | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|-------------------------|--------------|----------|-----------|
| Motivator and Advocate | 7 | 4.15 | 0.49 |
| Facilitator | 5 | 4.07 | 0.57 |
| Reflective Practitioner | 4 | 3.98 | 0.63 |
| Book Teacher | 4 | 2.87 | 0.62 |

5.3.2 Characteristics of Teachers' Role Identities

5.3.2.1 *Motivator and advocate for English learning*

Teachers demonstrated strong identification with the role as the motivator ($M = 4.22$). The first factor described the various ways College English (CE) teachers employed to stimulate students' interest and engage them in learning English in and out of the classroom. Over 90% of the participants expressed that they made efforts to make the CE class interesting and engaging (items 6, 15 and 19). Such efforts included designing various kinds of instructional activities and providing students with more opportunity for inquiry-based learning and autonomous learning (items 1 and 7). In the Chinese EFL context, the term "activity" is an equivalent of learning tasks. Another important aspect embedded in the role as a motivator is to increase students' awareness of the importance of learning English and advocate for English learning (item 2). This involved informing students that English skills are valuable assets for their future life and career development. Teachers' identification of their roles as motivators and advocates is to be understood within the context of EFL teaching in Chinese universities. As mentioned in the context section (Chapter Two), many university students lack the motivation for learning English as they do not see the immediate tangible benefits English can bring to their present and future lives. If CE were not required, some

students would opt not to take it. Students are more concerned with the credits they can get from taking CE for their degrees and whether CE can help them pass CET-4 or CET-6. Take Tsing Hua University as an example. According to Chen (2009), approximately 55 % of first year's students chose not to take CE. Instead they paid to go to a private language institute, New Oriental School, which offered specialized training for CETs, TOEFL and IELTS. Ruan and Jacob (2009) pointed out that students' dissatisfaction with CE was one of the four major challenges facing CE teachers, curriculum makers, and higher education institutions. They reported several survey studies conducted with university students in Beijing and Tianjin in the 1990s to find out students' levels of satisfaction with the CE teaching. On average, 78% of university students were not content with CE teaching. Consequently, tertiary institutions' administrations doubted the legitimacy and efficiency of CE and continually shrank the credit hours of CE (Cai & Liao, 2010). In responding to such a bleak situation, the survey result showed that CE teachers located themselves in a position to change and transform the ingrained traditional teaching methods to "win over" students.

Table 5.11 *Motivator and Advocate for English Learning: Frequencies (%), Means, and Standard Deviations*

| Factors and Items | | Frequencies | | | | | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|--|---|----------------|-----|-----|------|------|----------|-----------|
| <i>I Motivator and Advocate for English Learning</i> | | 1 ^a | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| 6 | I want students to enjoy the class and the process of studying English. | 0 | 0.3 | 4.9 | 42.0 | 52.8 | 4.47 | 0.61 |
| 15 | Through reflection, I search for ways to enhance my teaching practices. | 0 | 0.9 | 9.8 | 57.7 | 31.6 | 4.20 | 0.64 |
| 9 | I make sure my lessons are interesting and engaging. | 0.3 | 0.3 | 7.0 | 51.7 | 40.7 | 4.32 | 0.64 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|----|---|-----|-----|------|------|------|------|------|
| 3 | I manage the classroom interaction. | 0.9 | 2.8 | 19.3 | 58.9 | 18.1 | 3.90 | 0.75 |
| 7 | I promote inquiry learning and autonomous learning | 0.3 | 2.1 | 8.9 | 49.4 | 39.3 | 4.25 | 0.73 |
| 1 | I use a variety of activities and strategies to stimulate students' interest in learning English. | 0 | 2.5 | 12.6 | 55.8 | 29.1 | 4.12 | 0.71 |
| 2 | I make students aware of the importance of learning English. | 0 | 1.8 | 12.6 | 60.4 | 25.2 | 4.09 | 0.67 |
| 19 | I look for novel ideas to surprise students and engage them. | 0 | 3.4 | 29.8 | 45.7 | 21.2 | 3.85 | 0.79 |

^a1= never true of me, 2 = slightly true of me, 3 = moderately true of me (sometimes true, sometimes not), 4 = fairly true, 5 = very true of me.

5.3.2.2 *Facilitator of English learning*

The second factor represents an aggregation of statements describing teachers' functions in students' English learning. Teachers seemed to have adopted the role as a facilitator for students' English learning ($M = 4.10$). In older traditions such as Audiolingualism and Grammar Translation, the teacher was regarded as the primary source of the target language. However, in more recent methods such as Communicative Language Teaching, Task-Based Language Teaching, and Cooperative Language Learning, teachers are required to be confident enough to step back from teacher-fronted teaching and adopt the role of a facilitator. Nearly 90% (88.9 %) of the teachers responded that they taught English learning strategies to students (item 12, fairly true and very true), and 85.3% would recommend English learning resources (item 14, fairly true and very true). Teaching learning strategies, for example, vocabulary strategies, reading strategies, and oral presentation strategies, helps students to become effective language learners and improve their metacognitive skills, because it focuses on the "how", methodologies students can take with them after graduating,

rather than the “what”, the separate and variable linguistic knowledge. Nearly three-quarters (72.4%) of teachers identified with the role to provide guidance and scaffolding to help with the successful completion of students’ tasks (item 25). Teachers were also found to be concerned with students’ needs and the goings-on of their life and study (item 13, 77% fairly true and very true) and encouraged students to extend learning beyond the classroom (item 24, 83.5% fairly true and very true). Teachers’ responses to these items exhibited the humanistic dimension of language learning or student-centeredness. Humanistic methods emphasize sensitivity to students’ feelings and emotions, and active student’s involvement in learning and the way learning takes place (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). This factor might also be a manifestation of the influence of the Chinese traditions of teaching and learning, which view the teacher’s responsibility as going beyond teaching skills and knowledge and including an aspect of nurturing the person (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006; cf. Zhan, 2010; Zhang & Ben Said, 2014).

Table 5.12 *Facilitator of English Learning: Frequencies (%), Means, and Standard Deviations*

| Factors and Items | Frequencies | | | | | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|--|----------------|-----|------|------|------|----------|-----------|
| | 1 ^a | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | |
| <i>II Facilitator of English Learning</i> | | | | | | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| 12 I teach English learning strategies. | 0 | 0.6 | 10.4 | 55.8 | 33.1 | 4.21 | 0.64 |
| 13 I attempt to understand students’ needs and the goings-on of their life and study. | 0 | 1.8 | 21.2 | 51.2 | 25.8 | 4.13 | 0.74 |
| 14 I recommend English learning resources for students. | 0.3 | 1.8 | 12.6 | 54.9 | 30.4 | 3.89 | 0.72 |
| 24 I encourage students to draw on various resources to learn English outside the class. | 0 | 2.5 | 14.0 | 53.1 | 30.4 | 4.11 | 0.73 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|----|---|-----|-----|----|------|------|------|------|
| 25 | I provide guidance, instructions and resources to help students complete learning tasks and activities. | 0.3 | 4.3 | 23 | 49.7 | 22.7 | 3.90 | 0.81 |
|----|---|-----|-----|----|------|------|------|------|

^a1= never true of me, 2 = slightly true of me, 3 = moderately true of me (sometimes true, sometimes not), 4 = fairly true, 5 = very true of me.

5.3.2.3 Reflective practitioner and researcher

The extraction of the third factor identified teachers as reflective practitioners and researchers (mean = 3.96). Teachers regularly reflected on their practices, hunted for new ideas, and explored alternatives to expand their knowledge and skill repertoires and to ultimately improve their teaching practices (item 11, 18 and 20). These activities were considered essential to continuous learning and conducive to the development of professional reflectivity which informs a redirection to new landmarks without being overwhelmed, or blinded by the familiar (Schön, 1983). In addition, over 70% of the teachers were involved in English teaching-related research. Situated in the Chinese tertiary context, CE teachers like other academic professionals are increasingly required to maintain an active research and publication agenda (Borg & Liu, 2013; Ruan & Jacob, 2009) and gain a doctorate in related areas (Hao, 2010). Involvement in language learning or teaching research informs teachers of research-based language learning theories and pedagogies, and helps them to develop a sound knowledge base for their professional practice.

Table 5.13 *Reflective Practitioner and Researcher: Frequencies (%), Means, and Standard Deviations*

| Factors and Items | Frequencies | | | | | Mean | SD |
|---|----------------|-----|------|------|------|------|------|
| | 1 ^a | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | M | SD |
| <i>III Reflective Practitioner and Researcher</i> | | | | | | | |
| 10 I am involved in research on English language teaching and read related literature. | 0.3 | 6.1 | 22.1 | 46.6 | 24.8 | 3.90 | 0.86 |
| 20 I am interested in learning about English pedagogies and linguistic knowledge. | 0 | 5.2 | 23.5 | 52.0 | 19.3 | 3.85 | 0.79 |
| 11 I am in search of effective pedagogies and exploring the ways of being a qualified <i>College English</i> teacher. | 0.3 | 1.8 | 12.9 | 54.0 | 31.0 | 4.14 | 0.72 |
| 18 I like to reflect on my teaching practices and search for ways of improvement. | 0.3 | 1.8 | 19.0 | 50.5 | 28.4 | 4.05 | 0.76 |

^a1= never true of me, 2 = slightly true of me, 3 = moderately true of me (sometimes true, sometimes not), 4 = fairly true, 5 = very true of me.

5.3.2.4 *Book teacher*

The last factor contains four statements describing the teacher's role as scripted teachers and exam-oriented, strictly following the textbook and preparing students for tests. Teachers' responses to this factor indicated their reluctance to be identified as such. The environments in which teachers operate have been described in terms of two extremes: high structure and low structure environments (Nunan & Lamb, 1996). In high structure environments, teachers are required to follow a pre-specified syllabus as well as a textbook and examination prescription while the low structure environments allow teachers and learners to negotiate the curriculum (Nunan & Lamb, 1996; Wett & Bakhuizen, 2009). The ELT working environment in Chinese universities, as described in the context section (in Chapter One), demonstrate the characteristics of a high

structure environment. In the Chinese context, English textbooks are crucial to the quality of ELT, because they are the most important, if not the only, source of English input to many students, and a guide for teachers to plan and implement language instruction. As a result, a subject-centered approach, which placed the emphasis on mastery of knowledge from classroom instruction and from the textbook to achieve success in tests, and on disciplined mental effort in the service of imitation and memorization of key texts, was commonly practiced in Chinese English classrooms across all grade levels (Ding, 2007; Lee, 1996). However, an interesting pattern emerged from responses to the items loaded on this factor. Results indicated that this cohort of Chinese tertiary EFL teachers generally resisted full compliance of the textbook. For items 21 and 23, the majority, approximately 70%, found it only slightly true or moderately true of their situations. Less than a quarter of the respondents rated generally true and completely true on these two statements. Nevertheless, exam-orientation was still having an influence. Nearly half of the participants emphasized their roles of preparing students for exams and tests (item 22). Teachers were generally open to alternative or new teaching methods (item 4). Although CET-4 and CET-6 are no longer tied to students' degrees in many tertiary institutions, approximately half of the teachers were still bound by exams.

Table 5.14 *Book Teacher: Frequencies (%), Means, and Standard Deviations*

| Factors and Items | | Frequencies | | | | | Mean | SD |
|------------------------|---|----------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| <i>IV Book Teacher</i> | | 1 ^a | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | M | SD |
| 21 | I teach what is scripted in the textbook. | 4.9 | 30.0 | 39.4 | 22.6 | 3.1 | 2.90 | 0.91 |
| 23 | My job is to transfer the content from the book to the student. | 8.9 | 41.9 | 33.0 | 13.1 | 3.1 | 2.60 | 0.93 |
| 22 | I see my main responsibility as helping students pass tests. | 1.2 | 12.8 | 36.1 | 38.5 | 11.3 | 3.46 | 0.90 |
| 4 | I don't like to change my teaching method. | 11.9 | 35.8 | 40.7 | 9.8 | 1.8 | 2.54 | 0.89 |

^a1= never true of me, 2 = slightly true of me, 3 = moderately true of me (sometimes true, sometimes not), 4 = fairly true, 5 = very true of me.

5.3.2.5 Differences in identity factors across teacher groups

At the $p < .01$ level, significant differences were found on the Reflective Practitioner factor between teachers with different levels of qualifications: $F(2, 323) = 6.02, p = .003$. Post hoc comparisons using the Scheffe tests indicated that the mean score of teachers with a Ph.D. ($M = 4.34, SD = 0.47$) was significantly different than that of teachers with bachelor's degrees ($M = 3.89, SD = 0.65, p = .001$) and master's degrees ($M = 3.95, SD = 0.62, p = .002$). Institution type was found to have an impact on the Motivator and Advocate factor. Significant differences were found between teachers working in Tier 1 institutions and those working in Tier 3 institutions [$F(2, 323) = 5.38, p = .005$]. Post hoc comparisons suggested that the Motivator and Advocate Factor mean score of the teachers working in Tier 1 universities ($M = 4.30, SD = 0.48$) was significantly different than that of teachers working in Tier 3 universities ($M = 4.12, SD = 0.46, p = .005$) (see Appendix O). This difference showed that teachers working

in Tier 1 universities were more likely to identify themselves as motivators and advocates for English learning than teachers working in Tier 3 institutions.

CHAPTER SIX

CASE STUDIES: DIALOGIC CONSTRUCTION OF TEACHER SELVES

This chapter, consisting of five case studies, examines individual teachers' conceptions and the ways in which they managed to live with competing discourses through constructing an identity that fused the multiple layers of self and through creating a self-authoring space. Drawing on field research and narrative analysis, I identified three patterns of identity construction of the participants: active identity resolvers, the identity seeker, and passive identity resolvers. The first two cases tell the stories of Tony and Nancy, as active identity resolvers who negotiated varying identity roles and multiple social discourses to construct a coherent, positive sense of self as a CE teacher. Sunny's story represents a prototype of the identity seeker, who was caught in between two orientations, and experiencing a tension-filled struggle for identity attainment. Jessie's story traces her professional cycle from entry into teaching to a period of stabilization, and explicates the reasons why she espoused CLT approaches but practiced traditional approaches. Ellen's case is a variation of a passive identity resolver. Ellen's story shared some similarities with the other four teachers. Although cognitively she embraced CLT, pedagogically she aligned her teaching practices with the traditional approach. Ellen managed to create a position to compensate for the frustration arising from not being able to apply the ideal pedagogy. This identity and positioning strategy helped her to carry on teaching and bonding with her students. These teachers' stories contextualized the co-construction of teachers' beliefs and identities, and revealed the intersection between beliefs, identities and practices. The

stories highlighted the various ways individual teachers drew on different positioning strategies to negotiate tensions and sustain teaching.

The story of each participant includes a brief description of the participant's background, a sketch of their individually held beliefs and conceptions about teaching English, the challenges and difficulties they encountered in individual working contexts, and how they responded to these challenges by using various positioning strategies to construct situated identities.

6.1 Tony: An Inspirational College English Teacher

“I think my teaching is more of an inspiration and stimulation. I teach English by inspiring students. That is who I am, my style of teaching.”
(T-INT-1-19~20)

6.1.1 Tony's Profile

Growing up in a rural village, Tony came from an economically disadvantaged background. In China, urban areas are generally more developed than rural areas in economy, education and service sectors. Due to the lack of qualified English teachers, the English education Tony's received was characterized by substantial self-study. Tony worked hard to make his way to the master's program in a well-known university in South China. Tony began his teaching career as a CE teacher in a national key university, T University, in 2008, after obtaining his Master's degree in Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching. Prior to taking up this full-time position, he had tutored at private language schools for IELTS training so he had experience of teaching English for different purposes. Through teaching practice and language teaching methodology training, Tony came to understand and embrace the communicative approaches. When asked to describe his own teaching methods, Tony expressed a focus

on meaning and providing students the opportunity to interact with the language. Tony had been through two rounds of curriculum reforms since 2008. CE in T University was once taught as an integrated course, and then was broken down to two big chunks (reading and writing, and listening and speaking). Upon entry into the university, students were required to take placement tests to be grouped into two levels, the advanced and the basic. The advanced learners are high achievers while students placed at the basic level have lower scores. When the study took place, Tony was teaching *Practical Reading* (intensive reading) to a group of second-year advanced learners.

6.1.2 Tony's Beliefs: Hybridization of Two Orientations

6.1.2.1 Relating English learning to real life

Tony's beliefs about English learning and teaching had a clear focus on communication and interaction. For Tony, language is a tool through which students use to explore life and the outside world. If taught as discrete knowledge and facts, language is dull and boring (T-INT-8-28~29). Tony's pedagogy centered on motivating and inspiring students to learn English and expanding horizons for future life and careers. In interviews, Tony described his efforts to make the class "interesting" to stimulate interest in English learning. He explained his rationale as follows:

"In the Chinese context, English is neither an official or second language, nor a subject related to students' majors. Many students do not see the immediate value of learning English. If I make them aware of the benefits learning English can bring, they are more likely to come to class and perhaps study English even after class. I gave them real examples: two graduates apply for a position; the one with higher English proficiency will get a salary of 5000 yuan while the other with

poor English will only get 3000 yuan. The students get it and especially the advanced learners enjoy learning English and they are cooperative.” (T-INT-1-23~25)

6.1.2.2 Fluency is more important than accuracy.

Tony held that language is situational and versatile. Students should be encouraged to make up their own sentences or speeches. He reassured students they should not be worried about making mistakes or not being idiomatic. He asked students to focus on the meaning, the message they wanted to convey, rather than the language forms. In class, Tony encouraged students to speak as much as possible, and he did not explicitly correct students' mistakes. Instead, he used the recast strategy. He believed that fluency was more important than accuracy.

“Traditionally, the teachers focused too much on errors, mistakes. Students were taught to seek the ‘right answer’, but the message can take various forms or wording in real-life communication. It is highly contextual. The College English teacher needs to help students change their previous perceptions and overcome the fear of getting things wrong. I do not pick on individual students because I want to minimize the pressure on them. When they have group discussions, I get into their groups, listen to them and communicate with them. I am trying to build an atmosphere conducive to unrestricted communication and learning.” (T-INT-9-4~7)

6.1.2.3 Reading is the foundational skill.

While accepting the communicative view of language teaching, Tony held firmly to the view that among reading, writing, speaking and listening, reading is of the

utmost importance and the foundation of the development of other skills. Through reading, learners can increase their awareness of the target language, enlarge vocabulary, and improve grammar and sentence structures. Tony contended reading provides quality exposure to the target language and increases one's vocabulary and language awareness. The input hypothesis he learnt about in his second language acquisition class during his undergraduate and master's programs of study provided the theoretical basis for Tony's beliefs, or internally persuasive words in Bakhtin's terms: if one has read enough, his or her English will surely improve.

"I have written English emails to the Dean and she praised my English writing in public, in our faculty meetings. After that, the dean asked me to help edit her speech manuscripts and I made some very good suggestions. I also teach writing classes for IETLS and TEOFL students. My writing all came from what I read. I think my English writing is even better than my Chinese writing." (T-INT-6-3~12)

Tony therefore regarded self-initiated extensive reading, for example, leisure reading, not necessary purposeful reading, as the most effective in learning English, because it provides language input that helps building other skills. In retrospect, Tony also associated this particular belief with his own learning experience. He recalled how desperately he wanted to read when he was in secondary school with no reading materials available in his village. While at university, with access to the library recourses, he became an avid reader and his English thus improved significantly. With this core belief, Tony admitted that it was his assumption derived from his learning experience, his reading of second language acquisition literature, and successful stories he heard from good readers.

This belief seemed to be contradictory to the communicative orientation which places language learning in a social context of interaction. Instead, it is a reflection of the Chinese characteristics of English teaching and learning during the 1990s and early 2000s, which placed an overwhelming emphasis on reading instruction. Such an emphasis implied an empiricist explanation assuming that language learning is a mechanical process of habit formation resulting from behavioral and conditioned responses with the target language (Johnson, 1992). Clearly Tony had benefited from this approach, but it had been generally criticized for manufacturing students with deaf and dumb English.

6.1.2.4 English learning relies on individual efforts

Throughout Tony's English learning journey, in which the traditional approach assumed prominence, English learning was mostly a solitary practice. Tony posited that language learning primarily relies on individual effort; in particular, the propositional knowledge of vocabulary and grammar should be absorbed by learners themselves and to excel in a language, individual students have to make continuous disciplined efforts. Teachers do not dictate the outcome of students' learning. Tony recognized classroom instruction was limited as the teacher and students only met once for two hours per week. Within the limits of a two-hour session, teachers usually had to spend a great deal of time on the textbook. Consequently, for Tony, the teacher's role is to motivate students and promote learning in the classroom setting, for example, helping them to appreciate that learning English is fun and useful, and may lead to a well-paid career, so the students become willing to invest time and effort in studying English out of class.

6.1.2.5 English learning is humanistic learning.

Tony held that a CE teacher's job was more than teaching the language. Central to Tony's role as a teacher was to make a difference in students' lives. It was also one of the major reasons that drove him to enter teaching. He recounted incidents in which students' life decisions were influenced by his teaching, from which he felt a strong sense of fulfillment. One of the incidents was before he became a CE teacher. He was substitute teaching in another tertiary institute. In class, he spoke about how university students should make use of their time and he encouraged the students to walk out of their hometown and explore a new life in a different part of the country. He drew on his own study experience in Guangzhou as an example. To his surprise, one of the students, a girl, eventually went to the south after graduation, and she wrote to Tony to thank him for the inspiration and opening her mind. In the first year of teaching at T University, Tony met a student who was obsessed with the internet and video games and never showed up in the class. Tony took the trouble to find the student in an attempt to talk him out of his addiction to computers, but the boy kept skipping classes. Despite the failure, Tony persisted in approaching students with a computer obsession. He was up-front with such students saying he was not trying to exert influence as a teacher but rather as an older brother talking about how to live a life in the university. His words touched some of the students' hearts and changed their behaviors. This belief is intimately related to his identifying himself as "an inspirational teacher" and was observed to be infused in Tony's teaching practice. Tony's anonymous class survey indicated that the majority students approved of this teaching style and many of them entitled him "the positive energy giver." (T-INT-1-28~31). Students' positive responses affirmed Tony's teaching conceptions and styles. Tony acknowledged the

importance of building a positive relationship with students which, he believed, outweighed a teachers' professional knowledge or expertise in the subject.

6.1.2.6 Summary of Tony's beliefs

Taken together, Tony's beliefs of language learning and teaching are a hybridization of both communicative and traditional conceptions. Tony's belief that language should be learned through use and his focus on fluency reflects the communicative orientation, but at the same time he saw the merits of both reading extensively and authentic communication in achieving language proficiency. Tony's belief that English reading is the foundation of other skills reflected the conditions of his own schooling experience when authentic English materials, especially audio and video materials were lacking and written texts were the only available resource for exposure to English. Growing up in the Chinese culture of learning and teaching which values self-study and individual effort, Tony's conception of English study is inevitably colored with Chinese characteristics. Tony understood the theoretical assumptions underpinning CLT and managed to reify his conceptions, understandings, and knowledge as an eclectic: CLT with a modicum of TA. His professional knowledge empowered him to justify his pedagogical beliefs and served as a source of confidence in his everyday teaching.

6.1.3 Challenges and Difficulties in Teaching

6.1.3.1 The students

The students constitute an important dimension in the teaching endeavor. Students' attitudes, motivations, voices, and their actions are in a dialogic interaction with the teachers. At the time of research Tony worked in a Tier 1 institution, and the students he worked with were advanced learners who had already attained a level of

language proficiency equivalent to CET-4 upon entering the university. Students were observed to participate actively in the classroom activities and demonstrate good behaviors. The students' language skills created conditions supporting communicative language teaching, but what Tony was concerned about was students' decreasing motivation for English learning, which he believed was associated with the entire institutional context.

6.1.3.2 *The institution*

T University was planning to reduce the credit hours for CE by 50%. Students were expected to take CE only in their freshman year. This change, from Tony's perspective, was suggesting to the students that English was not as important as the major courses. The overall institutional context was not in favor of CE and presented itself as a disabling discourse for CE teachers. Tony, through various motivating strategies, was making efforts to stimulate students' interest in an attempt to transform this disabling discourse into one more favorable to English learning.

6.1.3.3 *The curriculum*

Another factor hindering Tony's implementation of CLT was the adopted textbook. The textbook for Tony's practical reading course did not lend itself very well to an interactive communication-based teaching approach. Tony described the textbook as follows:

“The textbook is dull, containing only reading texts followed by comprehension questions. For example, there is a unit talking about menus and there is only one menu printed in the textbook; how were you supposed to approach that? I enriched the material by adding more information and sharing my life experience. I compared the

Chinese menus and Western menus, and narrated my own experience of eating at an Australian restaurant when I had no idea how to order. I made fun of myself and students all laughed about it. I then introduced entrees, the main course, and the dessert, and asked students to design their own menus, so students were all engaged. I like to use visuals, graphics, audio and video to bring students sensory learning experiences. When students saw the colorful images of dishes, they immediately became excited. I also talked about the sequence of eating at the buffet, relating to a popular blog post about how to pile up food in the stomach by layers. My approach is to inspire them.” (T-INT-1-6~10)

By shifting to the second person “you”—the generalized other, Tony was suggesting that what he was facing was not particular to him; it is a shared problem. Textbooks composed in a traditional format certainly posed a significant challenge for teachers if they insisted on teaching communicatively. As in Tony’s case, he felt the urge to make modifications rather than simply following the textbook. As described earlier, Tony enacted his agency to transform the disabling discourses. He supplemented background information, expanded students’ horizons, and designed activities to engage students in the learning processes.

6.1.4 Tony’s Practices

6.1.4.1 Sequence of teaching

According to Tony, this course was originally set up as an extensive reading course for provision of a large quantity of texts to increase students’ exposure to the language. Despite this good intention, *Extensive Reading* was the least popular course

and could easily bore students because it usually requires students to do independent silent reading in class without any interruption (Renandya, Hu, & Xiang, 2015). To address this deficiency inherent in the course format, Tony added much background information to extend the scope of teaching and to involve students in the discussion of the content to be taught. For instance, in the observed unit, Tony drew on his professional knowledge of composition and directed students to think about why they had to have main ideas in essays. He also introduced the five-paragraph essay to illustrate the importance of main ideas in organizing a coherent essay. Table 6.1 demonstrates the sequence of instructional activities Tony employed to teach the unit about identifying main ideas in various genres of texts. His teaching practices were classified according to Littlewood's (2004) *Continuum of Communicativeness of Activities* (see Table 4.4 in Chapter Four). The entire unit comprised two sessions over two weeks. The table shows Tony's allocation of time for different instructional activities. During a 90-minute session, Tony devoted the first half to addressing the content stipulated in the textbook. Approximately 30 minutes were given to the Book Flood activity. As an addition to the textbook, Tony self-financed the photocopying of 50 short stories and distributed copies to students. Students were asked to read stories in their spare time, present the stories to the whole class, and discuss their reading in groups. This activity was a manifestation of his belief that reading is of utmost importance among all language skills.

Table 6.1 *Sequence of Tony's Teaching Activities*

| | Unit Title: Main Ideas (Session 1: 100 minutes) | Time (mins) | Notes |
|---|---|-------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1 | Introducing the concept: Main Ideas. Asking questions to engage students in thinking about the topic—main idea. <i>Why is the main idea important and where to find it?</i> | 5 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 2 | Illustrating how to identify main ideas using the five-paragraph essay as an example. Bringing up related concepts: topic sentences, the introduction, the body, and the conclusion. | 12 | Teacher presentation |
| 3 | Guided practice (an example in the textbook). | 3 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 4 | Students working on exercises individually. Those who finished early or before class were asked to read the poem and discuss with other group members. | 20 | Non-communicative learning |
| 5 | Explaining the poem: Fueled (teacher-led whole class discussion). | 10 | Communicative language practice |
| | Intersession break | 10 | |
| 6 | Students presenting short stories (2). | 17 | Authentic communication |
| 7 | Students sharing stories within their groups (group discussion). | 10 | Authentic communication |
| 8 | Reading comprehension questions | 18 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 9 | Teaching vocabulary and vocabulary learning strategies. | 5 | Teacher presentation |

| | Unit: Main Ideas (Session 2: 100 minutes) | Time (mins) | Notes |
|---|--|-------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1 | Distributing ads (Boyfriend or Girlfriend Wanted) to each student; calling on students to stand up and read the ad to the class; asking students to evaluate the ad. | 15 | Structured communication |
| 2 | Initiating a discussion: how can you make your ads effective? Students contributing their views to the question. | 10 | Communicative practice |
| 3 | Leading students to skim classified ads in the textbook. Asking students to identify ads for different purposes, e.g., looking for jobs, accommodation, etc. | 15 | Structured communication |
| 4 | Explaining words in context. | 10 | Teacher presentation |
| | Intersession break | 10 | |
| 5 | Students presenting short stories (2). | 20 | Authentic communication |
| 6 | A writing task: composing ads according to the characteristics identified earlier. | 10 | Authentic communication |
| 7 | Vocabulary exercises: using context clues to figure out what the word means. | 10 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 8 | Vocabulary exercises: identifying synonyms in reading texts | 10 | Pre-communicative language practice |

6.1.4.2 Content, focus, and organization

6.1.4.2.1 Relating to real life

Tony's presentation of the material focused on making the content comprehensible, using English-only, and relating to students' real life experiences, such as creating an advertisement to look for boyfriends or girlfriends, and writing argumentative essays. When Tony was presenting to the class, he was trying to engage the whole class as a group, a teacher-guided group discussion. He seldom picked on individual students for answering questions. What characterized Tony's teaching was that he would spend time building students' background to arouse their interest in the topic. He also provided scaffolding when students had difficulty understanding the

content. There was no particular treatment of vocabulary or grammar in his teaching. Vocabulary was introduced in the flow of instruction. Tony would write the new words on the board or supply a Chinese equivalent when the concept was difficult to comprehend, for example, *genre*. Tony taught students to use context clues to figure out unknown words and introduced various techniques for vocabulary learning and memorization. When students were presenting or speaking, Tony never stopped them to correct mistakes. Students were encouraged to express their ideas freely in English. The following episodes demonstrate the characteristics of Tony's pedagogy. The first episode was teaching a poem, *Fueled*. According to Tony's knowledge of the students, the first seven reading exercises did not present any challenges to the students, except the poem. Poetry was a new genre so Tony decided to spend more time guiding students through the reading process of the poem to grasp the main idea.

Tony's approach was student-centered, focusing on provoking students' thinking. Tony first asked students to divide the poem into stanzas, and students were able to identify that the poem comprised two stanzas. Tony then discussed with the students the message the poem was conveying and the teacher and students together found there was a contrast between the two stanzas. Finally, he asked students to look at the last four lines and think about why the author arranged the four words as four individual words standing alone. He asked students to read aloud the last lines to experience the difference. Students figured out that the author was trying to emphasize that people rarely appreciate the power of nature. Tony further extended the discussion and gave another example of what he called "miracles of nature." He opened a discussion with students to talk about what they had discovered miracles of nature they probably had missed before. The open-ended dialogue between teacher and students, was a salient feature of Tony's teaching.

*Fueled
by a million
man-made
wings of fire—
the rocket tore a tunnel
through the sky—
and everybody cheered.*

*Fueled
only by a thought from God—
the seedling
urged its way
through the thickness of black—
and as it pierced
the heavy ceiling of the soil—
and launched itself
up into outer space—
no
one
even
clapped.*

*Write a sentence that explains the main idea of the
poem _____*

6.1.4.2.2 *Being inspirational*

The next episode (Excerpt 6.1) illustrated how Tony seized a teachable moment to affect students' attitude toward study and life, or what Tony described as teacher as a source of inspiration. The reading text appeared in the textbook. Students were asked to read and summarize it. Tony called on one student to give her answer. After that, Tony initiated a brief discussion with the students based on the main idea of the text.

Adapted from Wordplay: Ambigrams and Reflections on the Art of Ambigrams by John Langdon (New York: Harcourt Brace, 1992).

Through most of the time we are growing from infancy to adulthood, we are told that we have to do certain things: "You have to go to school," "You have to go to bed now." Most people seem to spend the rest of their lives thinking that they "have to" do the things that they do; "I have to do go work," "I have to go to the dentist." Initially, it may seem like mere rhetoric, but you don't have to do anything. Next time you find yourself on the verge of saying "I have to...", try replacing it by "I choose to...", "I want to ...," "I've decided to..." It's incredibly liberating! Reminding yourself that you do things by choice give you do the sense that you are in control of your life.

Write a sentence that express the main idea of the paragraph

Excerpt 6.1

Tony: How can you get control of your life?

SS: By changing the way we (?) (*students uttering different answers*).

Tony: =Speak. For example, in the morning, you say "I want to get up." In the afternoon, you say to yourself, "I want to go to the library; I want to study." In this way, you feel like you are in control of your life. Before you play computer games, you say "I have to play the computer games. Then you feel like you are pushed to play computer games. Eventually you will give it up. So by changing the way you say things, you change your mind-set. So next time, you come to class you say to yourself "I want to see Tony." Then you will be very happy to come to class.

6.1.5 Tony's Positioning and Identity

6.1.5.1 Selectively assimilating both pedagogical discourses

There is a distinction between language learning and teaching in Tony's cognitions. Tony positioned himself in between the two approaches which allowed him to evaluate both critically in relation to his own teaching context and be flexible in choosing what was appropriate for the purposes and students. Tony's beliefs and practices of language teaching showed a clear communicative orientation while, at the same time, his own learning experience suggested to him that learning a foreign language in the classroom is far from enough and that learning that takes place out of the classroom without the teacher's presence is probably more important. Tony recognized the virtues of both approaches as a result of reflection on his own learning experiences, which formed the basis of his pedagogy. In practice, Tony integrated both approaches with a communicative thrust. He transformed solitary individual reading into a book club scenario, providing students with opportunity to talk about what they had read, to engage them in authentic communication. Tony's integration of both approaches was a reflection of his efforts to teach creatively and he was engaged in the process of positioning through *appropriation* of some elements of both pedagogical approaches and *rejection* of others (Hermans & Hermans-Konopka, 2010).

6.1.5.2 Integrating both approaches: the third position

Tony's reading class is a coalition of two opposite approaches to reading instruction. An important part of his class routine was to complete what was prescribed in the book. As he saw it, the textbook itself was tedious. To enrich students' learning experience, Tony set students in the context of the required reading text, stimulating students' interest in the topics, before having students read the text carefully. The essential last step of his reading class, consistently, was to check the answers to the

exercises. Despite the fact that he personally disliked this, he felt obliged to do so because it was a curricular requirement as the exercises were designed as a form of assessment, and students would need these answers for the final test.

Tony's integrative pedagogical approach illustrated a reconciliation of two conflicting identities into a third position. He was seen performing the very traditional teaching procedures, like presenting to the whole class and checking students' answers, as well as highly interactive and communication-focused teaching activities, such as initiating an open discussion with students and having students read short stories for meaning and enjoyment. The notion of a third position helped Tony to mitigate the tension and conflict between traditional versus communicative dichotomy and such a position exerted a unifying influence on Tony's sense of self.

6.1.5.3 Developing a teacher-student relationship supportive of teaching

The observation showed students were active participants during the whole-group teaching and individual presentations. When Tony presented key concepts, introducing main ideas, students responded to his questions by voicing their opinions and views. During independent reading time, students followed his direction and read silently. When it came to presenting the short stories, class observation showed that students were cooperative and were keen to present their stories in front of the whole class. Presenters made attractive PowerPoint slides to accompany their oral speeches. Some students not only described the plots but also shared their questions, confusions, and thoughts. Through reading, students were also cognitively challenged, actively engaged in making meaning of the reading materials.

Through these activities, Tony was able to develop a close, collaborative relationship with his students. Tony found out, through students' anonymous responses

to class surveys, that the majority of his students liked his style of teaching and entitled him “the positive energy giver.” Tony extended his interaction with students beyond the classroom. He opened his blog to his students and welcomed students’ feedback. He was willing to be a friend to hear students’ voices and perspectives. Students’ positive responses helped retain Tony’s passion for CE teaching.

6.1.5.4 Transforming negative discourses

Tony perceived the outer context for CE was not all positive and supporting, for example, the traditional question-answer textbook, the unmotivated students, and the institutional atmosphere which undervalued CE. Instead of relinquishing his agency, Tony confronted these challenges, and was able to anchor his teaching in the identity as a motivator who provided continuous inspiration to students, to stimulate their interest in English, and to instigate their creativity through interacting with the target language.

Tony was enveloped in a matrix of disabling discourses. Rather than being controlled by these discourses, Tony managed to accommodate both orientations by attending to the humanistic nature of language learning. His beliefs included a focus on language use, relevance to real life, and personal development. Tony was engaged in ongoing professional development to expand his pedagogical repertoire, to enlarge his knowledge base, and to construct his professional identity. An inspirational CE teacher was a meta-position he crafted as he negotiated the multiple roles and interacted with contextual discourses. Meta-positioning allowed him to fulfill his role as a CE teacher, without exclusively submitting to one particular approach; he could have both this/and that, instead of either/or.

6.1.5.5 A coalition of multiple positions and meta-positioning

In his practice, Tony played multiple roles, or in other words he moved between a repertoire of positions. Approximately one third of the time, Tony was observed to present, explain the content, and interact with students in English through asking questions and eliciting responses from the students. His role was as a presenter, a guide, and a controller of the teaching activities and teacher-student interactions. When students were doing independent silent reading and exercises, Tony walked around the classroom to see if any students had difficulty or questions. After students finished the reading tasks and exercises, Tony brought the class back as a group and checked the answers to assess their learning and offer explanations when necessary. He was a facilitator of student learning. During the self-designed Book Flood activity, students were given the opportunity to present the stories they had read during the week. Tony sat in the audience listening to students' presentations, and asked questions as if he were a student himself. By becoming one of the students, Tony played the role as a co-communicator who was involved in the communication and negotiations of meanings. Throughout teaching, when the occasion arose, he would share life anecdotes in an attempt to influence students in a positive way. As they encountered a reading passage describing how people can change their attitudes by consciously using active verbs: "I want to... I like to..." Tony suggested students apply this method to English learning and change their way of talking about the CE class: I *want* to learn English; I *want* to finish the reading assignment. By doing this, Tony became what he called himself *an inspirational teacher*. Tony was skillful in using meta-positioning as an identity strategy to negotiate multiple and even conflicting social discourses. A meta-position, an observing ego or meta-cognition, leads to an evaluation of the reviewed positions and reaches an overarching view from which specific positions are considered in their

interconnections (Hermans & Hermans-Konopka, 2010). Through meta-positioning, Tony was able to coordinate and organize the various role identities and perform them accordingly in his teaching. By switching between role positions, Tony fulfilled his designated duties with respect to teaching the book, actualized his beliefs of helping students learn English, and realized his aspirations of being an inspirational teacher.

6.1.6 Case Summary

Tony's ideological becoming revolves around orchestrating multiple voices to develop his internally persuasive ones. This process is ongoing as Tony's experiences from the past and voices emergent at present dialogically interact with the discourses emanating from the curriculum, the students, and the broader institutional context. Tony, as shown in the case analysis, was able to sort out a position in between and among competing voices, and thus he consistently fleshed out his internally persuasive discourses in embodied multiple identities as an inspirational English teacher, a facilitator, and a book teacher. Understanding teacher thinking and identity from a dialogic perspective highlights the role of teacher agency. Instead of being subject to contextual discourses, Tony transcended some of the constraints by actively and consciously exercising agency and strategically positioning himself. The dialogic self is not a product of the social structure but, rather, it is active engagement in a reciprocal relationship of answering and being answerable to the social environment.

6.2 Nancy: My Style

"I think the students liked my class for the reason that I like to teach the language in the context and connect it with cultures. It's my style."

(N-INT-10-20~23)

6.2.1 Nancy's Profile

Nancy graduated with a master's degree in English and American Literature and then became a CE teacher in a Tier 2 institution. She spent most of her time teaching English Listening and Speaking to freshmen and sophomores in this university. It was her fifth year of teaching Listening and Speaking when the study took place. Nancy said her postgraduate study in English and American Literature did not have a direct impact on her pedagogy. Rather, she benefited significantly from the training she received from a program of teaching Chinese overseas and the subsequent experience of being a Chinese teacher to speakers of other languages in France.

6.2.2 Nancy's Beliefs: Function-Based Teaching and Cultural Integration

6.2.2.1 Language learning should be function-based.

First and foremost, Nancy believed English learning should focus on the function of the language. She expected the students to develop the ability and skills to use the language appropriately in different settings with some fluency. Accuracy or vocabulary was not a major concern. To increase students' language awareness was more important to Nancy. Clearly, Nancy's beliefs, or internally persuasive discourses, were communication-oriented. This conviction was a result of a dialogic interplay of multiple past discourses Nancy had experienced. Nancy had the opportunity to stay in France for two years. She said she had benefited from her experience of learning French in France. She found the French teaching methodology was more effective than the Chinese approach to teaching English. She was very satisfied with her achievement in acquiring French and compared it to most Chinese students' English learning experience. She said she had needed just two years to acquire a proficiency level that was commensurate to most Chinese high school students' English proficiency accomplished with at least six years of in-class instruction. She compared the French

method with the Chinese traditional way of English teaching and concluded that the French method, oriented toward improving communicative competence, was more effective.

“In China, teachers follow a textbook, while, in France, they don’t even have a textbook to guide instruction. However, students have ample opportunity to speak/practice around a particular language point. They encourage efforts in making up your own sentences to express ideas. You are not required to imitate templates or sample sentences. It is okay to make mistakes and you do not need to feel bad about it; while in the Chinese classrooms, you are required to memorize sentence patterns you probably will never have the chance to use. Unlike in the Chinese classrooms, utterances produced in the French class are highly relevant to realities. In contrast, Chinese students who can recite a big chunk of text, when confronted with a real life situation, do not know how to respond. They can recite from memory, but can’t talk. The Chinese students are trained to be parrots who can repeat and recite but if you change the wording, they don’t know how to respond.” (N-INT-1-29~32)

“It is a shame on the Chinese language teaching, as a whole, and a huge frustration on the students, to see that after more than 10 years of learning, students are still not able to use the language for daily conversations.” (N-INT-2-1~5)

Nancy’s experience of learning French prompted her to question the legitimacy of the predominant teaching method, the traditional (structural) grammar-focused way

of English teaching that dominated Chinese English education for decades. Nancy figured the Chinese method inhibited students thinking and creativity, which further resulted in an inability to create their own language output, while the French method excelled in its strong functionality. Nancy indicated that she had learned some teaching strategies from the French teachers. She also received systematic training in SLA and Chinese teaching and her practice of English teaching was informed by her Chinese teaching methodology as well.

6.2.2.2 Cultural immersion is essential in English learning.

For Nancy, another important aspect of the *College English* class was to integrate cultural learning into language instruction. She argued that culture is inseparable from the language so language cannot be taught without touching upon the embedded cultural knowledge and implications. Nancy was a traveler herself and had been to different countries which gave her the opportunity to experience the various cultures in person. Sharing these experiences with her students by retelling them or presenting them in English, Nancy found cultural learning can be both stimulating and informative.

“I have been to the UK, so when the lesson has a part involving the UK, I will tell them what I have experienced and students love that. In one of our lessons, there was a video clip about greetings and some foreigners used kisses as greetings. I elaborated on that point because I knew about the French culture. Students liked such things. It’s a motivator for students because they feel it is fun and interesting. Once they become interested in the foreign cultures, they will need to learn English to know more about them, so it creates an internal and

instrumental drive for English learning that goes beyond the classroom.” (N-INT-2-8~13)

6.2.2.3. Fluency and accuracy are both desired.

Nancy expected her students to pay attention to the form of their sentences, but they were allowed to have variations in wording. She would lead students to read aloud new vocabulary in class and correct students’ mispronunciations. Nancy liked to provide alternative expressions to expand students’ language repertoire and explain the context in which these expressions are applicable. It seemed that Nancy expected students to achieve both fluency and accuracy.

“Some people think leading students to read aloud is silly, but I think it is very important. Lots of students have pronunciation issues they are unaware of. If the teacher ignores them, they will carry them for the rest of their lives. When they have the chance to speak, pronunciation errors make their speeches unintelligible so the communication is hindered. It will cause students’ self-doubt and make them feel embarrassed or shamed.” (N-INT-5-27~29)

6.2.2.4 Summary of Nancy’s beliefs

Nancy’s internally persuasive discourses were evidently experience-driven. Reflecting on and making sense of the various discourses she had experienced was an important part of her professional input. Nancy came to believe in a communication-based approach of language teaching not through professional training, but through her first-hand experience of being taught and teaching with both traditional approaches and communicative approaches. Her English learning was predominantly imbued with memorization of rules, vocabulary and sentence patterns. However, it proved to be less

effective than the function-based approach she experienced when she learned French in France. Nancy then became convinced of the superiority of the communicative approach. The authoritative discourse became internally persuasive discourses through assimilation.

6.2.3 Challenges and Difficulties in Teaching

6.2.3.1 The students

The first challenge was the class size. Managing a class of over 60 students was not easy. Nancy used a number of strategies to hold students responsible for their learning. She would come to class at least five minutes early to take the roll call. She told students that they should be serious about the English class and Nancy as the teacher expected them to attend the class and display good learning behaviors. At the beginning of the class, she also spent some time to catch up with students to know more about students' life, interest and concerns. Nancy believed that by engaging in these actions the students were more likely to cooperate and discipline themselves.

The students in Nancy's class had been placed at the basic level when they first entered the university. After being with Nancy for over a year by the time the study took place, Nancy had built rapport and a close relationship with the students. She remembered almost all of the students' names and knew their seating preferences. Nancy did not feel students' language proficiency was an obstacle in carrying out her teaching. This issue had been well compensated for by her knowledge of the students.

Nancy believed that the core of the speaking and listening class was to provide students with the opportunity to speak, to interact with English, but the reality made this difficult to achieve. To make sure each student could get a chance to speak, she

rewarded students' participation by giving them bonus points. In the observed lessons, most students were attentive to the lesson and were active participants in class activities.

“The biggest challenge for the Listening and Speaking class is to provide students with enough opportunity to practice. Class time is very limited and the class is too big. I have to design activities that require them to practice after class. I ask each of them to present at least twice for each semester. I will come up with a topic or an activity related to each unit and give instructions at the end of the first session of the unit. If they are interested they will raise their hands and then they go and prepare for it and come back next week to present or act in front of the class. If they volunteer to answer questions or participate in activities like acting out a dialogue or something, I will give them bonus points. When a holiday is approaching, I might also give out treats, snacks and chocolate, as rewards for participation and class contribution.” (N-INT-9-27~29)

6.2.3.2 The textbook

The textbook adopted for Listening and Speaking in S University was *New Standard College English: Real Communication Listening and Speaking* published by Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press. Content was organized around different real-life topics, such as careers, fashions, etc. The textbook was designed with a communicative orientation in mind, so it prescribed a number of pair or group activities. However, Nancy needed to be selective in choosing what content to be addressed in the limited time available. Nancy was always pressured by the amount of content to be covered in limited instructional time. She sometimes had to cut down

student-centered activities to ensure coverage of the content teaching prescribed in the textbook.

6.2.4 Nancy's Practices

6.2.4.1 Sequence of teaching

Nancy taught Listening and Speaking to sophomores. She normally began her lesson with a brief conversation with the students to talk about what had happened during the past week. This short catch-up helped students to warm up and transition from Chinese to English. Nancy usually spent about 10 minutes on this and then moved on to the lesson. Table 6.2 shows how Nancy organized her teaching within a typical instructional unit in Listening and Speaking lessons.

Table 6.2 *Sequence of Nancy's Teaching Activities*

| | Unit Title: Nine to Five (Session 1:100 minutes) | Time (mins) | Notes |
|---|--|-------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1 | Taking the roll call before class begins; checking students' work. | 7 | Management Routine |
| 2 | Catching up with students; asking students what they had done in the summer holiday; walking around the classroom to check students' work. | 13 | Authentic communication |
| 3 | Introduction: Nine to Five. Building background, teaching the phrase <i>nine-to-five</i> . | 3 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 4 | Refreshing students' memory and recapping the main characters in the textbook, their majors and future plans. | 6.5 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 5 | Students discussing in groups about their individual ambitions. | 5 | Authentic communication |
| 6 | Teacher calling on students to talk about their ambitions and how to achieve these ambitions. | 11 | Structured communication |
| 7 | Students watching a dialogue about Janet's and Joe's future plans (first listening). | 5 | Listening |

| | | | |
|----|--|----|--|
| 8 | Teacher checking students' listening comprehension by asking them to complete a checklist. Intersession break | 5 | Structured communication |
| 9 | Second listening and leading students to repeat some key sentences: <i>What a wonderful view!</i> Explaining the emotions and context when the speaker said this. Applying sentence structures to the local context: <i>e.g., Do you have any plans when you finish at T University?</i> | 30 | Non-communicative learning and communicative language practice |
| 10 | Comprehension exercises: students standing up and reading aloud the items one by one. | 10 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 11 | Giving assignments | 5 | |

| | Unit Title: Nine to Five (Session 2:100 minutes) | Time (mins) | Notes |
|---|---|-------------|---|
| 1 | Checking attendance and students' homework. | 3 | Management Routine |
| 2 | Exercises in the textbook; explaining words and phrases and illustrating how to use them by making up sentences. | 8 | Teacher presentation |
| 3 | Everyday English: matching expressions with their meanings in the dialogue. | 10 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 4 | A stock-take of useful expressions related to the unit (students making up dialogue). Having students make their own sentences using the expressions: <i>Speculate about the future, think of, etc.</i> | 10 | Communicative language practice |
| 5 | Job interview: vocabulary teaching Synonyms and derivatives: graduation, extrovert, people person, etc. | 7 | Teacher presentation |
| 6 | Appropriate job interview attire | 9 | Teacher presentation |
| 7 | Students watching an interview counselling session: <i>What are the standard questions at an interview?</i> Intersession break | 10 | Listening/Communicative language practice |

| | | | |
|----|---|----|-------------------------------------|
| 8 | Watching a job interview and asking students to summarize the key points. The purpose was to show students how to respond to interview questions, using descriptive details and examples instead of vague, abstract adjectives. | 5 | Communicative language practice |
| 9 | Students acting out an interview. Explaining how to address these standard interview questions. | 10 | Structured communication |
| 10 | A stock-take of useful expressions related to job interviews. | 8 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 11 | Students' presentations (5): Future Plans or Ambitions. Teacher commenting on each presentation and asking questions. | 20 | Authentic communication |

6.2.4.2 Content, Focus and Organization

6.2.4.2.1 Managing big classes

Nancy had a very big class with over 60 students packed into the classroom. Students arrived before time; some were chattering and others were previewing the lesson or reading aloud the text. Nancy walked up the aisles, glancing at students and having a couple of words with them. By doing this, she was checking if students had done their work and at the same time touching base with students, showing her care for them and endeavoring to bridge the gap between teacher and students. After checking on students' work, Nancy began to take the roll call to check students' attendance. Nancy found it helped her to manage the big class and to get to know students through checking attendance on a regular basis.

6.2.4.2.2 Connecting English to students' life

Nancy felt comfortable speaking English all the time to her students while teaching and only used Chinese occasionally when students had difficulty in understanding. Nancy's teaching was closely related to students' real life situations.

Because the class only met once every week, she normally opened up with a brief conversation with the whole class to get students to talk about what had happened during the past week. She took it as a good opportunity to involve students in authentic communications. Excerpt 6.2 captured the interaction between Nancy and students and how she used this opening conversation as a teachable moment to reinforce students' acquired vocabulary.

Excerpt 6.2

Nancy: Welcome back to the new semester. First, you are not a freshman any more, right? You see the freshmen on campus, in the military training, right? You may feel a little bit different, a little bit mature, after a long summer vacation. Grew up? Yes?

SS: Yes.

Nancy: You are not a freshman anymore. Second year, you are 二年级 {sophomore}.

SS: (*students uttering the word*).

Nancy: (*Writing "sophomore" on board*). Read it, sophomore.

SS: so-pho-more- (*trying to sound it out*)

Nancy: Now you are a sophomore, next year you are a junior and the last year a senior. So you have four years' undergraduate study and then you will get your bachelor's degree (*writing "bachelor's" on board*). Okay. In this long summer vacation, any of you studied a little bit of English? Read something? Tried to remember those words or read a novel to enjoy yourself? Have you done something like this? Yes, or no? anyone? Tian-tong (pseudonym)?

S1: No. (*students laugh*).

Nancy: What did you do then?

S1: Watched movies.

Nancy: Which one impressed you most?

S1: 猩球崛起 {Rise of the Planet of Apes}.

Nancy: Was it a Chinese movie or an English movie? How do you say it in English?

S1: I don't know the English name.

Nancy: Rise of the Planet of Apes. A very famous one, but I haven't seen it. Anyone else? Watched dramas or TV series and know the name. Wang-ping? What did you do?

S2: I watched 连续剧 {TV series}. Under the Dome.

Nancy: Very good. Under the Dome? Did you like it? Why?

S2: I liked the police...

Nancy: Was it a detective story?

S2: Yes... 它是那种悬疑片 {It's a suspense drama}.

Nancy: Do you remember the word we learned? At the end of each episode, there must be some suspense that drew us to follow up. What do we call it? (*writing "cliffhanger" on the board*). Cliff is 悬崖 (underlining cliff), just stopped there and then if you want to find out what will happen, you have to follow up. Okay, very good. Let's come back to our book.

This episode illustrates how Nancy attempted to meld English learning with student's life. It has been a fashion for young people in China to follow English/American drama and movies on the internet. With both Chinese and English captions, the video has become a good resource for English learners. Nancy herself was also a fan of American drama and movies. While she was catching up with students, students mentioned that they watched drama or movies in the holidays. Nancy took this opportunity to push them to talk more about the topics of their interest, engaging them in real-life conversations. She also made connection to what had been taught previously, like learning the word *cliffhanger*, to refresh their memories.

6.2.4.2.3 Relating structure to communicative function

Another key feature of Nancy's functional pedagogy is to relate structure to communicative function. She would contextualize the language and ask students to

practice responses which would be realistic ways of performing useful communicative acts in situations. Excerpt 6.3 illustrates Nancy's approach.

Excerpt 6.3

Nancy: "He has a different agenda. What's the meaning? Agenda in Chinese?"

SS: 议程 {agenda} [students answering in Chinese].

Nancy: 议程, but you can't translate into 他有不同的议程 {He has a different agenda as for a meeting.} (3.5). It means he agrees with you or disagrees with you?

SS: Disagrees with you.

Nancy: It means he has different priorities. Tonight, I'd like to go out with you, for example. And then you want to go to the restaurant first but I want to, maybe go shopping first. Then we can say we have different agendas. Continue, next one. Sometimes I don't think his heart is in his job. What's the meaning?

SS: (?) [students uttering individual answers].

Nancy: "Your heart is in your job" means (2) you put efforts into you job. I can ask you "Is your heart in our class?"

SS: Yes.

Nancy: Definitely yes. Next, translate the sentence into Chinese.

6.2.5 Nancy's Positioning and Identity

6.2.5.1 Disapproval of traditionalism

Nancy disapproved of the Chinese teaching traditions and believed that the Chinese teaching model was destructive and restricted students' creativity. From her perspective, the Listening and Speaking class should equip students with the linguistic resources they could use in everyday life. The focus of traditional Listening and Speaking lessons was to have students listen to the recordings multiple times, repeat each sentence from the recording, and then memorize some or all of the scripts. Nancy found mechanical training as such failed to prepare students for real life communications. Nancy observed that the traditional approach was responsible for producing students with deaf and dumb English—students with years of English

learning experiences who were able to recite chunks of text and dialogues but unable to give appropriate responses when encountering foreigners. On the contrary, Nancy's pedagogy included a focus on language function and contextualization. Even when she asked students to repeat sentences from the video clip, she was not aiming for mechanical oral repetition. She would ask students to apply the sentence in the local context or to their lives.

6.2.5.2 Multiplicity of Nancy's Roles

Nancy believed that the key role of EFL teachers in tertiary settings was to provide students with the environment, the opportunity and methods for English learning, rather than modeling pronunciations and correcting language errors. Nancy found students possessed the necessary self-learning abilities when they entered universities, so teachers' guidance and encouragement were more important than the teaching of discrete linguistic knowledge like grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

My observation of Nancy's classroom teaching revealed that Nancy switched between multiple roles. For most of the time, she acted as an organizer and a learning facilitator. She tried to engage students in the learning process by arranging different kinds of activities. For instance, in a review activity, students were asked to work in pairs and make up dialogues using the words and expressions covered in the observed unit. Nancy also explained the language points, useful expression and elaborated on when and where these expressions were used. She played the role of motivator for learning, while being strict with students and checking their homework to make sure they had accomplished what was expected. Students were active participants in all kinds of activities. They were attentive, following Nancy's directions, taking detailed notes, and completing assignments on time. Students said they enjoyed the Speaking and

Listening class, and were willing to review the words and practice listening after class (NSTU-INT-1).

6.2.5.3 Maintaining a balance between being a friend while being strict with students

“I strive to be someone that the majority loves to be with in class. I don’t like to keep a distance away from my students, not to play an authoritative role at all. Despite that fact that we only meet two hours per week, I am very interested in what they are thinking about this course, what their life is like out of class, their perceptions on other issues, all sorts of things. I want them to like me so they will like my class.” (N-INT-4-25~37)

Nancy emphasized that teachers would not be effective with expertise only. The intimacy creates the bond and melts down the barrier between the teacher, the content to be taught, and the receivers. During the early stages of her teaching career, Nancy often invited students to come to her apartment for dinner. She described this kind of communication was more of a peer interaction and their topics covered a range of shared interests besides English learning. Because of this informal out-of-class contact and communication Nancy found that students were very cooperative and behaved well in her class.

“I think the friendship was at work. Because they took me as their friend, they did not want to let me down or fail me. It really worked well for those years. I had a class of over 30 students of whom only eight were male. Four of the males were very close to me. Normally they were the lowest performers in class because they were really not

into English at all, whereas in my class, they were the most active and committed students. They sat in the first row, listened carefully, and responded actively. I think it was the student-teacher bond that we created after class that made it happen.” (N-INT-5-1~14)

Nancy had a much busier life schedule to juggle at the time of interview than previously and, therefore, she did not have students come for dinner any more. She still used other ways to develop and maintain her contact with students. The main reason for this, she said, is that teachers’ attitude towards students matters. She believed if teachers show that they care about students and respect them, the students will do the same. During a break in the class, I saw a male student come to Nancy for a brief talk. Nancy told me later that he said he was not comfortable being teased by Nancy and other fellow students even if it was an innocuous joke. Nancy apologized to him and admitted that she was not aware of this. She told me that although she did not mean any harm, she still felt sorry that her behavior had caused any discomfort for this student. Nancy promised it would not happen again. This student, at an interview conversation, said he liked Nancy’s class.

6.2.6 Case Summary

Nancy’s ideological becoming pivoted on her reflection on her foreign language learning experiences. In particular, her successful learning experience of French was central to the development of her internally persuasive discourses regarding language learning and teaching. Nancy’s beliefs focusing on the function of English were held with strong conviction, whereas the Chinese traditional approaches to language teaching were thought to be rigid, inflexible and ineffective to prepare students for the demands of the increasingly international context. Through self-reflection, Nancy was able to take a broader position (meta-position) from which a range of other positions,

that is, a traditional language teacher, a friend, and a class manager, were considered. Meta-positioning made it possible for her to see the linkages between positions as part of her personal history or the collective history of her and her students. Among the available positions, Nancy prioritized her identity as a learning guide and facilitator whose main responsibility lay in providing guidance, recourses, and opportunities as opposed to teaching the specifics of language knowledge. Her appropriation of positions was aligned with her internally persuasive discourses, and correspondingly, she fleshed out these identity positions in her teaching practice.

6.3 Sunny: An Identity Seeker/Drifter

“It had been quite a long time since I had my last College English class, so when I started teaching, I had no idea how to plan my lessons...I used to...not focusing on vocabulary or grammar but focusing on reading comprehension. Later on, I found students preferred rote memory of the glossary. If I don’t spend time on vocabulary, it’s like they have never attended the English class...Their writing is another serious issue...They thought their writing was good but I could not agree. I am trying to identify their weaknesses in English and treat them accordingly... Up till now, I haven’t established a pedagogical style of my own; I am still in the search of a consistent teaching style.”

(S-INT-1-13~18)

6.3.1 Sunny’s Profile

With a bachelor’s and a master’s degree in Marketing, Sunny had studied for four years in New Zealand and the United Kingdom. At the time of study, Sunny was in her fourth year of teaching *College English* in this national key university. She had

mostly taught Listening and Speaking to students majoring in Management and Economics, a group of high-performers, according to their entrance English scores in this university. This year, Sunny was taking students of Computer Science and Software Engineering, whose English levels were below those of Management and Economics majors. The course modules changed to a single integrated one, with two separate courses combined into one.

6.3.2 Sunny's Beliefs: Teaching *How* Rather Than *What*

6.3.2.1. Teaching students “*how*” rather than “*what*.”

Sunny considered that pointing out the many alternative ways of learning English carried more meaning than merely teaching the content of the textbook. As a result, she started each semester with an introductory lesson of methods and approaches to learning English. During summer or winter breaks, she would refer to well-known IETLS tutors' video lessons to enrich her own teaching repertoire. Sunny believed the maxim, “give a man a fish and you feed him for a day; teach a man to fish and you feed him for a lifetime.”

“My perception of the College English teacher's job is to inform students as to how the language works and how it should be learned. I see students tend to memorize the spelling and meaning of an unknown word without considering the context and usage. It's not going to work. I would like to tell them in class, for example, how to study new vocabulary, or practice listening skills, and expect them to follow my procedure after class and practice it by themselves after class.” (S-INT-6-13~19)

This philosophy was largely informed by her own English learning experience in university. During her first two years in the Chinese university, she had attended English courses such as Integrated English and Intensive Reading, but she said neither of the teachers had ever taught her the method of studying English. In spite of her keen interest in English and a strong desire to improve her English after class, she had no idea about “how” to achieve this. While she was in the darkness fumbling forward, she assumed her English would get better once she arrived in the partner university in New Zealand, an English-speaking country. Soon after she arrived in New Zealand, she realized being placed in an English-speaking environment did not necessarily dictate a very quick and easy acquisition of the language. She remembered she had gone through a quite long period of walking in the darkness which she termed as a time of “freaking out” (*S-INT-2~11*). This experience had a profound influence in shaping her beliefs as an EFL teacher.

For Sunny, teaching students how to use English to think and express their ideas in spoken and written form involved much more deep-structure learning than surface learning of language forms. In addition to an emphasis on context, Sunny contended that students should be informed about the cultural difference between the western and eastern thinking patterns and how such differences influence the organization of ideas and the use of the language.

6.3.2 2. Making class engaging and informative for students.

Sunny’s school learning experience was not particularly exciting. When asked to recall her initial experience of English learning, she was mostly impressed by the grammar teaching in middle and high school. It was an old-fashioned but endemic way of teaching. Teachers explained each grammar point with examples and students took

careful notes, followed by drills. So when Sunny began her teaching career in T university, she made every effort to make her lessons appealing to her students.

Ever since she took up this teaching position, Sunny had always felt a sense of inadequacy in terms of a knowledge base for teaching English. Although she had a good level of English proficiency, she understood that knowing a language does not mean knowing how to teach this language. Her initial years of teaching were characterized by struggles in planning lessons because her previous exposure to EFL classes was minimal. She wanted her lessons to be both interesting and informative for students, but to reach a balance and achieve both was challenging for her, an inexperienced EFL teacher. She remembered that her first two years were the most painful. Trying to make the lesson fun, Sunny would look all over the internet for visuals and videos. “I found it was even more tiring than writing a thesis” (*S-INT-1~10*), Sunny recalled. However, before long Sunny came to a realization that what students can take from lessons was more important than fun. Sunny’s personal experience as an English learner had strong influences on her teaching beliefs which were still developing and shifting at the time of interview.

6.4.3.3. English should be taught as integrated skills.

Sunny held that the four areas of English skills were all related. When she planned her lesson, she created a range of listening, speaking, reading and writing activities around the unit theme or topic, so as to give students enough language exposure and input and the opportunity to produce language output. This belief was reflected in her efforts to address students’ deficiency in writing. She remembered when she was studying abroad, the academic writing course she took was highly significant for her undergraduate and postgraduate study.

“Writing in English is quite different from writing in Chinese. Students need to be taught the western thinking logic to present arguments and organization of written text. I have seen Chinese students without such training struggle with writing when they studied overseas. I want my students to be able to write in a way consistent with that of a native speaker.” (S-INT-5-1~5)

Sunny therefore spared no effort in helping students to become competent English writers. She believed that the EFL teaching culminated in students’ acquisition of expressive skills, in particular good writing skills which were essential for them to pursue further study. Unlike most other teachers who did not want to touch upon writing or invest much time in teaching students how to write, Sunny spent a significant portion of instructional time in teaching students the process of writing and had students practice writing in class to avoid copying and plagiarism. When she taught the reading text, she asked students to place themselves in the author’s position and to understand the ways in which the author organized the text to fulfill a particular purpose. For each unit, she planned a writing assignment to give students opportunities to practice writing. She adopted a process writing approach to allow students to edit their drafts multiple times, based on peers’ feedback and the teacher’s feedback. She also provided individualized feedback face-to-face or in small groups to treat each student’s unique problems. Although her approach was time-consuming and was not well received initially by the students, Sunny found, in the long term, that her approach had helped change students’ conceptions of English writing and it was constructive in developing good English writing skills in students.

6.3.3 Challenges and Difficulties in Teaching

6.3.3.1 *The students*

The first challenge Sunny encountered in her teaching career, which influenced her decision-making in planning and implementation, was the students' characteristics and learning styles. Sunny had taught students from different programs of study and she found their levels of English abilities varied significantly, and such characteristics may change from year to year. For example, when Sunny used English in class, students majoring in management had no difficulty following her, but students of computer science were not able to comprehend well. The fact that they were less competent in English, Sunny found, was also attributable to students' previous learning experiences.

“We played a vocabulary game to check their vocabulary. The students knew the words but were not able to sound them out. Later on, I found out the reason: this group of kids did not have a listening section in the university entrance exams so they were doing deaf-and-dumb English at the secondary school. They were not able to comprehend what I was saying in the class. When I said ‘spice’, they had no idea what I was talking about. I realized the severity of the problem and decided to bring the tape to the class and have them hear the pronunciations and read after the tape. It’s not what I wanted to teach in College English but I can’t ignore it.” (S-INT-6-2~12)

She found that students had an ingrained attachment to memorization of vocabulary. A common practice of vocabulary study was to go through the glossary at the back of textbook to memorize the spelling and pronunciation of each word. This practice was developed through years of schooling from primary school up to high school, and students had already taken it for granted. “I used to focus on the text, no

emphasis on vocabulary or grammar. Later on, I found students tend to refer to the glossary to study vocabulary. If I don't go through the new words with them, the words are like strangers to them as if they have never met them in class." (S-INT-1-14~18) Knowing students' study habit, Sunny set aside a time to help students go through the new words (a procedure including sounding them out, explaining the meanings and uses and providing sample sentences).

6.3.3.2 The curriculum

Another significant challenge emerged from Sunny's narratives was lack of consistency in curriculum focus. Sunny recalled in her first year of teaching, that there was an emphasis on speaking and listening skills in alignment with the national *College English Curriculum Requirement*, and speaking and listening were separated from reading and writing. Later, nobody ever mentioned such an emphasis and the course book was replaced by *Integrated English* and it kept changing every year. Sunny complained that she had never repeated her teaching plans and each semester meant a new round of planning for her. At the time of study, Sunny was teaching *Integrated English*. The challenge was to figure out a way to integrate different skills into the teaching of the textbook.

As to the content, apart from the required reading text prescribed in the course book, teachers were given flexibility to determine the content for teaching speaking, listening and writing. Sunny took advantage of the autonomy and integrated all skill training into the teaching of reading. She adopted a task approach and created instructional activities around the unit topic. What students heard, talked about, read, and wrote about were all related to the unit topic.

6.3.3.3 The institution and department

Sunny received no teacher training and she had not taken any courses on language teaching methods. Lack of professional knowledge was one of the major obstacles throughout her teaching career. When Sunny was offered her current position, she thought she was going to teach courses related to commerce or marketing, her major. When she found out she was going to teach *College English*, she began to search for information regarding language teaching methods. When she turned to the director of her Teaching Office for help, the director said the department did not have induction for new teachers and suggested asking experienced teachers for permission to observe their lessons. She found observing colleagues' classes was very helpful to get herself on track because it gave her a clear idea of what teaching CE was like. Sunny then appropriated different colleague's teaching methods to develop her own way.

The department held an annual teaching competition to provide an opportunity for collegial sharing. Sunny had participated twice and won awards in the competitions. More importantly, she enjoyed the opportunity to learn from peers and was excited when she learned some new ideas about teaching. In addition, she turned to the Internet to search for inspiration. For example, she learned how to teach writing as a process through watching the tutorial from a well-known IETLS tutor of the New Oriental School, a very popular private language school. Although Sunny had developed significantly professionally from a novice teacher to one of the model teachers in her department, she still felt a need for continuing professional development, and she wished the department could make such help available for all teachers.

6.3.4 Sunny's Practices

6.3.4.1 Sequence of teaching

Sunny's course was called *Integrated English*, in which she was responsible for integrating all four skills into her lessons. However, the course book, published by Tsinghua University Press, *New Era Interactive English: Reading, Writing and Translation*, was oriented towards the teaching of reading, writing, and translation skills. Without any specific instructions as to how to integrate different skills, Sunny had to figure out her own way of teaching *Integrated English*. For each unit, based on a given topic, Sunny created different listening, speaking, reading, and writing tasks. Her sequence of teaching for a unit is shown in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3 *Sequence of Sunny's Teaching Activities*

| | Unit Title: Population and Immigration (Session 1: 90 minutes) | Time (mins) | Notes |
|---|---|----------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1 | Showing visuals/pictures related to the topic and discussing about these pictures. | 7 | Structured communication |
| 2 | A compound dictation: why people immigrate or emigrate (filling in the missing words by listening to a short passage)? | 10 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 3 | An activity: interview with four students to find out if they want to emigrate to a foreign country and the reasons. | 12 | Authentic communication |
| 4 | Students reporting their findings and teacher writing them under two categories: challenges and benefits. Intersession break | 11 | Authentic communication |
| 5 | Introducing a strategy for word study: collocations and context. | 5 | Teacher presentation |
| 6 | Explicating individual words by focusing on their use. | 23 | Non-communicative learning |
| 7 | Students practicing pronunciation of each word. | 8 | Non-communicative language practice |
| 8 | Vocabulary game | 10 | Pre-communicative language learning |

| | Unit Title: Population and Immigration (Session 2: 90 minutes) | Time (mins) | Notes |
|---|---|----------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1 | Review group activity: vocabulary Three students in a group: one student sounding out the word, one telling the meaning, and the other making a sentence. | 8 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 2 | Teacher presentation on how to identify the purpose for reading and applying appropriate reading strategies (skimming, scanning, and rereading). | 8 | Non-communicative language learning |
| 3 | Guided practice: students reading two sample paragraphs to identify the main idea. | 5 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 4 | Leading students to skim the text to identify the topic sentences for each paragraphs and the organization of the text. Directing students' attention to how the text was organized and written in contrast to how the students normally wrote. | 7 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 5 | Detailed reading: focusing on how to expand the main ideas and give supporting details. Intersession break | 22 | Structured communication |
| 6 | Using the first paragraph as a model to illustrate how to develop a topic sentence by classification and division and asking students to write their own paragraphs based on this model. | 13 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 7 | Explicating the text sentence by sentence and pointing out idiomatic expressions and useful collocations. | 30 | Non-communicative learning |
| 8 | Assignment: A writing task <i>An increasing number of students choose to go to another country for higher education. Do you think the benefits outweigh the problems?</i> | 7 | |

6.3.4.2 Content, focus and organization

6.3.4.2.1 Task-based approaches for skill integration

Sunny's lesson was organized by many student-centered tasks or activities through which Sunny incorporated listening, speaking, reading, and writing into her teaching of the unit. She began with building a background by relating the recent

emigration of Chinese people to foreign lands. While showing slides of visuals or pictures, Sunny prompted students to brainstorm the reasons why people decided to leave their county to emigrate. She also reinforced vocabulary related to the topic: immigration, emigrate, resident, descent, social advantages, bilingual, etc. She then had students listen to a short audio clip and fill in the blanks of a paragraph. In the audio, the speaker enumerated the reasons that caused immigration and concerns arising from immigration. Next, students were asked to move around the classroom and interviewed four other students to find out peers' attitudes toward emigration and the underlying reasons. Many students were energized when they were given the permission to walk around and talk to other students in English, in particular the male students. The female students seemed to be sedentary so Sunny talked to them and encouraged them to do the interview task. Ten minutes later, Sunny asked volunteers to report their findings. She wrote *Challenges and Benefits* as headings and listed students' findings into the two categories. In the end, Sunny led students to categorize the reasons for emigration or staying home, for example, economic reasons, religious reasons, etc. The first half session of lead-in took about 45 minutes.

6.3.4.2.2 *An emphasis on collocations and contexts*

The second half session focused on vocabulary, introducing new words which appeared in the text. In alignment with her core belief, she introduced different vocabulary learning strategies as she was teaching them. Opposing the rote memorization of words as isolated words, she pointed out the significance of collocations and the context, and she also asked students to focus on one or two meanings instead of trying to memorize all meanings at a time. She spent approximately 23 minutes going through the new words and explained each of them in some detail. Excerpt 6.4 illustrates her approach to teaching vocabulary.

Excerpt 6.4

Sunny: Have a look at the first word: motivation. You know the word, right? What does it mean?

SS: 动机. [Chinese translation]

Sunny: Yes, what causes you to do something, right? Motivation **for** doing something (*writing the phrase on board*). What is your motivation for being a teacher? 你的积极性, 你的动力所在 {It is the eagerness, willingness to do something without being told to do so}. In Organizational Behavior, we say how to improve employees' motivation. This is how I want you to study and memorize the new word. 你不要只知道 motivation 是 动机 {You don't just associate motivation with the Chinese equivalent}. 你要记住 improve motivation, that's fine {You should remember improve motivation, that's fine}.

The second strategy Sunny emphasized was to sound out words. As she explained the words, she asked students to follow her, to sound them out and to hear the words. She used an example from life experience to convince students that they needed to build a connection between the written symbol and the sound. This act was Sunny's response to try to counter their acquiring deaf and dumb English, a challenge she described in interviews.

6.3.4.2.3 Integrating reading and writing

Sunny's teaching of reading also reflected her philosophy of teaching how to learn English. She not only taught students reading strategies but also directed students to pay attention to how the author organized and used the language to express ideas. She started to have students think about the purpose for reading and different reading techniques: skimming, scanning, and rereading. She first guided students to skim the text to identify the organization of the passage (topic sentences) and transitional words. The second read focused on specific details, how to expand ideas. She drew students' attention to how the author used English in writing and contrasted this with how

Chinese students would write. As she read through the text with the students, she highlighted some sentence patterns and asked students to emulate. Here is an example Sunny showed students how to develop a topic sentence by classification and division.

There are many reasons why someone leaves his or her homeland to live in another country. For some, the decision is economic, they believe that they may have better opportunities to make more money in another place. For others, the motivation is adventure, wanting to try something very different in life. Still others immigrate to a new country because they think that the values of that country might better suit their own ideals.

Students were asked to write sentences of their own following this template.

There are many reasons why Chinese students dream of pursuing their studies in America. For some _____.
For others, _____.
Still others _____.

The last feature of Sunny's practice was using translation and contrastive analysis to help students increase their language awareness. Traditionally, teachers frequently used translation to help students comprehend the reading text in the target language. Sunny found, through her own English learning experience, that using translation in tandem with contrastive analysis not only helped comprehension but also improved language awareness. Therefore, in her practice, she would highlight collocations and supply a Chinese translation to reinforce students' memory and would encourage students to use them in their own writing. For example, in the observed unit, she asked students to underline or highlight the following collocations in the reading text, such as *lasting benefits*, *leave the familiar behind*, and *carve out a new future*, and translated them into Chinese equivalents.

6.3.5 Sunny's Positioning and Identity

6.3.5.1 Swinging between two approaches

Sunny's internally persuasive discourses about language teaching included a focus on language function and context which was in alignment with CLT. While feeling confident about her own position, Sunny was surrounded by a number of disabling discourses which drew her away from teaching communicatively. The story of Sunny making compromises to accommodate students' learning habits with respect to vocabulary was a case in point. She used to skate over the new words while reading through the text with the students. She thought it was not necessary to set aside time specifically for vocabulary, and she expected students to study the words by themselves. After Sunny found out students' problems with the vocabulary, she not only increased the amount of time to teach vocabulary strategies but also led students in applying each of the strategies. This non-communicative learning had significantly changed the nature of her CLT-oriented pedagogy by absorbing much of the time she originally planned for communicative tasks.

6.3.5.2 Sunny's role confusion

Similar to her situation in positioning herself in between two pedagogical approaches, Sunny was also struggling to manage and coordinate the multiple role identities in her teaching practice. There seemed to be a discrepancy between her conceptions of the teacher's role and students' expectations. While Sunny conceived of the CE teacher as a learning facilitator who provided students guidance and direction, the students, who were fresh graduates from high school, appeared to favor the teacher-dominated, textbook-based approach. Still, at this point, Sunny and her students did not see eye to eye regarding the teaching of vocabulary and writing skills. Although Sunny felt strongly about teaching the process of writing, her students seemed to be attached

to the traditional way of writing instruction which involved reciting exemplars in preparation for the College Entrance Examinations. It was very likely that Sunny would continue to struggle and search for a way of positioning herself given competing demands and divergent pedagogical discourses until she found a comfortable niche.

6.3.5.3 Transforming old approaches and innovation

On a positive note, Sunny liked to take the initiative and exercise her agency to insist on her communicative approaches, rather than completely compromising her beliefs. She would use the sample text in the textbook to justify her approach and to convince her students. Sunny was aware that she needed to continue to push communicative approaches to change her students' conceptions about language learning so that students might accept fully her approaches. On the other hand, Sunny was an innovator who was not afraid of trying new ideas in her own classroom space. Adopting a process approach to teaching writing was an example. Sunny was not satisfied with the traditional approach in which the teacher handed out to students a writing topic and waited for the finished product for correction. She searched for new ways and found process writing was consistent with her philosophy of teaching students how to write. Though the process approach was time-consuming and did not meet with immediate success the first time around, Sunny strived to push the boundaries to implement her approach and, in her second year of teaching process writing, she began to see some positive progress in students' writing.

6.3.6 Case Summary

At this point of her professional life, Sunny was experiencing uncertainties and tensions arising from the interaction between centripetal and centrifugal forces (Bakhtin, 1981). On the one hand, her beliefs that students should be taught to use the language (including reading, writing, speaking and listening) in context were held with strong

conviction. On the other hand, she was struggling with combating the opposing discourses represented in students' learning styles and the ingrained CE teaching traditions. The absence of prior teacher training and collegial support exacerbated the situation. Sunny expressed her struggles and concerns and yearned for professional guidance to help her address the predicaments and resolve her aporia and emotional tensions.

For Sunny, the process of creating a pedagogical self was a struggle and involved making compromises and reconciling communicative approaches with traditional methods. Sunny was overwhelmed by the simultaneous but competing discourses so her I-positions fluctuated along the continuum between communicative and traditional orientations. She had difficulties in harmonizing the multiple voices and struggled to manage her position repertoire when experiencing "a cacophonous self" (Lysaker & Lysaker, 2012, p. 210). But she was willing to enact her agency through active engagement with her situation to work her own way out of the dilemma. Through self-study, Sunny expanded her teaching repertoire and her continuous reflection and evaluation of her own practice contributed to her professional growth.

6.4 Jessie: A Passive Identity Resolver

"I guess it was the beginning of my burn-out period. A burn-out for me means I have all my routines well established and with limited time and energy I do not want to try new ideas. I have lost the motivation to try out new ideas despite the fact that I personally like the ideas colleagues brought up. I still follow my own routines." (J-INT- 6-14~17)

6.4.1 Jessie's Profile

Jessie had been teaching CE for 12 years. Jessie was an experienced teacher and she was taking on some administrative responsibilities in her department. Jessie's English learning began at middle school, and involved only print, focusing on vocabulary, reading, and grammar. The teacher used Chinese to teach words, grammar, and to explain text. It was not until she went to university, she began to hear English, speak English, and use English. In university, she majored in American Literature, but she was not able to comprehend spoken English in or out of class. Immediately she felt there was a huge gap between her and her peers. After graduating from the university, she went on to study for a master's degree in American Literature in S University and was hired and offered a teaching position in S University after she completed her master's degree. While participating in this research, Jessie was studying part-time for a Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics.

6.4.2 Jessie's Beliefs: A Changing System

6.4.2.1 Grammar, vocabulary and translation

Jessie's beliefs about language teaching had gone through some changes during the 12 years of her teaching career. Initially, she had no idea about how to teach English. She relied entirely on apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975) and her approach to teaching was traditional. Without any teacher training or knowledge about language teaching available for her to draw on, scripted teaching by following the textbook, seemed to be a safe and default option. Jessie described how English had been taught in her beginning years.

"The focus of teaching was on grammar, vocabulary and translation.

I taught the reading passages at the sentence level. It was primarily

teacher lecturing and talking, and students were just listening and taking notes and they were required to finish the exercises. After explanation of the text, I checked the answers of the exercises; students were called on one by one to give an answer and, if they got it wrong, I offered explanation and clarification. It's just very traditional. Everything was predictable. Now I see it was old-fashioned, and out of date, but at that time, it was the only option available for me as I had graduated freshly from my master's program and the entire program of study was basically in a teachers-lecture-and-students-take-notes mode. So it was easy to just take the most immediate experience of being taught and implement that in my classroom.” (J-INT-6-1-3~12)

6.4.2.2 Converted to CLT

Later on, Jessie learned about Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and she became convinced by the principles of CLT. In particular, the purpose of language learning was to use the language but, at the same time, she did not completely discard traditional methods. She still believed the traditional methods, like explicit instruction of vocabulary and grammar and translation exercises, were helpful in building foundations for language learning. In her fourth year of teaching, there was an opportunity to offer electives in American Literature for non-English majors, Jessie's focus in her master's study, which allowed her to take full control of the course development and implementation. Jessie was able to experiment with different ideas of teaching and drew on her knowledge in American and English literature.

“I was very excited because I was able to use my expertise to help students to learn English. I compiled the teaching materials by myself. I had students read/watch excerpts of English classics and then we did

all sorts of activities. I remember having students reading Charles Lamb's essays and then practice writing through emulating excerpts of the essays. It was very interactive and students loved it." (J-INT- 6-6~10)

This period of Jessie's professional life was filled with passion and the intention to improve teaching, which continued to grow till she was sent overseas for a postgraduate study in English Teaching. The program was very helpful and informative because it was designed specifically for EFL teachers. Jessie benefited substantially from her overseas academic experience. The professional knowledge and training in language teaching methodology, research methods and discourse, and linguistic theory obtained in the program supplied a knowledge base that had been lacking for a long time and thus boosted her assurance to organize her teaching.

"I had developed a knowledge base for teaching. I was able to justify and validate my methods, my pedagogy. When I evaluated my lessons, it helped put things in perspective so I can analyze and understand my own classroom behavior and students' responses. During this phase, my theoretical background was being strengthened and it gained me more confidence in lesson planning and managing my classes, but my passion for applying CLT and new approaches began diminishing and ebbing." (J-INT- 6-11~13)

6.4.2.3 Falling back on traditionalism

After returning from overseas, Jessie began to take leadership roles and share some of the responsibilities in her department. At that time, she was assigned to launch a new program with a series of cross-national internet-based courses. She confessed her

attention and enthusiasm had moved from the CE course to the new course. She believed she had entered into a burn-out period which was characterized by an inclination to teach with “safe” traditional approaches and low motivation to implement communicative teaching methods or to try out new ideas.

6.4.3 Challenges and Difficulties in Teaching

6.4.3.1 The students and the institutional context

When talking about what limited her abilities to implement CLT, Jessie made frequent references to her case load, the big class size, her part-time Ph.D. study, students’ lack of motivation, and the discouraging institutional context. Among such disabling discourses, Jessie found students’ lack of motivation was the most influential. In hearing this negative discourse through her day-to-day contact with students, she also found voices from the institutional context speaking to her through students’ voices, suggesting an unfavorable context in which *College English* was devalued and its status progressively demoted. The following interview excerpt shows how the institutional context, students and Jessie herself created a multi-voiced dialogic space in Jessie’s mind, and how Jessie attempted to respond to external voices through intrapersonal/inner dialogues.

“[student] Take the students of the basic classes for example, if you ask them to preview the content, only a few will do so. Sometimes, I would have to take precautions; let them know that I will check their preparation before class begins, but how can I find out if everyone has done it and the thoroughness of their preparation? [intrapersonal] You can only pick a couple of students and get a rough idea of whether they have done their study by asking questions. [student] I found that some

students are too much occupied with their major studies. By the way they answered my questions, I can tell who has prepared for the class and who has not. Some students are highly motivated and they actively participate in the class, whereas others always make me frustrated because no matter how diligently I urge them to do their work, they won't listen.... I talk to them and explain the importance of studying English. They understood it without any problem but they just won't do it. [intrapersonal] The reason being is in the tertiary context; students are not as closely monitored as they were in the secondary schools. Universities are like the free range for these kids. The disciplined individuals will continue to behave themselves and accomplish, while the less disciplined ones...[student] I read their journals and they were filled with 'hanging out' 'playing video games'. It is a common problem among these kids including some students with high entrance grades...[institutional] It also has something to do with the entire institutional environment. Credit hours are still being cut. Students spend much more time with the lecturers in their faculties, and their views that English was less important than their major subjects is passed on to the students." (J-INT- 2-24~38)

This narrative illustrates the polyphonic nature of a teacher's space that involves teaching, in particular, how teachers' internally persuasive discourses were interacting with the multiple discourses, the heteroglossia, from the social world. In this narrative, Jessie discovered that the institutional climate was becoming a powerful crippling discourse, impacting both the students' and teachers' attitudes toward *College English*. In attempting to resolve issues within such a dynamic, complex space of competing

discourses, Jessie's ability to make a change, her agency was strongly inhibited. Her helplessness and inability to progress the resolution became more pronounced which made her believe that it was just natural because she was experiencing a downturn in her career, a period of burn-out.

6.4.3.2 *The curriculum*

The textbook adopted for Jessie's *Reading and Writing* lessons was *New College English: Integrated Course* published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press. It was laid out in a traditional format. A reading text was followed by comprehension questions and exercises. Jessie was comfortable following the textbook. She did not think there was a need for her to adapt the content and teaching sequence prescribed in the course book, given the instructional time was limited. She was not keen on developing activities that could offer students opportunities for authentic communication. In a nutshell, her main concern was to cover the content as it was presented in the course book.

6.4.4 Jessie's Practices

6.4.4.1 *Sequence of teaching*

Jessie taught sophomores *Reading and Writing* with the course book, *New College English: Integrated Course*, published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press. Her sequence of teaching for a unit was presented in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4 *Sequence of Jessie’s Teaching Activities*

| Unit Title: Fighting with the Forces of Nature (Session 1: 90 mins) | | Time (mins) | Notes |
|--|---|----------------|---|
| 1 | Culture and etiquette Shaking hands (reading a scenario and introduced proper etiquette about handshaking). | 10 | Teacher presentation |
| 2 | Having students think about the unit title “Fighting with the Forces of Nature.” Leading into the topic and building background. Playing a video of French Invasion of Russia. Asking students to give examples of forces of nature: <i>What are forces of nature?</i> Bringing up the concept of living in harmony with nature. | 18 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 3 | Reading aloud proper name/vocabulary and correcting students’ pronunciations. | 13 | Non-communicative learning |
| 4 | Global Reading Teacher explaining the structure of the passage. Students reading the first two paragraphs to themselves to find out the similarities between the two. Intersession break | 5 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 5 | Comparison of two invasions (filling out a chart). | 15 | Communicative language practice |
| 6 | Detailed Reading Language points were explained including sentence patterns, key vocabulary words, etc. | 30 | Non-communicative and Pre-communicative language practice |
| 7 | Assignment: create a word bank for words related to war | | |
| Unit Title: Fighting with the Forces of Nature (Session 2: 90 mins) | | Time (mins) | Notes |
| 1 | Review and comprehension check: True or False (8 items). Calling on students to give answers and explain their answers. Recap of the text from last week. | 10 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 2 | Checking students’ comprehension: questions and answers. | 10 | Pre-communicative |

| | | | |
|---|---|----|----------------------------|
| 3 | Translation of useful expressions and idioms (translating Chinese into English; students who volunteered to give their translations were given points). | 10 | Pre-communicative learning |
| 4 | Calling on students to check if they were all able to translate these Chinese expressions into English equivalents. | 10 | Pre-communicative learning |
| 5 | Translating English proverbs and quotations into Chinese. Intersession break | 10 | Pre-communicative learning |
| 6 | Word study: creating a word web about <i>wars</i> . Students working independently to create word webs Teacher calling on students to demonstrate their word webs. | 10 | Non-communicative learning |
| 7 | Teacher checking students' vocabulary: filling in the blanks with appropriate words | 10 | Non-communicative learning |
| 8 | Grammar: verb+adj.: <i>fall dead, sit still</i> . Teaching this grammar point in Chinese and giving examples. | 10 | Teacher presentation |
| 9 | Culture and etiquette: Appropriate Attire | 10 | Teacher presentation |

6.4.4.2 Content, Focus and Organization

Jessie's class was primarily dominated by teacher talk; students' involvement only occurred when they were called on to answer questions. Spoon-feeding, code-switching between Chinese and English featured prominently in Jessie's teaching. At the pedagogical level, Jessie implemented form-focused instruction throughout her classroom teaching. Observed lessons were primarily about the teaching of discrete language points. There was an absence of communicative activities. Approximately 40% of the instructional time was dedicated to teacher presentation and non-communicative learning; 50% for pre-communicative language practice, and only 8% for communicative language practice (see Appendix P).

Jessie’s teaching of reading was clearly divided into three phases. During the pre-reading stage, she asked students questions relevant to the topic, followed by a video clip, one example was about the French Invasion of Russia. Afterwards, Jessie led students to read aloud the proper names and corrected students’ pronunciations. The pre-reading activities were entirely teacher-led with students playing a very passive role. After the pre-reading phase came global reading. Jessie first had students look at the organization of the text. She then broke down the text into four parts and asked students to summarize the main ideas for each part. Lastly, Jessie had students compare and contrast the two invasions by filling out the table below to check their understanding of the text.

A Comparison-and-Contrast Analysis of the Two Invasions

| | | |
|----------------------------|--|---|
| Invading country | France | Germany |
| Country invaded | Russia | Soviet Union |
| Starter of war | Napoleon | Hitler |
| Starting time of invasion | Spring, 1812 | 6/22/1941 |
| Strength of invading force | 600,000 | the largest land campaign in history |
| Prediction | quick victory, conquest of Russia in 5 weeks | Blitzkrieg (lightning war), lasting no longer than 3 months |

Jessie and her students then entered the detailed reading phase in which Jessie primarily paid attention to vocabulary. She was observed speaking Chinese when providing translation for difficult vocabulary and sentences and occasionally giving explanation of grammatical structures. She also used Chinese in giving directions. If students failed to follow her English-mediated instruction, she would switch to Chinese so that students could understand and respond. Jessie relied heavily on translation in her teaching, in particular in teaching vocabulary. Jessie picked out the words which she believed might hinder students’ understanding and clarified them in context and supplied Chinese translation. The following episode illustrated her approach.

Excerpt 6.5

- Jessie: Okay, launch, no problem. 大家都认识, 但是也特别注意它的读音, 看一下她前面 au 成了长音 ɔ: 它可以开设什么东西, 发射什么东西, 开始都可以, 在这里它是发动了什么? launch an attack, 我们还学过一个进攻, 是什么? to launch an offensive (writing this phrase on the board), offensive, offend, offensive.
- [Translation: Ok, LAUNCH, no problem. You know this word, but pay attention to its pronunciation. Look *au* makes the long *ɔ:* sound. *launch something* means to start something, or to send it to the air. Look what is being launched here? *Launch an attack*. We have learned a word synonymous to attack. What is it? To launch an OFFENSIVE, offend, offensive.]
- SS: Launch (repeating in chorus).
- Jessie: 还可以发射卫星, 比如说苏联发射了第一颗人造卫星, to launch a satellite [*You can say launch a satellite*。发动一场运动, 比如说文化大革命, 这个运动可以用哪个词, 课文中反复出现的一个词叫 campaign, 可以只一系列的, 放在一起有关联的, 也可以是有社会意义的运动, launch 可以做它的动词。下面还要说一下这个词 military might, might 这个词还有印象吗? Hitler's military might? 这个词在这里是什么词性?
- [Translation: You can say launch a satellite. For example, the Soviet Union launched the first man-made satellite: to launch a satellite. Launch a CAMPAIGN. For instance, the Cultural Revolution Campaign. Campaign has appeared repeatedly in the text; it refers to a series of associated activities or activities with social significance. Launch can be used here as the action verb. Now let's have a look at MILITARY MIGHT. Military might? What part of speech is *might* in this sentence?]
- SS: Noun.
- Jessie: What is its meaning? 希特勒的军事力量, force。The almighty God, 无所不能的上帝, mightily, 变成副词。表示一种力量, power, military might was unequal 史无前例的军事力量。
- [Translation: What is its meaning? Hitler's military might, force. The Almighty God. The omniscient God. Mightily, the adjective. It means power. *Military might was unequal*. It means incomparable military power.
- 我们这里面还出现了有一个词 war, 还有 battle, 还汉语当中的战役战斗是完全对应的, 指的是一次性的那种, 比如说滑铁卢之战用 battle, 还有国家内部的战争叫 civil war。
- We have another word WAR, and BATTLE. They are equivalents of *zhanyi* and *zhandou* in Chinese, referring to one-off conflicts and fights. For example, the Waterloo Battle, or the civil war.
- 下面 the conquest of Russia in five weeks, conquest 是什么意思?
- Next, *the conquest of Russia in five weeks*. What does *conquest* mean?
- SS: 征服.
- Zhengfu* (Chinese translation).
- Jessie: 动词是什么?
- What is the verb?

| | | |
|---------|--|--|
| SS: | Conquer. | Conquer. |
| Jessie: | 下面 retreat 没有问题. 然后这个 engage 是什么意思? the French and Russian armies engaged at Smolensk, 他们两个军队在这里是 <u>交战</u> 。我们还学过一个意思, 拿着一个手, I am engaged! I am engaged! | Let's move on to RETREAT, no problem. And what does ENGAGE mean? The <i>French and Russian armies engaged at Smolesnk</i> . The two armies were battling. It has a different meaning. Someone holding up her hand: I am engaged! I am engaged! |
| SS: | 订婚. | <i>Dinghun</i> (Chinese translation, engaged to marry someone). |
| Jessie: | 还有什么的比如说在老师在课堂上, try hard to engage students in activities. 在这里是... | Are there other meanings? For example, a teacher is trying hard to ENGAGE students in activities. Here engage means.... |
| SS: | 参与. | <i>Canyu</i> (Chinese translation, actively involved with). |

After detailed reading, Jessie asked students to look at the comprehension questions. She presented in Power Point slides six true or false questions and five open-ended questions to check students' understanding of the reading text. Again, she called upon students to give their answers. Students were able to locate the relevant information in the text and read out the sentences written in the textbook. They did not seem to be interested in giving answers in their own words. After comprehension questions, Jessie gave students the opportunity to raise their own questions regarding the text, but no one responded. Jessie then moved on to give students translation exercises. Given the Chinese expressions, students were required to find the English equivalents from the text. Following Chinese to English translation, Jessie had students translate English proverbs and quotations into Chinese.

In a nutshell, Jessie's practice focused on the lexical level and translation between Chinese and English. The class was entirely form-focused, teacher-dominated, and there was no opportunity given to the students to use the language forms learned in the text. The lessons were run in a transmission model in which students generally

played a passive role as recipients of lexical knowledge and text explanation. Student engagement with the target language was minimal and mechanical: students were called upon to answer questions and were required to practice vocabulary, patterns and translation.

6.4.5 Jessie's Positioning and Identity

6.4.5.1 Straddling two approaches

At this point of Jessie's professional career, she was epistemologically receptive to the communicative approaches but was not keen on implementing them in her own classroom with the students at the basic level. Jessie used "straddling" to describe her current pedagogy. While aware of the principles of CLT and the rationales, Jessie found, through her teaching experience, that some principles did not work well in her classroom. She gave an example of using recast for student errors.

"The literature suggested using recasts instead of direct error correction, but sometimes you can tell that students did not get it and they tend to repeat their errors. I straddle the two or I use both depending on particular situations or errors." (J-INT-5-29~30)

"Straddling" was also evident in her attitude toward using English in classroom.

"Some scholars contend that creating a target language environment is essential while others are more concerned with getting students' involvement. Whether it is L1 or L2 is less important. I am straddling between these two conceptions and react upon specific conditions. If it were a girl, very shy and silent, and she finally got up to say something and used Chinese, if I push her to use English, I am afraid of scaring her out of getting up again." (J-INT-5-5~11)

Jessie seemed to associate traditional approaches with students placed at the basic level for such approaches were useful for building foundations, whereas communicative approaches, student-centered activities were more appropriate for students with higher levels of proficiency. Her main concern was to cover the syllabus or textbook, not to provide opportunities to engage with the target language. Instead, she felt more comfortable in following the traditional procedures and teacher-centered pedagogy.

6.4.5.2 Positions appropriated and disowned

With a dozen of years of teaching experience, Jessie has conceived clear views regarding her identities as a university English teacher.

“The first identity is a bell ringer: I ring the bell to summon the students and request their attention to the learning tasks. I conceive my second role as a drawer, mapping out the paths and taking them through. I would show them different facets of English learning, giving them a different perspective, to help them experience the fun and joy in learning the English language, especially for those with less interest in English. Meanwhile, I am a stimulator and facilitator. I let them know that I am always available to help with issues in the learning process. When they encounter difficulties and obstacles or when they are frustrated, I would like to reassure them--everyone including me has experienced similar problems, and they will get through eventually and be fine just as me. I will help them find methods that are appropriate to individual levels and suit personal needs. All these roles are what I expected myself to play both for the whole class group and for individual students as well. I have tried to enact these roles but not

enough, because the classes are too big and I can only impact some students, not able to reach every single one of them.” (J-INT-2-15~22)

In Jessie’s statement, she conceived of her identity as a multi-facet construct consisting of multiple roles: an instructor, a motivator and a facilitator. She also acknowledged her inability to actualize these role identities. In real practice, Jessie was observed mainly to play the role of instructing according to the book. Although cognitively and discursively Jessie embraced the multiple roles consistent with CLT, when confronted with the many challenges and contextual constraints, she disowned the positive positions as a CLT teacher and appropriated the opposing position as a traditional teacher instead. Her choice of positioning and repositioning, appropriation of the traditional teacher and rejection of CLT were expressions of the agency of the *I* taking place both in the relationship with themselves, that is their internally persuasive discourses or beliefs, and in the relationship with others and the differing contexts (Hermans & Hermans-Konopka, 2010). Being locked within a singular, diminished position, Jessie was experiencing a monological, barren self, in which the multiple self-facets were unable to interact with one another meaningfully (Lysaker & Lysaker, 2012). As a result, a state of frustration and lack of motivation followed which made Jessie think of herself as being more or less nondescript or even empty.

6.4.6 Case Summary

Over the 12 years of Jessie’s professional life, she started as a traditional EFL teacher, gradually became convinced about communicative principles, and eventually fell back on traditionalism. Although she understood and accepted the theories and rationales underlying CLT, her motivation for implementing CLT at the classroom level was in decline. Jessie was paralyzed by the contextual difficulties and challenges and failed to set up conditions for communicative teaching. Jessie’s approach to resolving

the tensions between internally persuasive discourses and the contextual discourses, between ideals and realities, was a passive one. Internally, she was not keen on seeking ways or exerting agency to transform the disrupting discourses; rather she chose to fall back on the old-fashioned, non-communicative approach. Consequently, in practice she found herself sliding back to a more teacher-dominated, textbook-based, traditional approach, which, in turn, resulted in *negative emotions* in teaching (Hargreaves, 1998).

6.5 Ellen: A Passive Identity Resolver with Positive Emotions

“I told my students that they made me fall in love with my job, and my passion and love is increasing every day. I enjoy communicating and interacting with students. The learning outcomes of my students no longer affect my motivation, though I get upset sometimes they do not make desired progress.” (E-INT-4-35~40)

6.5.1 Ellen’s Profile

With 19 years of teaching experience in the same university, Ellen was an experienced CE teacher. Compared with Tier 1 and Tier 2 institutions, Y University was much less competitive in terms of recruiting high-achieving students and highly self-motivated students. Y University placed students into classes according to their majors instead of levels of English proficiency. The group of students Ellen was working with were majors of music, fine arts and physical education. Therefore, students’ language competencies varied significantly. Her student’s English scores ranged from 30 to 90 out of 150. There was a great deal of diversity in terms of linguistic knowledge as well as English learning abilities. The textbook adopted for this group of students was appropriate to their performance; it was at the lowest level of difficulty.

6.5.2 Ellen's Beliefs: Ideal Conceptions and Working Conceptions

6.5.2.1 CLT-oriented beliefs as ideal conceptions

Ellen believed that the goal and purpose of English education in tertiary institutions should differ from that in high schools. In high schools, English education was test-oriented. Both teachers and students treated English as a *subject* that was taught and tested as a linguistic object isolated from students' real life. In contrast, in tertiary institutions where students and teachers were unshackled from the pressure of college entrance examinations, English education should be practical and related to real-world applications. Ideally, the university English teacher should use English as the primary language to teach and students should be given more opportunity to explore and use the language for real-life purposes. In terms of content and focus, Ellen thought university teachers should not be confined to the textbook as were high school English teachers, and grammar and vocabulary should no longer be the focus of instruction for university students. In terms of pedagogy, Ellen appreciated the value of group activities and cooperative learning and would like to use a variety of authentic materials, such as movies and magazines, in English teaching. However, such conceptions were held as "ideal conceptions" rather than "working conceptions" (Samuelowicz & Bain, 1992, p.110), which would be directly transferred into practice.

6.6.2.2 Traditionalism as working conceptions

Ellen perceived that the communicative principles were *good* and *made sense* but they were not applicable in her teaching context. Ellen believed the teacher-centered, didactic approach with an emphasis on vocabulary and linguistic knowledge was more appropriate for her students. She described her teaching approach as "traditional" and "high school style" with deep resignation.

“To be honest, I think my teaching approach remained very traditional like high school English teachers, not like a university English teacher. The communicative approach did not work. It was difficult to carry through with CLT because students were not able to respond. I tried group work. I had four students work as a group but they were not able to perform the discussion task. The foreign teachers demonstrated group work with us, English teachers, and it worked because the teachers were more linguistically capable. I think the students’ English abilities were the major obstacle.” (E-INT-2-9~14)

Ellen said she used Chinese as the medium of instruction with only approximately 30% of the instruction being given in English. Except for text reading, explanations of vocabulary and texts were both in Chinese. Vocabulary was given a priority as she spent a significant amount of time in teaching vocabulary beforehand. Words were taught in a decontextualized manner: she provided definitions and gave examples to explain the new words, and expected students to memorize the spellings and meanings of the new words. When teaching the reading text, Ellen would first outline the structure of the text, divide it into meaningful segments, and then explain language points in detail. Following the text explanation were exercises provided in the textbook, such as multiple choice questions, information gap, and translation exercises. Table 6.5 presents the contrast between Ellen’s ideal conceptions and working conceptions.

Table 6.5 *Ellen's Ideal Conceptions and Working Conceptions*

| Ideal Conceptions (cognitively embraced discourse) | Working Conceptions (practically enacted discourse) |
|---|--|
| Use of L2 | Use of L1 |
| Group and pair work, student-centered | Teacher-dominated instruction |
| Communicative activities and tasks | Book-and vocabulary focused |
| Allowing students' linguistic errors | Immediate error correction |

6.5.3 Challenges and Difficulties in Teaching

The large class size posed a severe challenge for Ellen's teaching. Ellen would normally have 60 students in the CE class and the greatest number was 112. The large number of students also brought with them a range of learning preferences and ability levels. Ellen recounted her experience of the year of 2005. Initially, she used English only to teach the lessons. Some students were very excited because they found CE was different from their previous English lessons in secondary schools during which the teacher used a minimum of English. However, the majority, the less capable students, were not able to follow and they gradually gave up on learning English. After two years, the pro-English group of students achieved significant progress whereas the give-up group was totally left behind. Ellen found this contextual restraint was irresolvable, so she decided to adapt. She now would use approximately half English half Chinese to accommodate the varying levels of English language abilities. She would also urge all students to try hard to follow: "If you catch up, your English will improve; if you give up, you lose the last opportunity and your English will stay at your high school level or even go backwards." (*E-INT-1-21~23*) Ellen said the ideal class size would be 20 up to 30 so she could attend to individual students' needs.

Apart from the large class size, Ellen found it difficult to stimulate her students' interest in learning English, to motivate students to learn English.

“When the content is difficult and they can't understand it in English, students lose their interest; even if I taught the basic grammar in Chinese, some students still would not be interested. I was really puzzled.” (E-INT-1-46)

6.5.4 Ellen's Practices

6.5.4.1 Sequence of Teaching

Ellen's teaching followed the presentation-practice-production procedure. Her approach to reading instruction was almost identical to Jessie's, albeit with different content and a different student group. Ellen started with the new words, and then broke down the text into parts, explained each part, the main idea, language points, and translated some difficult sentences. Ellen commented on her teaching style: *“It is like what we were doing in the Chinese class in primary school. It's very traditional.” (E-INT-2-27~30)* Table 6.6 presents Ellen's sequence of teaching activities.

Table 6.6 *Sequence of Ellen's Teaching Activities*

| | Unit Title: Education (Session 1: 100 mins) | Time (mins) | Notes |
|---|---|-------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1 | Introduction to the unit Explanation of unit objectives: text reading and comprehension; building vocabulary related to campus life; reading and writing introductions | 5 | Teacher presentation |
| 2 | Having students think about their goals in attending universities and talk to their peers. (Leading into the topic and building background) <i>a. What's your plan after graduating?</i> <i>b. Do you like the university so far? Why or why not?</i> | 15 | Communicative language practice |
| 3 | Telling a story: <i>A Tale of Two Students</i> A real-life story based on Ellen's own experience. The story was told in both Chinese and English to make sure that students understood it well. Her purpose was to let students understand that attending a Tier-3 university is not the end of their life; instead it is just the beginning, and if they make efforts, their life route will change and they will gain the opportunity to compete with students from Tier-1 or Tier-2 universities. | 10 | Teacher presentation |
| 4 | Reading aloud proper names/vocabulary Giving examples of collocations and sentences when teaching new words, e.g., a piece of advice ; ask for help/advice/suggestions ; take advantage of this opportunity/school education; in/during/throughout my lifetime ; etc. Intersession break | 20 | Non-communicative language learning |
| 5 | The structure of the passage Having students skim the text to figure out its main idea and organization. Calling on students to give main ideas. | 8 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 6 | Detailed Reading Identifying the topic sentence or key words. Long or difficult sentences were explained using Chinese. New words and collocations were reinforced. Text translations were presented after explaining each paragraph. | 30 | Pre-communicative language learning |
| 8 | Assignment: review the text and vocabulary; practice oral reading of the text. | 2 | |

| Unit Title: Education (Session 2: 100 mins) | | Time (mins) | Notes |
|---|---|-------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1 | a. Review Vocabulary (matching the words with Chinese translations) b. Comprehension check (multiple choice questions) Calling on students to give answers and explain | 10 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 2 | A Task: Students working in pairs to create a dialogue with Bill Gates based on the text. Students acting out the interview by role-play. | 20 | Structured communication |
| 3 | Translation of useful expressions (Chinese-English) | 10 | Pre-communicative language learning |
| 4 | Calling on students to check if they were able to translate the Chinese expressions into English equivalents Intersession Break | 10 | Pre-communicative language learning |
| 5 | Word study: words for campus life Teacher leading students to take stock of vocabulary related to campus life; giving Chinese equivalents to prompt students' responses | 10 | Pre-communicative language learning |
| 6 | Vocabulary Assessment: filling in the blanks with appropriate words or phrases | 5 | Pre-communicative language practice |
| 7 | Grammar: active verbs, i.e. have, send, guide, and attend | 15 | Non-communicative language learning |
| 8 | Writing introductions Looking at an introduction of Bill Gates and two samples of self-introductions Tips for writing self-introductions: useful sentence patterns and vocabulary | 15 | Structured communication |
| 9 | Assignment: Writing a self-introduction with no more than 100 words. It should contain information about your age, gender, occupation, hometown, cultural background and hobbies. | 5 | |

6.5.4.2 Content, Focus and Organization

6.5.4.2.1 Didactic teaching

Ellen's lessons resembled Jessie's in many ways. Teacher talk dominated the instruction and students' involvement was minimized. Ellen relied heavily on L1 to ensure that students were engaged and followed her instruction. The focus of her teaching was vocabulary, text comprehension on the syntactical level and translation. Only two segments of structured communicative activities occurred during the two observed 100-minute sessions, with each one lasting 15 to 20 minutes.

6.5.4.2.2 Improvised Teaching

What distinguished Ellen's reading and writing lessons from Jessie's was improvised teaching. Ellen would seek the opportunity to tell a story, share a life experience, or play a movie to enhance the traditional lesson format. The story she told for the observed unit, *A Tale of Two Students*, was based on her own experience and she used this story to inspire students to reach new heights and to pursue their goals tenaciously. She found her students were very interested in hearing these stories and the improvised talks drew students closer to her and her CE class.

6.5.5 Ellen's Positioning and Identity

6.5.5.1 Coalescing traditionalism and CLT

Pedagogically, Ellen found she was in a dilemma in attempting to position herself as a tertiary EFL teacher. Ellen's explicitly expressed her reluctance to embrace the traditional approaches as she did not want to be identified as *a high school English teacher*. Instead, Ellen believed that embracing the promoted CLT was an identity marker which allowed her to assert her identity as *a tertiary English teacher*. Although she cognitively and verbally endorsed CLT, in practice she failed to make it work with

her students. She explained that CLT was good but not applicable for her students because the students' limited language proficiency inhibited the implementation of CLT. For example, Ellen contended that her students were not linguistically capable of discussing a topic in English in a group. Also, Ellen found it difficult to ignore their mistakes though she knew that the popular CLT suggested not to correct students at every turn. Only occasionally she ignored students' language errors, but most of the time, she would point out mistakes students made in speaking and writing. It seemed that Ellen was still in a quandary about aligning herself with a single pedagogy and achieving congruence between what she believed was *right* and what was *workable*. Her coping strategy was to hold both in two separate cognitive compartments as described earlier: CLT as ideal conceptions and traditionalism as working conceptions. By coalescing traditionalism and CLT in her cognition, Ellen was able to mitigate her emotional tension stemming from identity conflict.

6.5.5.2 Extending positions to find a niche: meta-/compensatory positioning

The lack of congruence between what she believed and what she actually practiced initially filled her with frustration and dislike of the job. Gradually she learned to contain her negative emotions and developed a meta-position to offset such undesirable feelings. Ellen repeatedly mentioned that her teaching was not restricted to what was scripted in the textbook. She saw herself as a teacher in the first place and then a language teacher. Ellen liked to share life experiences and touch on a variety of topics, such as how to build social skills and interpersonal relationships, and she liked to teach lessons with morals. She was interested in knowing about students' life and offering suggestions to help them solve life problems. For example, when she heard students were not getting along in their dormitories, she would talk with students about being tolerant of others and urged them to look at the positive side of their roommates.

Ellen found her students were interested in the improvised talk and interactions, so they liked to come to her class. By making improvisation an important piece of her pedagogy, Ellen created a unique bond between herself and the students, and this had helped to channel the tensions that resulted from identity conflicts, and enabled her to take comfort in teaching. Ellen described her current status as follows:

“I told my students that they made me fall in love with my job, and my passion and love is increasing every day. I enjoy communicating and interacting with students. The learning outcomes of my students no longer affect my motivation, though I get upset sometimes they do not make desired progress.” (E-INT-4-35~40)

6.5.6. Case Summary

Ellen’s case in one way or the other resembled the previous case study teachers. She was experiencing a split between her embraced beliefs and actual practices, like Jessie. Her struggle to position herself between the two pedagogies and to develop her personalized teaching style was a lot like the experience of Sunny. Ellen’s coping strategy, juxtaposing two pedagogical orientations and extending her positions to create a social connection with her students beyond language teaching, shared similarities with Tony’s. Apart from these similarities, the significance of presenting Ellen’s case lies in the uniqueness of her working context. Unlike the other four teachers from Tier 1 and Tier 2 institutions, Ellen’s students were representative of the most difficult group of EFL learners in the Chinese tertiary setting. They were characterized by the lowest language proficiency and the most diverse range of learning needs and language abilities. Thus, Ellen’s story of lived experience sheds light on how a Tier 3 EFL teacher learned to grapple with contextual difficulties and challenges through dialogic construction of self-identities and strategic positioning.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION

In the previous chapters, I have identified two factors underlying the Chinese university EFL teachers' language teaching beliefs: the traditional orientation and the communicative orientation. Following the survey study, I presented five cases of individual teachers with a focus on how these two orientations manifest themselves in individual teachers' beliefs and practices, and what positioning strategies individual teachers deployed to reconcile the potential tensions arising from the competing pedagogical discourses and identity conflict. In this chapter, I will summarize the key findings from the survey study and multiple case studies to address the research questions. To construe the complexity of the interrelationship between beliefs, practices, and identities, Bakhtin's dialogic theory will be drawn on.

7.1 How Can Chinese University EFL Teachers' Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching, Their Practices, and Identities Be Characterized?

7.1.1 Chinese University EFL Teachers' Beliefs

7.1.1.1 Results from the survey study

The results of the *Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching Questionnaire (BALLTQ)* indicate that, in general, the Chinese university EFL teachers' conceptions of English learning and teaching are a hybridity of a primarily communicative orientation with some traditional elements. In terms of the relative position of the main subscales, whose mean scores are above or below the midpoint of 3, the high mean score of Factor I indicated a strong endorsement for the

communicative conceptions of language learning and teaching. Teachers agreed that the purpose of English instruction is to help students develop language abilities for real life communications and they tend to reject the traditional view of associating language learning with learning about grammar and vocabulary. The realization of acquiring cultural knowledge as part of English learning, teaching skills in an integrated manner, utilizing authentic materials, and focusing on cultivating students' communicative competence—the ability to use the language—in real life settings are salient features, indicative of a communicative orientation. Teachers' responses have also shown tolerance of students' language errors, implying a shift of focus from linguistic accuracy to communicative fluency, and they are willing to allow student autonomy by engaging them in communication-oriented activities and inquiry-based learning, attention directed more to “teaching the person” than “teaching the book” (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006; Wette & Barkhuizen, 2009). Correspondingly and consistently, teachers in the current study have demonstrated a general opposition toward vocabulary- and grammar-based instruction, toward exam-oriented instruction, and toward a view of the teacher's role as mainly teaching the textbook. This finding aligns with what Goh and Chen (2014) found in their study on Chinese university EFL teachers' beliefs about teaching spoken English. Similarly, the Chinese university EFL teachers participating in their study generally agreed on the importance of developing students' communicative ability through using authentic materials and tasks, and focusing more on meaningful communication than linguistic accuracy. The findings of the present study are consistent with Chen and Chen's (2008) and Wette & Barkhuizen's (2009); however, such findings do not support earlier assumptions that teachers were very likely to resist student-centered, interactive methodologies which had made CLT difficult to implement in Chinese EFL classrooms (Hu, 2005b; Jin & Cortazzi, 2006; Rao, 1996).

On the whole, teachers' responses seem to reflect the current state of emphasis of language teaching in many parts of the world, including China, where more importance is placed on developing skills for communicating meaning clearly and effectively (Nishino, 2012; Zhang, 2011). Such findings are considered to be a positive outcome of China's ELT reform toward a communication-oriented language teaching approach. However, this does not mean that teachers have completely abandoned the traditional ways of ELT. Nested in a communicative teaching orientation, Chinese university EFL teachers have retained some elements of traditional structuralism pedagogy. For instance, teachers' responses to item 29 ($M = 3.42$) and 30 ($M = 3.31$) suggested that drilling and translation still play an important part in the classroom instruction. This intermingling of two approaches underpins a localized pedagogy, documented in the literature as an eclectic approach to language teaching (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; 2011; Tang, 1983; Zhang, 2004), or a synthesis of traditional approaches and CLT as described in many case studies (e.g., Xu & Liu, 2013; Tsui, 2007).

Teachers' beliefs about several issues diverged and no clear collective tendency can be drawn from the statistics. To be specific, approximately one third of participating teachers still subscribed to the beliefs that the teacher's language proficiency is a determining factor; the primary curricular focus should be on the textbook, and rote memorization is crucial in language learning. Given that this sample demonstrated an overwhelming endorsement for Communicative Conceptions, this suggests varying levels of hybridity of two orientations in individual teachers' belief systems. At the individual level, while holding positive beliefs about CLT, a teacher may also be in favor of textbook-based, teacher-centered teaching styles. Ellen, who also participated in the case studies, was an example. In Ellen's belief system, while acknowledging the importance of communicative tasks, rote memory was still an essential part of EFL

instruction in the Chinese local context. In the similar vein, case studies in the literature have reported teachers of such (see Li, 2013; Tsui, 2007; Zeng & Murphy, 2007). Therefore, the identified dimensions of teachers' conceptions of language learning and teaching can be best seen as a continuum, varying along two extremes or polarities. Accordingly, the overall tendency of Chinese university EFL teachers' beliefs can be inferred from the subscale means in relation to their positions on the number lines (Figure 7.1).

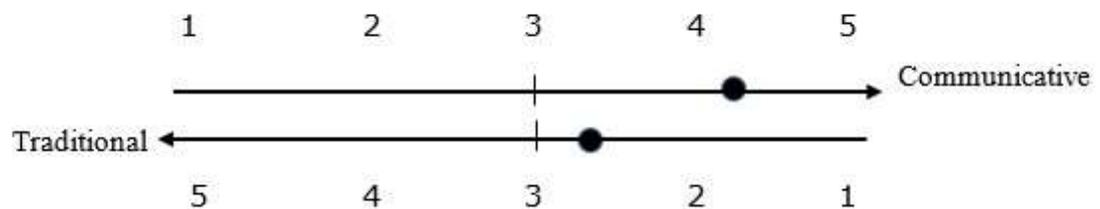


Figure 7.1. Overall tendency of Chinese university EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching. The numbers represent mean ratings on the two factor subscales.

7.1.1.2 Insights from case studies

Following the questionnaire survey, the case studies, involving detailed analyses of individual teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching, illustrated the complexity of Chinese tertiary EFL teachers' beliefs. The following characteristics were revealed by the detailed analyses of individual cases.

First, teachers' conceptions converged on the purpose and goal of English learning but diverged at the pedagogical level. All of the five teachers agreed that the ultimate goal of English learning lay in developing the ability to use the language for real communication purposes. Yet their views on the means by which this goal was best achieved were heavily influenced by the older traditions of language teaching. For

example, Tony believed reading extensively out of class was instrumental in enhancing students' language proficiency, but extensive reading was mostly a solitary, silent act which does not lend itself well to communicative teaching. Tony was able to reinvent the very traditional silent, extensive reading practice with communicative elements to make it alive and meaningful for students. He not only asked students to read, but also provided a stage for students to share and present what they had read. Similarly, Jessie held firmly a belief that students needed a solid foundation of building blocks: vocabulary and grammar, to be able to reach a higher level of communicative competence. Sunny relied on translation in explication of text, to facilitate students' understanding of the target language and culture. Her aims were to draw students' attention to the differences between authentic English and Chinese English, and increase students' awareness of the target language.

Second, traditionalism and CLT emerged as two influential *authoritative discourses* (Bakhtin, 1981) which may account for the two dimensions underlying Chinese tertiary EFL teachers' beliefs. Discourses here are not defined as related exclusively to language and utterances. Discourses in their broadest sense, are historically, culturally, politically and socially generated patterns of thinking, speaking, acting, and interacting (Millar Marsh, 2002). According to Bakhtin, formation of beliefs, or internally persuasive discourses in Bakhtin's terms, is a process of *selectively assimilating* various discourses and making them one's own (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 341). In light of this, the Grammar-Translation Method, the Audiolingual Method, the Chinese traditions of teacher-centered textbook-based instruction, and the more recently promoted CLT are all influential *authoritative discourses*, historical or current. Participating teachers in the case studies unanimously expressed their disapproval of the traditional approaches of language teaching they experienced in their primary and

secondary education. The Traditional Approaches (TA) discourse was perceived by these teachers as ineffective, prosaic, rigid, and outdated, and they did not intend to align themselves with this discourse or to be identified as *a traditional EFL teacher*. In contrast, the notion of CLT with a focus on developing practical ability of language use presented itself as a viable alternative to the TA discourse. It was not difficult for teachers to accept the purpose underscored by the CLT approach. Nevertheless, as to the specific methods promoted or rejected to fulfil the purpose, teachers seemed to have *selectively appropriated* what they deemed useful from both TA and CLT and developed their personalized teaching conceptions—*internally persuasive discourses*. Eventually, internally persuasive discourses began to work in an independent, experimental and discriminating way. The process of appropriation, the development of internally persuasive words, involved individuals processing understandings of experiences and putting individual imprint on thoughts, actions, and ways of being in the world (Volosinov, 1973). While the authoritative and internally persuasive discourses interact constantly together, they rarely achieve harmony within the human mind. Human consciousness is inherently dialogic and teachers are constantly juggling competing thoughts, feelings and opinions (Baxter, 2014).

Third, parallel to the dialogic interaction between authoritative discourses and individual persuasive words, teachers' CLT-oriented beliefs were also involved in the interplay with multiple contextual discourses. When teachers brought established beliefs into the classroom, beliefs then entered into a dialogical relationship with the institutional context, the students, and the curriculum. In Sunny's case, her belief system was still evolving as a result of continuous dialogues with her teaching context and her students and, consequently, she found herself swinging between traditional and communicative orientations. Jessie and Ellen admitted that unfavorable contextual

discourses (e.g., the big class size, traditional textbooks, students' lack of motivation, and a diverse range of students' language abilities) hindered their translation of communicative teaching principles into real classroom practices. These factors acted as *centrifugal forces* pulling teachers away from CLT, their embraced pedagogical discourse, and instigated a disjunction between stated beliefs and pedagogical practices so often discussed in the literature (see Farrell & Kun, 2008; Feryok, 2008; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Xiang & Borg, 2014). Aware of this disjunction, Jessie and Ellen held both orientations in their cognitions and labelled them separately as *ideal conceptions* and *working conceptions*.

In conclusion, through examination of teachers' narratives, in particular the evaluative devices, teachers were active meaning makers of their past learning experiences and reflective practitioners of current teaching context and practices. Interacting with authoritative discourses and contextual discourses enabled teachers to assimilate them selectively to develop their own internally persuasive discourses. In a word, the case studies showed that teachers' construction of beliefs, or internally persuasive discourses, is a continual dialogical process as a result of interacting discourses emanating from personal learning histories and present social and institutional environments.

7.1.2 Chinese University EFL Teachers' Practices

7.1.2.1 Results from the survey study

The resultant factor structure of the *Teaching Practice Questionnaire (TPQ)* indicated that teachers' practices comprised two dimensions—Communicative, Student-centered Teaching Practices, and Didactic, Teacher-Fronted Teaching Practices. The two factor structure is generally consistent with the identified factor

structure of *BALLTQ*. The results of *TPQ* show teachers tend to combine both communicative, student-centered approaches and traditional, didactic approaches, but communicative teaching practices were more frequently applied than the didactic, teacher-fronted teaching behaviors ($M = 3.82$ and $M = 3.26$, respectively). To be specific, the majority of these tertiary EFL teachers mainly used English as the medium of instruction, frequently or very frequently engaged students in authentic communications, writing activities, and employed group activities. When dealing with the reading text, approximately 60% teachers tended to give students the center stage and used cooperative learning for text comprehension. Such practices provided students with language exposure and afforded them opportunities to use English for communicative purposes, so students were empowered to become active processor of information and participants of communication. The overall mean for the Communicative, Student-centered Practices subscale was close to 4 (frequently) which indicates that their reported communicative practices were generally aligned with their communicative orientation as revealed by *BALLTQ*.

Teachers' responses to the items of the Didactic, Teacher-Fronted Teaching Practices scale reveal that approximately 30% to 40% of the participating teachers were still frequently or very frequently applying traditional approaches, such as using Chinese to explain vocabulary and grammar, drilling and exercises, modelling, word dictations, translation, and sentence-by-sentence explication of reading text, in their classrooms in spite of their acceptance of the communicative conceptions and principles. In reality, teachers employed a mixture of both communicative and traditional approaches to fulfil their responsibilities in helping students develop their language competence.

7.1.1.2 Insights from case studies

The in-depth case studies of individual teachers' beliefs and their practices resonated with previous findings indicating that the relationship between beliefs and practices, thinking and doing, is complex and dynamic (cf. Basturkmen, 2012; Graden, 1996; Li, 2013; Nishino, 2012). The case studies have shown that teacher beliefs, their conceptions of how English should be learnt and taught in the Chinese tertiary context, serve as a psychological base for their behaviors and actions. However, teachers do not always practice as they believe. When multiple contextual discourses enter into the already multi-voiced self, the relationship between beliefs and practices is further complicated, and becomes non-linear and sometimes unpredictable. In-depth case studies of five individual EFL teachers' classroom practices from three tiers of tertiary institutions revealed the following characteristics: their practices may swing between the communicative and traditional orientations depending on their perceived readiness of students and the local working environment; teachers' abilities to transform disrupting discourses and overcome difficulties when applying CLT varied significantly; some teachers are capable of assuming responsibility and power in adapting the material and curriculum and in creating new meanings of the content to be taught in their everyday classrooms; whereas teachers without adequate agency or professional skills in transforming the TA-favored working conditions are more likely to resort to traditional approaches as a safe strategy; and, teachers' practices may also vary and exhibit inconsistency at different stages of their professional life.

7.1.3 Chinese University EFL Teachers' Identities

7.1.3.1 Results from the survey study

Since the topic, teacher identity, has not been studied much quantitatively, the results shed light on how Chinese EFL teachers understood their work and how they

positioned themselves accordingly. The factor structure extracted from the identity questionnaire indicated that Chinese CE teachers identified themselves as motivators/advocates, facilitators for English learning, and reflective practitioners. In contrast, they tended not to identify themselves as merely teaching the textbook.

First, teachers' positioning of themselves as the motivator and advocate for English learning can be interpreted as their active response to the current bleak situation of CE teaching which is losing students and their interest. To rekindle students' motivation for studying English, teachers have chosen to make changes to their habitual teaching methodology, the well-established traditionalism, and to adopt more communication-based group learning activities to increase students' engagement. Making class interesting and fun has become a priority for CE teachers and, in order to achieve this, they began to incorporate a variety of student-centered learning tasks, such as inquiry learning and autonomous learning tasks. All of these were efforts made to transform the traditional EFL classroom to a communicative EFL classroom. The second role-identity factor, facilitator for English learning, entailed teaching English learning strategies, providing resources, and caring about students' personal development and life. Teachers' identification with this role indicated they recognized the importance of teaching *how* plus teaching *what* as a CE teacher. These teachers found introducing learning strategies and resources, and pointing out many alternative learning strategies, were essential responsibilities. The third identity factor emphasized the CE teacher's capacity for self-reflection. Teachers were keen to enhance their own language proficiency as well as professional knowledge and skills related to ELT. These findings are different from what Chen and Chen's (2008) have found from their survey study with 35 tertiary EFL teachers in Zhejiang Province. They found significant discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and their enacted role identities in practice. Just

over half (58%) of their participants believed that they should play the role of the *co-communicator*, but in actual teaching practice, 55% of the participants identified themselves as language instructors, and 30% as language models. Chen and Chen thus concluded that the majority of their participants were not able to apply their modern and advanced CLT-oriented beliefs in practice. Considering the small sample size in their study, their findings and conclusion may be limited.

7.1.3.2 Insights from case studies

Teachers' stories of constructing identities in teaching showed that identities, the teacher's sense of self, are important in enhancing teachers' awareness of teaching, mediating the tensions arising from misalignments between cognitions and behaviors, as well as building coherence and structure in their practices.

First of all, the case study findings corroborated the survey results in terms of the multiplicity of Chinese CE teachers' identities. Similar to the ESL teachers in Farrell's study (2011), among the five case study teachers, Tony, Nancy and Sunny were found to assume multiple role identities in their daily teaching practices. These role identities were aligned with the categories identified by the factor analysis of this cohort of CE teachers' responses to the *Teacher Identity Questionnaire (TPQ)*.

Second, the case studies also pointed to the fact that CE teachers were involved in a struggle of positioning in between communicative and traditional pedagogical discourses which threaded through their identity formation. Being able to manage the multiple positions and develop one's own voice was vital for teachers to prevail in this identity struggle. Like Tony and Nancy, teachers who were able to negotiate plural contextual discourses through professional reflexivity and strategic positioning, managed to locate themselves in their teaching contexts, and aligned their practice with

their beliefs and conceptions. As a result, their confidence in teaching increased and a positive sense of self as a CE teacher developed, which drives commitment and career satisfaction. In contrast, other teachers failed to manage their position repertoires or sort out a position when experiencing “a cacophonous self.” (Lysaker and Lysaker, 2012, p. 214). Sunny was overwhelmed by simultaneous but competing discourses so her I-positions fluctuated along the continuum between communicative and traditional orientations. Sunny, an identity searcher, felt the urge to develop a teacher self that could help her anchor her practice. Jessie experienced a barren, monological self, in which her imagined identities of ideals were silenced to give way to a singular identity of a textbook teacher. Ellen was also experiencing a cacophony in which the communicative teacher self and the traditional teacher self were both attempting to take the upper hand in her mind. Pedagogically, her approach to resolve this tension was not proactive in that she chose to align her practices with the traditional way. Sunny and Jessie’s experiences of identity formation gave rise to negative emotions in teaching: uncertainties, lack of confidence and motivation, and even burn-out. Examination of individual Chinese tertiary EFL teachers’ positioning and identity formation reiterated the significance of researching teacher identity to understand the complexity of language teachers’ mental life.

7.2 How Do Chinese EFL Teachers’ Beliefs, Role Identities, and Practices Differ Between Groups?

There is substantial research evidence that has shown that teachers’ prior learning experiences have a powerful impact on their beliefs (e.g., Bailey et al, 1996; Grossman, 1990; Johnson, 1999; Tsui, 2007; Zeng & Murphy, 2007). However, the difference in teachers’ beliefs about Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and traditional language teaching was non-significant in the survey study. A likely

explanation for this finding is that, in spite of the big difference in teachers' years of teaching experience, academic backgrounds, and overseas experience, their previous English learning experiences were similar. It was very likely that most of their primary and secondary school years were associated with test-oriented, traditional language teaching until they went to tertiary institutions where they began to have some exposure to new approaches of language teaching, for example, CLT, and then they started to embrace these ideas.

Three teacher characteristics were found to have an influence on teachers' practices and identities: overseas experience, ELT training, and institution type. Teachers with overseas experience were more likely to apply CLT in their classrooms compared with teachers without any overseas experience. This finding again is consistent with Goh and Chen's (2014). Many Chinese tertiary teachers have had opportunities to attend professional development courses or degree programs in foreign countries where a function-based approach, focusing on language use and communication was advocated. It was very likely that they had learned not only theories about CLT but also methods, techniques and procedures to apply communicative principles to practice. In the same vein, ELT training experience appeared to make a similar contribution to implementation of CLT at the classroom level, because ELT courses not only provided the knowledge base, "knowledge about" CLT but also equipped teachers with the methods, "knowledge how," to help translate theories into practices (Richards, 2008). A wide range of teacher change was reported in a case study of Chinese secondary EFL teachers who attended ELT training programs in the United Kingdom (Li & Edwards, 2013).

Another important factor was found to have an impact on teachers' practices and identities. As discussed in the context section in Chapter One, institution type or

category is often associated with students' academic performance and their motivation for learning in Chinese tertiary settings. With a merit-based admission system, students who have been admitted to Tier 1 institutions are usually higher achievers than those admitted to Tier 2 and Tier 3 institutions. In terms of EFL teaching and learning, teachers working in Tier 1 institutions are more likely to work with students with higher levels of English proficiency and with stronger motivation for English learning than teachers in Tier 2 and Tier 3 institutions. This may help explain the ANOVA results which suggest Tier 1 EFL teachers are more inclined to apply CLT in daily teaching while Tier 2 and 3 teachers are more prone to adopt traditional approaches.

7.3 How Have CE Teachers Constructed Individual Selves in Relation to the Promoted Communicative Approach in Local Working Environments?

To answer this question, I will draw on Bakhtin's concepts of dialogism, answerability, and addressivity to discuss how teachers have assimilated CLT-oriented beliefs, how they have negotiated with the context to develop self-identities, and how they have authored selves in teaching practice.

The central tenets of Bakhtin's dialogism include an insistence on engagement in dialogues with others as a way of living and an emphasis on human's creative acts and utterances as a form of authoring. In other words, the subject is constantly impelled by the power and authority of its circumstances while authoring self to respond. Bakhtin's conceptualization of humans living in a constant state of forming responses to the world (Holquist, 2002) suggests the self as a consummated whole, emerging out of a dialogic and transformative process of meaning negotiation. Bakhtin's dialogism purports a contextualized approach to the development of teacher cognitions and practice, and highlights the cyclic interaction between social discourses and human

agency in a dialogic manner. The case study data support a Bakhtinian understanding that teachers are active users and producers of theory in their own right (Johnson, 2006). Based on Bakhtin's dialogism and the case study findings, I bring *belief*, *identity* and *practice* together and conceptualize the teacher-self as having multiple facets and layers: the autobiographical self, the discursive self, and the pedagogical self. The three selves are constitutive of the consummated whole of the teacher self instead of being separate entities functioning individually.

7.3.1 Dialogizing with Personal Histories: The Autobiographical Self

Teachers were found to be active, responsive to their past learning histories. Teachers were actively engaged in the *dialogue* with their prior learning experiences in the form of what Bakhtin called "internal speech" (Bakhtin, 1984, p. 238). Episodes of their personal learning histories, their encounters with the language, language teachers, and various language pedagogies entered teachers' inner speeches or consciousness. These experiences and encounters provide the ground for developing values, opinions, beliefs and a sense of self. Throughout their language learning journeys, teachers had the opportunity to expose themselves to traditional approaches as well as CLT. As they experienced the different methods as learners or teachers, they gradually developing an evaluative stance toward these approaches. In particular, the three younger teachers, Tony, Nancy and Sunny, all expressed explicitly that they did not enjoy being taught with the grammar-focused, teacher-centered approach at secondary schools, and they concluded it was only instrumental for preparing them for tests and exams. Such unpleasant experiences prompted them to seek a viable alternative. Communicative Language Teaching, which advocates meaningful communication-based, student-centered methods, met these teachers' expectations and thus were accepted by them. Through reflecting on and evaluating episodes in their stories of English learning and

teaching, theorizing them with newly acquired professional knowledge and practices, they were able to create new meanings out of old stories. In other words, their understanding of the theories is populated with their own intentions and in their own voices (Bakhtin, 1981; Johnson, 2006). From a Bakhtinian perspective, this dialogic interaction between the self and its personal history is open-ended, ongoing, and “unfinalizable” (Bakhtin, 1984, p. 58) charged with creative potential. Being responsive and answerable to the autobiographical self is generative to creativity and vitality in teaching. In the case studies, three teachers were found to be actively engaged in dialogizing with their prior learning experiences through which new meanings were negotiated and generated.

In Tony, Nancy, and Sunny’s cases, it was evident that these teachers came to embrace the principles of CLT through reflecting on their lived experiences with the two pedagogical approaches. For Tony, who received language teacher training, he was also able to draw on the professional knowledge gained in teacher training programs to help him theorize and make sense of the promoted CLT. Nancy and Sunny, in contrast, relied primarily on personal learning experience and in-service teaching experience to participate in the construction and negotiation of meanings. In Tony’s case, he realized lack of language learning resources was a significant deficit in his own learning history. When he learned about the input theory of Krashen in university, it became clear to him that substantial input was essential for acquiring a foreign language. After entering teaching, he encountered the idea of “book flood” while browsing ELT literature, which later became a template for a classroom activity. Tony adapted the Book Flood activity to fit in his classroom context to make it fulfilling for both the students and himself. In addition to providing short stories for every student, he gave students opportunity to share their reading and to discuss with the teacher and fellow students to consolidate

their reading as well as provoke critical thinking among students. Nancy's learning histories were unique in that she had learned English as a second language and French as a third language. At primary and secondary schools, she was taught in a traditional approach with an emphasis on vocabulary, grammar and memorization. After she became a university teacher, she went overseas and began to take French classes. Her encounter with the French teachers, and their methods of teaching impressed her. Nancy was able to achieve a satisfactory level of French proficiency within two years, especially her oral proficiency and communication skills. Surprised by her own achievement, she began to compare and contrast her two learning experiences, and figured that the Chinese traditions of ELT were not successful in helping students develop language skills for real life communication. Nancy saw herself as a product of a function-based communicative language teaching approach. After she returned to her university, she began to practice CLT and adapted CLT to accommodate to her teaching context. Through implementation and adaptation of CLT in her own way, Nancy claimed ownership of meanings of CLT. In Nancy's and Tony's cases, CLT was no longer a distant officially sanctioned pedagogy in policy documents and guidelines. Populated with individual teachers' voices and intentions, CLT had been internalized and became their personalized pedagogy.

Previous research has shown that teachers' experience as learners has a key influence on teachers' cognitions and instructional practices, or that prior learning experiences shape teachers' beliefs and practices (e.g., Grossman, 1990; Johnson, 1994). The dialogic interaction or double-voicedness implies a two-sided meaning exchange, while shaping is a one-directional act in which the former gives a definite form of the latter. In Bakhtin's view, one-sidedness, or being monologic, leads to stagnation and dying out. Lortie (1975) identified teaching based on imitation as

apprenticeship of observation, as opposed to individual decision making. Such apprenticeships of observation can be helpful to get novice teachers started, but it can lead to potential stagnation in professional development. My argument, however, based on the case study data, is that teachers are capable of engaging in a dialogic relationship with their learning histories and lived experience. The ongoing, unfinalizable dialogue is conducive to sustained professional development and learning.

7.3.2 Dialogizing with Multiple Social and Contextual Discourses: The Discursive Self

Teachers were active and responsive in answering their contexts. The *discursive self* is constructed through interaction with multiple social discourses and forces (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Miller, 2004). Discursive selves characterize the way teachers speak and talk as well how they act and react in particular social situations. The discursive self is the product of a particular sociocultural era. A teacher's articulated teaching philosophy, pedagogical choice, and relationship with students and others are embodiments of the discursive self. As described in the detailed case studies, the five teachers coming from three levels of tertiary institutions were all surrounded by a complexity of multiple contextual discourses. Apart from the inner voices coming from within each teacher, they were also compelled to listen to and respond to the voices of their students, their departments, institutions, materials or textbooks, the curriculum and its requirements, as well as the broader social context outside of universities. The heteroglossia of multiple social discourses with each representing a different ideological system often causes a cacophony in self rather than a coherent harmony (see Table 7.1 and Figure 7.2).

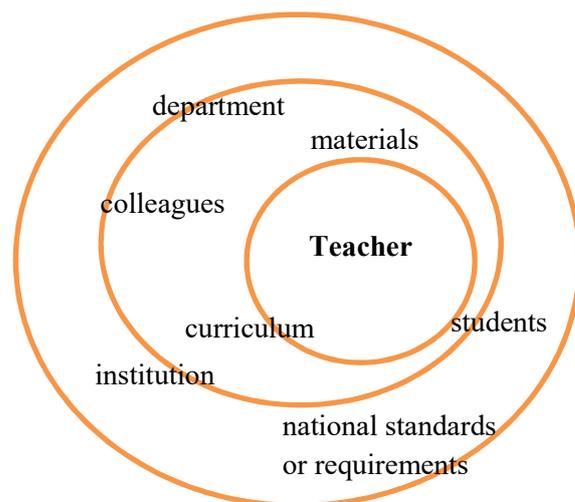


Figure 7.2. Matrix of plural discourses enclosing the teacher.

In Figure 7.2, the teacher is enclosed by a matrix of social and contextual factors, and each represents a discourse that is oriented toward either the traditional teaching approach or CLT (see Table 7.1). Teachers' awareness of such influences and their ways of responding to them constitute the formation of a teacher identity, and it has been found from the five teachers' stories that teachers' metacognition and positioning strategies varied significantly when facing heteroglossia. Tony and Nancy revealed themselves as advocates for the communicative teaching approach and they consistently positioned themselves as such in the way they talked about and enacted their identities. Although they were tempted to lean towards the traditional approach by the contextual constraints, such as the required allegiance to textbook and the large class size, they strived to work against all odds to create conditions and opportunities for communicative language learning to uphold a communicative orientation of their lessons. On the contrary, Jessie and Ellen's ways of responding were submissive; in spite of intentions to teach communicatively, their sense of helplessness and resignation was profound so they allowed the traditional discourse to take the upper hand. The five teachers' stories clearly show that negotiating with multiple social discourses to

construct a discursive self has become an important part of a teacher's professional life as teaching is a highly situated activity, echoing the findings emerged from Johnston's (1997) and Menard-Warwick's (2011) studies. The process is dialogic and open-ended as Jessie and Ellen's cases have shown: the discursive self of the EFL teacher is negotiated and renegotiated along the teachers' entire career cycles.

Table 7.1 *Contextual Discourses of Heteroglossia*

| Contextual Discourses | Traditionalism | CLT |
|---|----------------|-----|
| <i>College English Curriculum Requirements (2007)</i> | | + |
| Social political rhetoric | | + |
| Institutional context | + | |
| Departments (policy making) | | + |
| Departments (lack of support and training) | + | |
| Students (motivated, high proficiency) | | + |
| Students (unmotivated, low proficiency, freshmen) | + | |
| Textbook (CLT-oriented) | | + |
| Textbook (traditional) | + | |

(+ indicates the particular factor in favor of the corresponding teaching approach)

7.3.3 Authoring Self and Pedagogy: The Pedagogical Self

The last facet of the teacher-self accentuates EFL teacher's self-autonomy, agency and creativity. Teachers create their own space of teaching and pedagogy as answerability. Bakhtin was explicitly concerned with the themes of selves authoring signifying spaces and voices embedded in discourse (Vitanova, 2005). He calls the process of analyzing the context and interpreting our worlds, *active responsive*

understanding, and this process is both dialogic and creative. Bakhtin portrays the selves as self-defining in nature fused with the possibility to author (Holquist, 2002; Vitanova, 2010). Agency is therefore defined as one's ability to go beyond what is given and forge something new, through the combination of unrelated discourses, the invention of words and concepts, or through imaging alternatives and possibilities (Davies, 2000). Central to the notion of authoring is active engagement with one's situation and the distinctiveness of one's responses: answerability/responsibility and the emotional-volitional tone (Bakhtin, 1993; Vitanova, 2005). Answerability refers to selves as responsible human beings putting individual signatures beneath actions. That said, Bakhtin recognizes that our response to the world is imbued with a particular, distinctive intonation, the emotional-volitional tone (a complex of one's feelings, desires, and moral evaluations) (Vitanova, 2005). Teachers' personalized pedagogies therefore can be conceived as responses to the world. The distinctiveness and creativity of each response underlie the act of life authoring as answerability. Based on the above understanding, the pedagogical self refers to how teachers establish authority in teaching practice, in other words, how they reveal themselves as teachers. It is concerned with how teachers project themselves, their ownership of the content, ideas and voice; and how they author their personhood and everyday acts in EFL teaching. This pedagogical self or self as an author can be considered as an extension of the autobiographical self in that the teacher's inner dialogue with his or her life history may have generated ideas to create something new. It is also intimately tied to the discursive self in that consciousness, voices, and behaviors are all situated and context-specific in order to have a meaning, so it is impossible to separate acts from thought or the social context. A sense of teacher self emerges as teachers authentically and volitionally

participate in socio-cultural practices from a particular physical and social location, at a particular time, through social interactions with responsive interlocutors.

The creative nature is foregrounded in the pedagogical self. Tony's, Nancy's, Sunny's and Ellen's narratives and teaching practices exemplified the everyday creativity of Bakhtin's answerability. Tony's design of the Book Flood activity enabled him to transform the solitary reading act into a communicative literature circle that facilitated students' reading comprehension and communication of meanings. Nancy integrated cultural knowledge and learning into the teaching of vocabulary and everyday English to connect English with students' real life and stimulate their interest. Sunny experimented with the process writing approach and used translation for contrastive analysis to help students better understand the linguistic differences between the two languages. Ellen's story sharing and improvised teaching is also a variation of pedagogical creativity that enabled her to bond with students and helped her to discover the rewarding part of teaching. As in Menard-Warwick's study (2011), a dialogic approach to teacher identity reveals the various aspirations teachers attempt to display in their day-to-day work (Akkerman & Meijer, 2011).

7.3.4 The Three Facets of Self

Based on the case study data, the above discussion connected belief, practice and identity and viewed them as a multifaceted and consummated whole. Figure 7.3 illustrates *the dialogic teacher self*, constitutive of the autobiographical self, the discursive self and the pedagogical self. The resemblance of the autobiographical selves in the five teachers was evident. Teachers entered into a dialogue with their own English learning histories, through which, particularly, they developed an evaluation toward the traditional approach and came to embrace CLT later in university or after they began teaching. What is noteworthy is that their individual uptake of CLT carries what

Bakhtin called an emotional-volitional tone (a complex of personal desires, preferences, emotions and evaluations) (Bakhtin, 1993). When the autobiographical selves were placed in individual teaching contexts with a number of variables, like students, the curriculum and the institutional context, teachers were faced with a heteroglossia and, at the same time, entered into another dialogic space having to negotiate with each of the variables. In the dialogic space, these factors are not perceived as having a fixed value. Rather, teachers tended to turn them into speaking subjects and discourses representing different ideological systems. Hence, the discursive selves were constructed through negotiating and renegotiating with these variable discourses. Teachers were compelled to voice or position themselves in relation to the social discourses, as well as respond to them. The pedagogical self reflects how individual teachers respond to the context through authoring their personhood and everyday acts in EFL teaching.

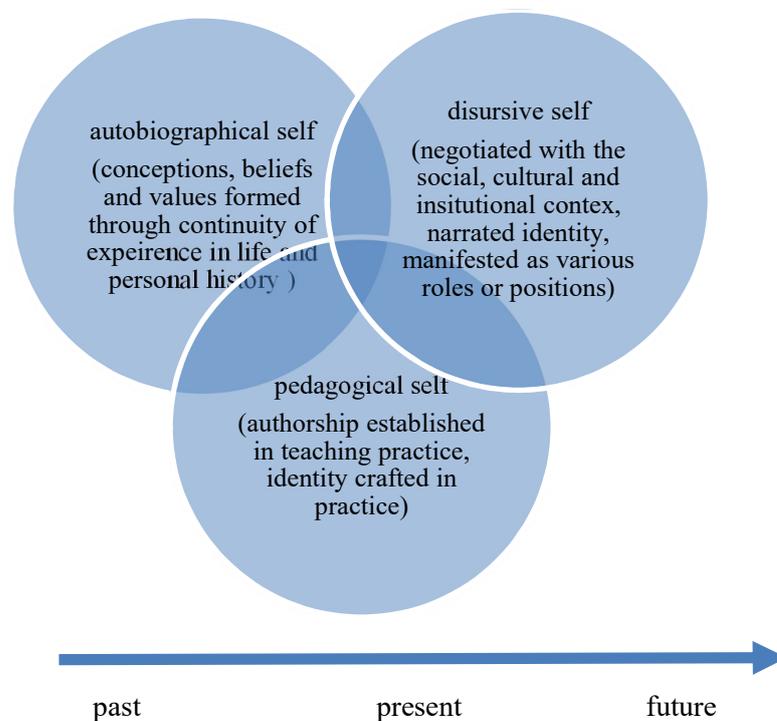


Figure 7.3 The dialogic teacher self.

7.4 What Are the Challenges or Difficulties Hindering Teachers' Application of Communicative Approaches?

Studies in the Chinese context or in similar east Asian contexts (Japan and Hong Kong) have reported that language teachers held positive view of CLT but relied on traditional teaching practices to carry on teaching (e.g., Richards & Pennington, 1998; Sato & Klensasser, 1999) and they attributed such incongruence to situational constraints—large classes, unmotivated students, examination pressures, prescribed syllabi, student's limited language proficiency, students' resistance to new teaching methods and heavy workloads (Richards & Pennington, 1998). Similarly, in the current study, teachers' discourses revealed a number of factors that posed challenges for applying the communication-oriented methodology. Teachers highlighted three categories of challenges: the students, the institutional context, and the curriculum and materials.

7.4.1 The Students

First, the lack of student motivation was common across different levels of tertiary institutions. Four teachers (except Nancy) explicitly reported that students' motivation for learning English was minimal and they found it very difficult to stimulate students' interest, to get them involved, and to hold them accountable for English learning. The decrease of students' motivation and interest in learning English is associated with the status of CE as a subject in tertiary institutions. It has been reported in the literature that CE is being marginalized (see Cai, 2010; Pan & Block, 2011; Ruan & Jacob, 2009). Likewise, in the three institutions, CET-4 and CET-6 were no longer a requirement for graduation and, therefore, students tended to neglect CE and would rather devote their time to their major courses which were directly associated with their future benefits. The other student factor was related to the fact that students'

learning characteristics were found to be different from teachers' teaching approaches. This was particularly significant for freshmen students and students with lower English proficiency. Sunny was particularly sensitized to the students' diffidence toward English learning and the utilitarianism they inherited from previous high school English education. Sunny was astonished by her students who were still adhering to the traditional methods of English learning, heavily relying on rote memory without paying attention to the meaning and context. Ellen, with her less capable English learners, struggled to implement group activities which demanded higher language proficiency and more student involvement. The student factor seemed to be the most formidable challenge for which teachers often experienced stress, tensions, and helplessness. Some teachers found themselves having to submit to the ingrained old traditions of teaching in their daily practice. Ellen's story is a case in point. Although she explicitly embraced the communicative orientation and demonstrated her willingness to use communicative approaches with her students, her efforts rarely met success. She commented that "students were not able to respond or cooperate." (E-INT-2-10~11)

7.4.2 The Institutional Context

Within each institutional environment, the university administration and the College English department demonstrated different levels of interest and support for CE teaching. For example, Tony and Jessie found the dismissive discourses circulating in their institutions had undermined students' motivation for CE learning. The lack of institutional and departmental support therefore contributed to the lowering of their morale, and influenced teachers' intentionality which includes cognition, emotion and motivation (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). In terms of the availability of ongoing professional development, in some institutions, such as in Sunny's case, the CE departments failed to build a professional learning network in support of regular

collegial interaction and professional training. This has left the teachers, particularly novice teachers without ELT training, struggling and fumbling for a long time before they are able to establish their own pedagogy.

7.4.3 The Curriculum and Materials

Teachers reported that neither the official curriculum guide nor the textbook had provided them with the specificity teachers desired to plan and implement teaching activities. On the one hand, the goals in the curriculum requirements were too general to help teachers to generate specific detailed plans. On the other hand, there was a lack of consistency over the selection of textbooks in tertiary institutions. Teachers complained about frequent changes of textbooks and the extra work this involved to plan new lessons each year. Moreover, textbooks were often compiled with a particular pedagogical orientation. Most of the recently published textbooks support CLT, which is particularly true of the Speaking and Listening textbooks, whereas some older textbooks were still written in a traditional format which dictates a Presentation-Practice-Production teaching sequence. Table 7.2 summarizes the challenges and difficulties teachers highlighted in the case studies.

In summary, the factors emerged from teachers' interviews in this study corresponded with Xiang and Borg's (2014) findings of the constraints hindering Chinese CE teachers' displaying the behaviors what they considered as ideal. Not surprisingly, such challenges and difficulties, or disrupting discourses, caused strong emotions and tensions in teachers as if they were being pulled in opposing directions. While their CLT-favored beliefs drove them to implement communicative activities, the constraint-laden reality pushed them toward a more traditional, teacher-fronted, textbook-based teaching approach. They often felt it difficult to carry on teaching, not knowing how to position themselves, and experiencing professional disengagement,

and even burnout. Three teachers, Tony, Nancy and Ellen, instead of being subjugated to these crippling discourses, used different identity strategies to alleviate the tension to sustain teaching and develop their own situated ways of CLT practices.

Table 7.2 *Challenges and Difficulties in Tertiary EFL Teaching*

| Teacher | Challenges and Difficulties |
|---------|--|
| Tony | Students lacking motivation; unfavorable institutional context, CE being constantly demoted; lack of resources; constrained by the textbook. |
| Nancy | Big class; not enough time to cover the content; lack of collegial interaction; the gap/tensions between authentic language use and exams. |
| Sunny | Students diminishing motivation; lack of professional knowledge including pedagogical content knowledge and linguistic knowledge; lack of support from the department or experienced teachers. |
| Jessie | Students lacking motivation; enthusiasm diminishing and experiencing “burnout”; heavy work-load. |
| Ellen | Students’ diversity in language proficiency ranging from very low to moderately high; students’ lack of interest in English class; big class. |

7.5 How Do Teachers Use Identity and Strategic Positioning to Resolve Potential Epistemological and Contextual Tensions to Survive and Thrive in Teaching?

7.5.1 The Dialogical Self and Positioning

Beijaard et al. (2004), along with many other researchers, have found that identity formation is often presented as a struggle because teachers have to make sense of varying and sometimes competing perspectives, expectations, and roles that they have to confront and adapt to. In reviewing the different challenges and difficulties facing Chinese tertiary EFL teachers which emerged from the case studies, I found that teachers varied in their ways of responding to challenges, and through adopting

distinctive positioning strategies, they learned to cope with the challenges or crises in their teaching lives.

To address the last research question, I will bring the notions of dialogical self and positioning to bear on the complex process of Chinese tertiary EFL teacher's identity formation. According to Hermans (2014), the multiplicity of self and identity is a result of many different I-positions fluctuating in complex dialogical relations. The dialogical self is conceived as a dynamic multiplicity of I-positions in the society of mind. My survey results and qualitative case study data showed that Chinese tertiary EFL teachers (1) assumed multiple positions as ways of responding to the heteroglossic teaching context; (2) used strategic and dynamic positioning to resolve tensions and conflicts.

7.5.2 Multiple I-positions

Many scholars (e.g., Hermans, 2001a, 2001b, 2012, 2013, 2014; Hermans & Hermans-Konopka, 2010; Raggatt, 2012) involved in the development of Dialogical Self Theory (DST) posit that the self at the locus of multiple dialogical relations can be conceived as an extended position repertoire. The self emerges from an interconnection with the social context and is intrinsically bound to particular positions in time and space. It is a spatiotemporal process in which the *I* fluctuates among different, contradictory or even opposed positions both within the self and between self and perceived, remembered or imagined others (Hermans, 2014).

The recognition that teacher identity is multiple and fluid in the sense of multiple I-positions has enabled us better to understand teachers' varying perspectives in particular in a conflictive context, as in China. Teachers in the survey study and the case studies were found to have multiple identities. The plural sub-identities reflect the

ongoing process of construction of teachers' relationships with various social subjects and contexts. With respect to the survey results, teachers identified more strongly with the roles as the motivator, the facilitator and the reflective practitioner/researcher, than the role as the book teacher. These results corroborated findings from the belief questionnaire in that the first three roles were closely associated with a communicative orientation of English teaching while the last role aligned with the traditional orientation of English teaching. Teachers take on and shift between these I-positions in response to their conflictive context. Specifically, when teaching the book in compliance with the unified syllabus and helping students to prepare for tests, teachers were addressing the requirements set by the authority of the department and university. When practicing CLT, they switched to the role as facilitators and motivators and this can be seen as responding to the calls of English education reform, to the expectations of the society and the globalized world. As they modified content and integrated both approaches, teachers were responding to their own philosophies of teaching as well as the needs of different levels of learners. Lastly, when they were engaged in research on EFL teaching and related topics, they took on the identity as a researcher. Looking at the multiple I-positions has enabled us better to understand the teacher as an active participant with a specific identity at a particular moment in a specific context. In continuous attempt to synthesizing these different parts, teachers find coherence in self which makes them being historically meaningful and recognizable through time (Akkerman & Meijer, 2011).

7.5.3 Dynamic Positioning

Positioning processes with its dynamic arrangements are at play on multiple levels in all kinds of human activities, e.g., in our internal dialogues, in our relationships, in the social orders we inhabit and in our cultural activities, such as learning and

teaching. In everyday teaching, teachers experience the perpetual tension arising from the centripetal and centrifugal forces. The centralizing movements motivate teachers to embrace and implement the promoted teaching approach CLT; however, the decentralizing forces drive teachers to deviate away from this approach. Dwelling at the nexus of centripetal and centrifugal forces, the five Chinese tertiary EFL teachers employed a number of positioning strategies to grapple with the centrifugal forces to survive or thrive in teaching. Table 7.3 summarizes the five teachers' positioning strategies and experiences in response to their individual challenges and difficulties in teaching.

Table 7.3 *Teachers' Positioning Strategies and Experiences*

| Teacher | Challenges and Difficulties (Centrifugal Forces) | Positioning Strategies/Experiences |
|---------------------------------|--|--|
| Tony (Active Resolver) | Students lacking motivation; unfavorable institutional context, CE being constantly demoted; lack of resources; constrained by the textbook | Meta-position, coalitions of positions, third-position |
| Nancy (Active Resolver) | Big class; not enough time to cover the content; lack of collegial interaction; the gap/tensions between authentic language use and exams | Meta-position, coalitions of positions |
| Sunny (Identity Seeker) | Students diminishing motivation; lack of professional knowledge, in particular pedagogical content knowledge; lack of support from the department or experienced teachers. | Unsuccessful positioning experience, cacophonous positioning |
| Jessie (Passive Resolver) | Students lacking motivation; her enthusiasm diminishing and experiencing "burnout"; heavy workload. | Barren, monological positioning |

| | | |
|--------------------------------|---|---|
| Ellen (Passive Resolver) | Students low language proficiency; limited motivation; big class size. | Meta-positioning (compensatory function) |
|--------------------------------|---|---|

7.5.3.1 *Meta-positioning*

According to Hermans and Hermans-Konopka (2010), a meta-position emerges as the *I* leaves a specific position or a multitude of positions and observes these positions from the outside which serves as a reflection act. Hermans and Hermans-Konopka further illustrate three functions a meta-position serves in a one's identity construction: unifying, executing, and liberating. Take Tony's case as an example. He developed an *I-position* as an inspirational English teacher after considering and reflecting on his position repertoire, and this meta-position helped him organize his teaching, build coherence, and manage even conflicting internal and external positions. In addition to the unifying function, this meta-position also had an executive function in that it served as a basis for instructional decision-making and directions that led to the formation of his particular teaching style. As a liberating factor, this meta-position emancipated Tony from habitual behavior arising from ordinary and well established traditional positions of Chinese EFL teachers, and afforded him the freedom to develop his own teaching repertoire, a combination of traditional and communicative elements. In analyzing Ellen's story, I have added a compensatory function to the meta-position to extend Hermans and Hermans-Konopka's theorization. Ellen developed a meta-position—*I as an educator, a teacher in general*—above her position as a university EFL teacher and, increasingly, this meta-position gained dominance over other positions which helped to offset undesirable feelings arising from being placed in the field of two incompatible positions (*I* as a traditional book teacher versus *I* as a tertiary EFL teacher promoting CLT). Although pedagogically, Ellen was not practicing what

she cognitively embraced, the communicative student-centered teaching, she found compensation and reward in the position of *a life mentor, an educator* who cared about students' personal development.

7.5.3.2 Third position

When two positions are involved in a conflict, they can find, under specific conditions, a third position of conciliation. A third position therefore implies semiotic mediation, and is defined as fulfilling a primarily integrating role (Raggatt, 2012). Developing a third position was seen in Tony's identity construction. Tony's integrative pedagogical approach manifested a conciliation of two conflicting identities in a third position. He was seen to be performing the very traditional teaching procedures, like presenting to the whole class and checking students' answers, as well as highly interactive and communication-focused teaching activities, for example, initiating an open discussion with students and having students read short stories for meaning and enjoyment. Third positioning helped Tony mitigate the tension and conflict between traditional versus communicative dichotomy. This strategic process bridged the gap between two worlds and interconnected his pedagogically opposing I-positions in a way that provided significant coherence and consistency.

7.5.3.3 Coalitions of positions

Hermans and Hermans-Konopka (2010) observe that people typically organize the position repertoire in such a way that one or two positions or voices dominate the repertoire. These positions do not work in isolation but cooperate with one another. That is, dominant positions usually have their companions, helpers and auxiliaries. When they work together in coalitions, they contribute significantly to the continuity and unity of the self. In Tony' and Nancy's position repertoires, they both have

developed coalitions of positions that supported each other and formed stabilizing forces in the internal and external selves. In Tony's position repertoire, I as a presenter, I as a learning guide and facilitator, I as a controller of teaching activities and teacher-student interaction, and I as a co-communicator formed a coalition to support and reinforce the more dominant position, I as an inspirational English teacher. Likewise, Nancy's coalitions of I as a cultural transmitter, I as a behavior manager, and I as a friend and an interlocutor contributed to her overarching position as a learning facilitator and the development of her distinctive teaching style. Tony and Nancy's cases illustrated the cooperation of positions and how adaptive coalitions of positions can facilitate the construction of pedagogical selves.

A coalition of positions can become maladaptive if the time and situation change and some positions may turn into undesirable positions and be experienced as negative (Hermans & Hermans-Konopka, 2010). Jessie's experience is illustrative of this point. In her fourth year of teaching, Jessie had the opportunity to offer electives in *American Literature* for non-English majors. Jessie was able to experiment with contemporary ideas of teaching (e.g., CLT, interactive writing, and group learning activities), and drew on her knowledge in American and English literature to help students to improve their English skills. Her positions as a CLT-oriented English teacher and an American Literature specialist cooperated with one another to fulfill Jessie's instructional purpose and gave her a sense of accomplishment. But, when she worked with non-English majors at the basic level, this coalition of positions failed to work so the two positions became undesirable positions. Eventually, Jessie relinquished these positions and regressed to the older traditions of ELT and adopted a dominant position as a scripted textbook EFL teacher.

7.5.3.4 Cacophonous positioning and barren, monological positioning

The *heteroglossia* of multiple social discourses with each representing a different ideological system often causes a cacophony in self rather than a coherent harmony. Cacophonous positioning is characterized by an experience of hearing a number of voices speaking to an individual simultaneously that leads to difficulties in managing position repertoires. Sunny was overwhelmed in a storm of simultaneous but competing discourses so her I-positions fluctuated along the continuum between communicative and traditional orientations. But she was willing to enact her agency through active engagement with her situation to resolve the tensions. Through self-study, Sunny expanded her teaching repertoire and her continuous reflection and evaluation of her own practice contributed to her professional growth. Ellen was also experiencing a cacophony in which the communicative teacher self and the traditional teacher self were both attempting to take the upper hand in her mind. Jessie experienced a barren, monological self, a state of being locked within one position—I as a scripted textbook teacher. Her imagined identities of ideals were silenced to give way to the dominant I-position of a textbook teacher. Pedagogically, her approach to resolve this tension was not proactive in that she chose to align her practices with the traditional way. Sunny and Jessie's unsuccessful positioning experiences gave rise to negative emotions in teaching: uncertainties, lack of confidence and motivation, and even burn-out.

7.5.4 Patterns of Identity Development Trajectories

Based on the data presented in Chapter Six, three patterns of identity formation were discerned: the active identity resolver, the identity seeker and the passive identity resolver. Active identity resolvers, as in the cases of Tony and Nancy, do not allow themselves to be crippled by the unfavorable contextual discourses. Rather, they are

determined to confront challenges by exercising agency to resolve the conflicts and tensions. For active identity resolvers, tensions and conflicts arising from competing pedagogical discourses and contextual constraints become a fertile basis for creativity and new possibilities. Active identity resolvers are creative subjects willing to invest energy in going beyond what is given to seek new alternatives and use dynamic positioning strategies to actively engage in their situations as a form of addressivity. The identity seekers, seen in the case of Sunny, refers to the CE teachers who are aware of the competing discourses and are struggling to resolve their own position to survive and sustain teaching CE in tertiary settings. Identity seekers may find themselves immersed in a complex matrix of heteroglossia or social discourses with their I-positions fluctuating under the influence of centrifugal and centripetal forces. Identity seekers are also willing to invest their agency to resolve conflicts and tensions but they need to learn how to use positioning strategies, for example, meta-positioning or third positioning, to manage identity conflicts. In addition, external support, for instance professional training provided by the institution or guidance from experienced teachers, can be helpful especially for teachers without previous ELT training to navigate through the process. Passive resolvers are sensitive to crippling discourses and adopt a safe strategy by returning to the known, the traditional teaching approach, as in the case of Jessie and Ellen. Jessie and Ellen, when confronted with the many challenges and contextual constraints, disowned the positive positions as a CLT teacher and appropriated the opposing position as a traditional teacher. The difference between the two teachers was their use of different positioning strategies. Being locked within a singular, diminished position, Jessie was experiencing a *monological, barren* self, in which the multiple self-facets were unable to meaningfully interact with another. As a result, a state of frustration and lack of motivation followed, in which Jessie felt herself

as being helpless and empty. However, Ellen was able to extend her position repertoire by creating a meta-position, *I as a life mentor* to compensate for her negative feelings stemming from her reluctant disowning of CLT. Gradually, this position gained dominance as it offered emotional reward and continuous motivation for Ellen as a university teacher.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSION

The concluding chapter begins with a summary of the key findings of the study. It will then outline the main contributions this study makes to the existing theory and research in the field of language teacher cognition, and discuss the implications for professional development, tertiary English Language Teaching (ELT), and policy making. It will also address the limitations of the study and make suggestions on how future research could build on the findings of this study.

8.1 Summary of Major Findings

8.1.1 Chinese Tertiary EFL Teachers' Beliefs, Practices, and Identities

This mixed-methods research aimed to explore EFL teacher beliefs and identities in relation to classroom practices in the Chinese tertiary context. The major findings emerged from both the survey and case studies are summarized as follows.

First, despite the concerns expressed in the literature over the acceptability of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the Chinese context (e.g., Hu, 2005a, Jin & Cortazzi, 2006; Lu & Ares, 2015; Rao, 1996), the survey results show that university EFL teachers have cognitively accepted the CLT doctrines advocated by the national reform agencies and associated departments. They agree that the primary goal of English education is to help students to develop practical language skills to appropriately use English for interpersonal communication, and prefer a student-centered teaching style over the traditional teacher-dominated instructional mode. Teachers' favorable disposition to a communicative teaching methodology echoes the

national reform which has been implemented across China since the 1990s, and it seems that it has begun to shape communicative teaching practices in College English classrooms. The *Teaching Practice Questionnaire (TPQ)* results indicate the majority of these tertiary EFL teachers mainly use English as the medium of instruction, frequently or very frequently engage students in authentic communications, writing activities, and employ group activities. Meanwhile, it has been found approximately 30% to 40% of the participating teachers still frequently or very frequently apply traditional approaches (TA) in their classrooms in spite of their acceptance of the communicative conceptions and principles. Such practices have deep roots in the traditional language classrooms, for instance, using Chinese for instruction, sentence-by-sentence explanation of the text, modelling and reinforcement for language patterns, doing word dictations, and translation exercises. The survey findings acknowledge the hybrid nature of Chinese university EFL teachers' cognitions and practices, and suggest viewing them as a continuum rather than a dichotomous either/or.

Second, in terms of collective identities, it has been found from the survey results that Chinese tertiary EFL teachers identify strongly with the role as a Motivator and Advocate for English Learning, a Facilitator for English Learning, a Reflective Practitioner and Researcher, but refuse to be a scripted Book Teacher. Compared with the results from the *BALLTQ*, it can be concluded that teachers' perceptions on identities are generally consistent with their beliefs about language learning and teaching. Teachers' identification with these role identities reflect their collective views about their roles and positions as tertiary EFL teachers.

Third, three teacher characteristics have been identified to have an impact on the variations in teachers' practices and identities: overseas experience, ELT training, and institution type. Teachers with overseas experience or ELT training experience

more frequently use communicative language teaching approaches. Teachers who work at Tier 1 institutions are more likely to practice CLT than their counterparts in Tier 2 and Tier 3 institutions.

Fourth, the in-depth case studies of individual teachers shed light on the relationship between beliefs and practices. It has been revealed that thinking and doing is complex and dynamic because the presence of multiple contextual discourses in the multi-voiced self complicates the relationship between beliefs and practices, and makes it non-linear and sometimes unpredictable. Teachers have been found to swing between the communicative and traditional orientations in practice depending on their perceived readiness of students and the local working environment. Furthermore, teachers' abilities to transform disrupting contextual discourses and overcome difficulties to apply the promoted CLT varied: some teachers were capable of assuming responsibility and power in adapting the material and curriculum, and in creating new meanings of the content to be taught in their everyday classrooms; whereas others lacked agency or professional skills in transforming the TA-favored working conditions, and they resorted to traditional approaches as a safe strategy.

Finally, the five teachers' stories of constructing selves or identities in teaching showed that identities, the teacher's sense of self, are important in enhancing teachers' awareness of teaching, mediating the tensions arising from misalignments between cognitions and behaviors, and building coherence and structure in their practices. Three patterns of identity formation were portrayed in the case studies: the active identity resolver, the identity seeker, and the passive identity resolver. The multiple case studies also highlighted CE teachers' struggle of positioning in between communicative and traditional pedagogical discourses which threaded through their identity formation, and concluded that being able to manage the multiple positions and develop one's own

voice was vital for teachers to prevail in this identity struggle. The five individual teacher's stories confirmed that teaching is not simply applying knowledge or beliefs into practice; it is a way of being and positioning oneself in a particular working context, an on-going dialogical process that runs through the teacher's entire teaching career.

8.1.2 Conclusion

Based on Bakhtin's dialogism and the case study findings, I proposed a dialogical model to view teachers' beliefs, practices, and identities from a holistic, dialogic perspective (see Figure 7.3 in Chapter Seven). I brought *belief*, *identity* and *practice* together and conceptualized the teacher self as having multiple facets and layers: the autobiographical self, the discursive self, and the pedagogical self. The autobiographical self acknowledges that teachers came to teaching with their own personal histories which provided the base for developing beliefs and conceptions of ELT. When the autobiographical selves are met with teaching contexts which contain a number of variables, such as students, the curriculum and the institutional context, teachers are faced with a heteroglossia; and simultaneously enter into a dialogic space requiring them to negotiate with each of the variables. The discursive selves are therefore constructed through negotiating and renegotiating with these variable discourses. The discursive self emphasizes that teachers' teaching practices are highly situated activities, a result of dialogic interactions and negotiations of meanings. Surrounded by a complexity of multiple discourses, teachers are compelled to position themselves in relation to the social discourses, as well as respond to them. The pedagogical self reflects how individual teachers respond to the context through authoring their personhood and everyday acts in EFL teaching.

Overall, this model purports a Bakhtinian contextualized approach to the development of teacher cognitions and practice, and highlights the cyclic interaction between social discourses and human agency in a dialogic manner.

8.2 Contributions of the Study

8.2.1 Theoretical and Empirical Contributions

This mixed-method study on Chinese tertiary EFL teachers' beliefs, practices, and identities makes several theoretical and empirical contributions to the field of language teacher cognition research.

First, this study contributes to the development of theories on EFL teaching and EFL teacher cognition by offering contextualized understanding of EFL teachers' cognitions and practices in the Chinese context. There has been mounting criticism and debates as to how language teaching approaches originated in a context of English as a second language (ESL), such as CLT, to be introduced, contextualized, and adapted in EFL contexts, such as mainland China, Japan, Korea, and Middle East (Butler, 2011; Littlewood, 2007; Lu & Ares, 2015; Zhang, 2010b, 2015). The current study provided rich data of how teachers may have the capacity to contextualize and adapt the promoted communicative approach in Chinese tertiary EFL settings, while maintaining authenticity in accordance with CLT principles. The findings of this study, therefore, add to our current knowledge about language teacher cognition specifically in the Chinese EFL context.

Second, this study addresses the complexity of teachers' mental life by taking a holistic approach to investigating the interrelationship and intersection between beliefs, practices, and identities. The field of teacher cognition is largely fragmented (Borg, 2015; Kubanyiova, 2012) in that research has tended to focus on isolated constructs,

but rarely has investigated teaching as an interrelated whole comprising functional relationship between thinking and action (Marcos & Tillema, 2006). Kubanyiova (2012) poignantly points out that

we have tended to focus on measuring isolated constructs in an isolated manner without setting them in a bigger picture of what the teachers are, what they are striving to accomplish in their interactions and their students, colleagues, and parents and why. We do not know how what teachers think, believe and know relates to what they are passionate about, who they yearn to become and how they negotiate and, even more importantly, transcend images and expectations in the social, cultural, and historical macro-structures of their teaching world (p. 23).

Taking a holistic perspective, the present study has addressed the question Kubanyiova raised by going beyond the belief-practice relationship and including an investigation of teachers' situated identities from a dialogical positioning perspective for an in-depth examination of how teachers conceptualized their work, how they negotiated multiple contextual discourses, and how they employed identity strategies to respond to their contexts.

Third, my discussion of teachers' cognition, practice and identities, drawing on Bakhtin's notions of dialogism, answerability, heteroglossia, authoritative discourse, and internally persuasive discourse, highlights teachers' subjectivities and agency. Bakhtin's philosophy of the self as an author, whose existence pivots on creative answerability, allows disempowered individuals to transcend their subjective position. Hence, language teachers are no longer conceived as being locked in fixed social positions as passive recipients of social order as suggested in many previous teacher

cognition studies (cf. Farrell & Kun, 2008; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Richards & Pennington, 1998). Rather, teachers as creative Bakhtinian subjects are capable of authoring their own consciousness, utterances and acts through dialogic activities, a point has been reiterated in recent studies (cf. Tsui, 2007; Kubanyiova, 2012).

8.2.2 Methodological Contributions

This study adopted a mixed-methods research design, combining questionnaire survey and case study methods. It contributes to the discussions on methodological issues in teacher cognition research. First, large-scale surveys are a commonly used method for language teacher cognition research, but factor analysis has been rarely applied to identify the structures of Chinese EFL teachers' beliefs, practices and identities. Although the CLT-oriented ELT reform has been underway for decades, we do not know yet how these conceptions have been taken up by the local Chinese EFL teachers. On the other hand, little is known about Chinese EFL teachers' collective identities. The Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) procedure in this study helped to identify the characteristics of the Chinese university EFL teacher's beliefs, practices, and identities by grouping items into mathematically conceptually meaningful pools. The second contribution lies in the processing of qualitative data; in particular combining structural analysis and thematic analysis to process and analyze teachers' narratives allowed me to have a diachronic view of teachers' lived experience to see how beliefs and identities evolved, as well as zoom in on specific events or critical incidents to examine the interactions between teacher selves and their working contexts.

8.2.3 Practical Contributions

The findings of this study may contribute to the improvement of ELT in tertiary institutions by offering up-to-date knowledge about university EFL teachers' cognitions. To begin with, the factor structures identified by this study, which

accentuate *the Chinese characteristics* of Chinese EFL teachers' cognitions and practices, can be a point of departure for designing located language teacher education or professional development programs. In addition, identification of the multiple social discourses, including past and present authoritative discourses is essential because they are always in dialogical interactions with teachers' internally persuasive ones. Education policies and reform need to take into account such influential discourses when importing western methods as they will affect the extent to which EFL teachers are willing or able to implement promoted teaching approaches or curricular renovations.

8.3 Implications

8.3.1 Implications for EFL Teaching and Teacher Development

Based on the findings and discussion presented in previous chapters, the following implications have been drawn for EFL teaching and teacher development in the Chinese context.

First, to improve EFL teaching, it is necessary for institutions, departments, and teacher development programs to help teachers invest in "identity capital" (Matthys, 2013, p. 59) to become self-authoring knowers, or, in other words, to increase self-awareness of their own beliefs, roles, and practices as well as the underlying reasons behind their pedagogical decisions. From a dialogical perspective, the development of the teacher self is understood as gradually emerging from individual development in the process of positioning and repositioning until eventually the *I* arrives at a point at which the self is aware of itself, being able to define itself, appropriating some parts of the environment and rejecting other parts, as in the cases of Tony, Nancy, and Ellen. Once emerged, the self is involved in a process of appropriation and rejection and

develops agency as a capacity to organize the self (Hermans & Hermans-Konopka, 2010).

It is unrealistic to expect that teachers become self-authoring knowers automatically. Institutions and departments as shareholders can serve as catalysts to facilitate this process. It is recommended that faculty meetings or teacher development programs provide opportunities for dialogical exchange and personal reflection to help teachers develop self-regulating capacities, including the capacity to reflect on their multiple roles; to construct theories about their relationships, and have an understanding of how the past, present and future relate to each other. These capacities will enable teachers to demonstrate competency, achieve goals, and live and work to one's fullest potential (Drago-Severson, 2011).

Second, it is suggested that teacher training or professional development programs need to be designed to address the issues and challenges specific to teachers' immediate working environments. The survey results indicate several teacher characteristics that exerted an influence on how teachers taught and identified with their roles. For instance, teachers working in Tier 1 and Tier 3 institutions are confronted with qualitatively different challenges in terms of students, curriculum, or institutional context. Professional development programs should be tailored to institutions' cultures and needs to be relevant and effective. Giving teachers the opportunity to raise their context-specific questions and discuss with colleagues and experts will help them develop solutions with maximum context-appropriateness and feasibility.

Finally, induction programs for novice teachers and on-going professional support for all teachers should be made available in College English departments. As described in Chapter One, most university EFL teachers have a Bachelor's degree in

English but their postgraduate qualifications are quite diverse, and some have never been exposed to language teaching methodologies. The *t* test result showed a significant difference in the frequency of implementing CLT between teachers with ELT training and teacher without such training. In the case studies, Jessie and Sunny, who entered teaching without any previous training in terms of language teaching methodology, experienced painful struggles at the beginning of their careers, and the ELT training Jessie received later when she was overseas enhanced her capabilities as an EFL teacher. Obviously, an induction program would have facilitated their entry into the job and alleviated the stress of becoming an English teacher overnight from an English learner. Meanwhile, these teachers' stories demonstrated that there is no end to professional development (Johnson & Golombek, 2011a), and whether being a novice teacher or an experienced teacher, they all experienced confusions and challenges at certain times in their professional lives. Therefore, ongoing professional support in various forms is necessary and desirable, and should be made a routine: for example, weekly collegiate sharing, biweekly faculty meetings, or annual teaching development workshop or seminars.

8.3.2 Implications for Policy Making in Tertiary English Education

As mentioned in Chapter One, there have been heated discussions about whether CE should still be offered to university students, and the content and format of the CE course is being repeatedly questioned (see Cai, 2010; Pan & Block, 2011; Ruan & Jacob, 2009). The findings of this study also have significant implications for tertiary English education and policy making.

In the multiple case studies, individual teachers expressed their opinions about their teaching contexts, in particular the challenges and difficulties that kept them from applying their CLT-oriented beliefs. These challenges were summarized from three

dimensions: the students, the curriculum, and the institutional and departmental context (see Table 7.2). The common threads were big class sizes, unmotivated students, and the unsupportive institutions or departments. This finding has implications for policy making at different levels. For the Ministry of Education (MoE), which issued decrees and nationwide curriculum requirements, it needs to take the teachers' and students' perspectives into account before issuing any guidelines. Instead of a top-down policy making, a bottom-up starting from collecting data from teachers, students, and institutions will increase the appropriateness and feasibility of the policy. For the various levels of institutions in which students' English abilities vary, making stratified, individualized curriculum requirements may be more effective than expecting a one-size-fits-all policy to work for all institutions. On the other hand, individual institutions can shrink the class sizes to allow teachers focus on individual students' learning needs; and clarify the purposes of the CE course for students so that students themselves can determine the importance of the CE course and make plans about CE learning accordingly.

8.4 Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Future Research

In attempt to gain a holistic understanding of Chinese tertiary EFL teachers' beliefs, identities and practices, this study capitalized on the merits of both the quantitative and qualitative research methods. However, this study has limitations in terms of methodological design and implementation.

The first limitation concerns the utilization of a self-report questionnaire to elicit and survey teachers' cognitions from a large number of participants. An obvious limitation of self-report questionnaires is the possibility that teachers may have unknowingly provided inaccurate responses if they have interpreted questions

differently from what was intended, (Mohamed, 2006). Future research can provide the opportunity for teachers to elaborate on their beliefs. For instance, designing open-ended questions to supplement the pre-formulated statements (cf. Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2014)

Secondly, the instruments developed and the factor structures elicited are context-specific. The results thus have only limited generalizations to other populations. They can be applied to a population with similar characteristics, but modification and cross-validation of the questionnaires is highly recommended.

Thirdly, the second phase of the study used a small, purposefully selected sample. This makes it difficult to claim their representativeness of teachers in general, and the generalizability of my findings to other contexts is also limited. Nonetheless, the rich description enhances the validity of the analysis and hence make it possible for others to judge to what extent the findings may be applicable to their own contexts.

Lastly, the ultimate goal of teacher cognition research is to enhance student learning, but this study only focused on the teachers. Given that students also play an important part in the teaching and learning relationship, future research should connect teacher cognition with students' learning (Borg, 2015). For instance, exploring students' views and conceptions about English learning to see if they are in congruence with their teachers'. It can be expected that dissonance between teachers' beliefs and students' beliefs will impede teachers' work and teacher effectiveness.

APPENDICES

Appendix A Letter to the Dean



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The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601, Symonds Street
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(initial email contact for site access)

Project title: A Study of Chinese University English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Teachers' Beliefs, Practices and Identities

Researcher: Shan Chen

Dear Dean or Head of Department,

My name is Shan Chen and I am a PhD student at the University Of Auckland Faculty Of Education under the supervision of Professor Lawrence Jun Zhang and Professor Stuart McNaughton.

My research is guided by the question: "How EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching, and their self-identities are related and interacted in their teaching practice?" I will be conducting this research in tertiary institutions with the teaching staff who teach the course of "College English" to undergraduate students whose majors are not English. I have identified your teaching staff as potential participants for my research.

I would be grateful if you would read the attached Participant Information Sheet which will tell you about my research, and what your involvement would mean for you. If you are willing to take part, please complete the attached Consent Form and return it to me. I will then discuss with you the most appropriate way to inform your teaching staff about the research. If you have any questions, or would like me to come and talk to you directly about this, please do not hesitate to contact me: sche862@aucklanduni.ac.nz.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely

Shan Chen

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE
ON 16/12/2013 FOR A PERIOD OF THREE YEARS. REFERENCE NUMBER 010815

Appendix B Participation Information Sheet (Dean/Head of Department)



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PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET (DEAN/HEAD OF DEPARTMENT)

Project Title: A Study of Chinese University English as a Foreign Language (EFL)
Teachers' Beliefs, Practices and Identities

Researcher: Shan Chen

Introduction

My name is Shan Chen, a PhD candidate in the School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, The University of Auckland. My supervisors are Professor Lawrence Jun Zhang and Professor Stuart McNaughton.

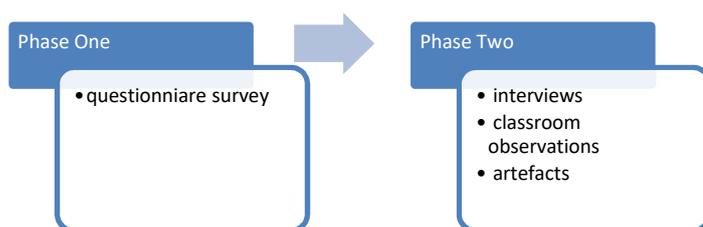
Project Description

My research is guided by the question: "How EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching, and their self-identities are related and interacted in their teaching practice?" I will be conducting this research tertiary institutions with the teaching staff who teach the course of "College English" to undergraduate students whose majors are not English. I would value the opportunity to conduct some of my research in your university, and I am keen to include the view of teachers who work in such a context. I am therefore inviting your school/department to participate in this research.

Teachers' beliefs are found to be influential in shaping teachers' approach to tasks and decision-making and therefore are best indicators of teacher behaviors. However, in the field of applied linguistics, the bulk of research on teacher cognition (e.g., beliefs, knowledge, identity and decision-making) has been focusing on language teachers who are native speakers of the target language in western countries, and the literature indicates that until recently scholarly attention began to be paid to cognition of the large number of non-native speakers of English teachers. I am particularly interested in the EFL teachers' cognitions and their relationships to teaching practice in Chinese universities. To be specific, this research is aimed to 1) identify Chinese university EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching, and beliefs about their

professional identities; 2) explore the relationship between these beliefs and their teaching practices; and 3) understand in what ways EFL teachers construct their beliefs and identities in practice.

The study will begin around March 2014 and last approximately 6 months. It adopts a mixed-method design and will be conducted in two phases. During the first phase, teachers will be invited to complete a web-based survey consisting of three questionnaires, Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching Questionnaire (BALLTQ), Teaching Practice Questionnaire (TPQ), and Teacher Identity Questionnaire (TIQ). The second phase involves recruiting five individual teachers for a multiple-case study. During the case study, one-on-one interviews and classroom observations will be conducted with each teacher participant.



Faculty Involvement

If you agree to participate, then I would like to ask the faculty/department secretary to distribute the information about the study among your teaching staff. The secretary will choose an appropriate way to inform the teachers of my research. For example, the secretary may send emails with my advertisement for recruiting participants, Participant Information and Consent Form attached, or he/she may post the advertisement on the noticeboard. I will leave some copies of the Participant Information Sheet for teachers and the appropriate Consent Form in the secretary's office for those who wish to participate to sign. With your permission, I will set up a box for teachers to drop their signed forms in your faculty. I will return to collect the signed Consent Form by arrangement with the secretary. Once the signed consent forms are collected, I will provide the secretary with a roll of teachers who have agreed to take part in the case study. The secretary will assign a code to each name and then I can randomly draw six codes representing six participants for the case study. I will then contact these six participating teachers directly to discuss the subsequent steps to carry out the research. Last but not least, I would also like to get your assurance that participation or non-participation will not affect teachers' careers, future employment, or employment evaluation at any level.

Teacher Involvement

This research will consist of a questionnaire survey, observations of practice, and individual interviews with teachers. I will send the link to those who have agreed to participate to complete the web-based survey online. The survey takes approximately 30 minutes to complete. For those who prefer print versions, I will leave hard copies of questionnaire in the secretary's office for them to pick up and provide an envelope including postage for return. Participants will be asked to submit or return the completed survey within four weeks and they can choose to complete the survey in a place or at a time of their convenience.

Individual teacher interviews will be conducted with the five identified case study teachers as three separate interviews spanning over a period of several weeks. These interviews will last

between 90 minutes and 120 minutes in total, and will be conducted at a time and in a place the teachers have agreed to. The interview will be audio recorded and transcribed by the researcher. The teachers who participated will be fully informed about the recording, the transcription, and their right to decide not to answer any questions. Teachers will have the right to ask for the recording to be suspended at any time. They will be given the transcript of their individual interview in Chinese to review and return their comments within a week.

The initial interview is to create a profile of each participant, their biographical details including their language learning experience and their previous and current teaching experience as a university EFL teacher. Following the initial interview, I will be observing the practice of teachers who have agreed to allow me to do this. I will record my observations in writing in field notes. The second and third interviews will follow classroom observations and questions will be developed based on what behaviors the teachers have demonstrated in the classroom. Individual teachers will be observed for two consecutive sessions for 180 minutes. There will be 12 classroom observations for the five teachers and their students. Classroom observations will be audio taped to minimize the possible impact of recording on the teacher and students.

I would like your permission to be in the classroom of the teacher participant where the actual teaching occurs. I am aware that having a researcher in the classroom may have an impact on the teacher and students. I hope that by limiting the days and hours that I attend, that I will also limit the impact that my presence will have. I will discuss these hours and days with you in advance and the final decision about when I will be present in the classroom will be subject to your agreement. I will respect the class routines and policies, and will make every effort not to interrupt the teaching and learning interactions, and the relationships between teachers and students.

As a further aspect of research I would like to view teachers' lesson plans, and to photocopy some sample pages for analysis later. I will check with you before I do so. Towards the end of the study I will invite the teachers who participated to attend a meeting at which I will present my developing analysis, and seek their comment and feedback. Attendance at this meeting will be voluntary. I have attached a copy of the information sheet for teachers, and the consent form that they are asked to sign for your information.

Teachers who have participated in case studies will be given \$60 per person in the form of book vouchers.

Student Involvement

Although the focus of my study is teachers, teacher-student interactions will be observed, audio-recorded and used as prompts to elicit the teachers' cognition during the second and third interviews. Consequently, I will provide information about myself and about the research in the form of letter, for students, together with a consent form for them to sign. I would appreciate your help, or the help of your teachers, in distributing this information. I will discuss with you and with the participating teachers how this process might be managed. I attach a copy of this letter for your information. As a researcher, I am not able to be considered part of the teaching team. I will immediately suspend all research activities should any safety related issues become apparent. I will not observe or document students during personal care routines, while they are

asleep, or while they are distressed. For students who do not consent to the classroom observation, a make-up lesson will be arranged for them in order not to disadvantage them.

Data Management

Signed consent form will be stored in a locked cabinet at the Faculty of Education, University of Auckland, for six years. The data I collect will also be securely stored for six years. Electronic data will be stored in a password protected file on the University of Auckland server. Paper data will be stored in a locked cupboard in my office at the Faculty of Education. After six years, electronic data will be deleted, and paper data will be securely destroyed. The data collected will be primarily presented in the researcher's PhD thesis, and may be used for future academic publications or conference presentations. If you would like to have a copy of the final research findings, please indicate this on the consent form, and I will send a summary to you.

Benefits and Risks

Research has demonstrated that teachers benefit from the opportunity to reflect on their practice and to engage in reflective discussions about their practice with an impartial observer. I hope that the teachers in your school may find it beneficial to take part in this research. Literature indicates that teachers may feel uncomfortable being video-taped, and therefore I will audio tape teachers' instruction to minimize the pressure and uneasiness on the teachers' part. Also, I want to assure you that the purpose of the audio is to assist teachers' recollection of events, and their reflection on them. I will not be judging them in any way. Nevertheless, should any of the teachers feel uncomfortable or challenged by the process, I will discuss with them appropriate avenues for follow-up and support. I will make every effort to make participating teachers feel comfortable in the process of data collection.

Participants' Rights

Since the web-based questionnaire survey is configured as anonymous, participants will not be able to withdraw their data once the survey is submitted. In the case study, participants are entitled to withdraw themselves at any time, refuse to answer any specific questions, and to have the recorder turned off at any stage.

Anonymity and Confidentiality

This research is confidential. Therefore, I will not discuss any of questionnaire responses, the interviews or observations with you. Furthermore, the teachers who participate will be asked to keep their participation confidential. However, I am happy to provide you with a copy of the summarized findings at the end of the study. If you would like them, you may request them on your consent form.

The web-based survey will be published on an open portal (e.g., surveymonkey.com) and when setting up the survey collector, I will configure it not to collect IP addresses to ensure participants are not traceable. Participants will not be asked about specific questions that will make them identifiable (see the attached questionnaires). For example, they will not be asked about which university or program they graduated from. Instead, they only need to indicate the type of institution which they graduated from, e.g., comprehensive university or normal university.

Excerpts from the interviews and my observations will be used in my thesis and in subsequent publications and presentations. When reporting or publishing the information provided by participants, pseudonyms will be used to protect their identities. No identifying information and data collected from the research will be disclosed to a third party. In spite of my best efforts to maintain confidentiality, the fact remains that universities are public places. Therefore, there is always a slight chance that someone may be able to identify either the participants or the university.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet. If you have any inquiries or questions, please feel free to contact anyone in the following contact list.

| Researcher | Main supervisor | Co-supervisor |
|---|---|--|
| Shan Chen sche862@aucklanduni.ac.nz Ph: +64 09 373 7599 ext. 48406 | Professor Lawrence Jun Zhang lj.zhang@auckland.ac.nz Ph: +64 0 9 623 8899 ext. 48750 | Professor Stuart McNaughton s.mcnaughton@auckland.ac.nz Ph: +64 0 9 623 8899 ext. 87541 |

You may also contact the head of the School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, Professor Judy Parr at jm.parr@auckland.ac.nz or +64 09 623 8899 ext. 88998.

For any queries regarding ethical concerns, you may contact the Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Office of the Vice Chancellor, Private Bag 92019, Auckland, 1142. Telephone: 09 373-7599 ext. 83711.

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS
 COMMITTEE ON 16/12/2013 FOR A PERIOD OF THREE YEARS.
 REFERENCE NUMBER 010815

Appendix C Consent Form (Dean/Head of Department)



Faculty of Education
Gate 3, 74 Epsom Avenue
Telephone 64 9 623 8899
Facsimile 64 9 623 8898
www.education.auckland.ac.nz

The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601, Symonds Street
Auckland 1150, New Zealand

CONSENT FORM

(DEAN/HEAD OF DEPARTMENT)

Project Title: A Study of Chinese University English as a Foreign Language (EFL)
Teachers' Beliefs, Practices and Identities

Researcher: Shan Chen

I have read the Participant Information Sheet, and understood the nature of the research and why I have been invited to participate. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered to my satisfaction. I agree to assist this study and understand that my participation is voluntary.

I agree that the faculty/department may participate in this research YES/NO

I agree that: (please indicate yes or no as appropriate)

- The research may be conducted in this faculty/department YES/NO
- The researcher may invite the teachers to participate in this research. YES/NO
- The researcher may ask the secretary for assistance in recruitment of participants. YES/NO
- Teachers' decision whether to participate/not participate will not affect their employment status in the faculty/department. YES/NO
- Students' decision whether to participate/not participate will not affect their grades or any assessment results. YES/NO
- The researcher may ask students' questions about the teacher and university that are not for evaluative purposes. YES/NO

- Students' responses to the researcher's questions will not be disclosed to the school or the teacher nor will these responses affect students' grades and relationship with the university. YES/NO

I understand that: (please tick)

- I may withdraw my faculty/department, and any data attributable to it, at any time up until _____ without giving a reason.
- The university will not be identified by name, and the researcher will make every effort to conceal the identity of the university, and of the individual participants.
- The questionnaire responses and contents of interviews and classroom observations will not be disclosed to me.
- Teachers' involvement will include all or some of: a questionnaire survey, individual interviews and being observed.
- Toward the end of the study, teachers will be invited to attend one further meeting to discuss developing analysis. Participation of this meeting is voluntary.
- The researcher will not form part of the teaching team.
- Data gathered during this study will be securely stored for a period of six years, after which they will be destroyed.
- Research activities will be suspended should any safety issues become apparent.
- The findings from this study will be used in a PhD thesis, and to support future publications as well as conference presentations.
- At the end of study, the researcher will discuss with me appropriate avenues for follow-up or support, on request.

I would like to receive a copy of the summarized findings.

YES/NO

Email address if yes _____

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS
COMMITTEE ON 16/12/2013 FOR A PERIOD OF THREE YEARS.
REFERENCE NUMBER 010815

Appendix D Participant Information Sheet (Teacher)



Faculty of Education
Gate 3, 74 Epsom Avenue
Telephone 64 9 623 8899
Facsimile 64 9 623 8898
www.education.auckland.ac.nz

The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601, Symonds Street
Auckland 1150, New Zealand

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

(TEACHER)

Project Title: A Study of Chinese University English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Teachers' Beliefs, Practices and Identities

Researcher: Shan Chen

Introduction

My name is Shan Chen, a Ph.D. candidate in the School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, The University of Auckland. My supervisors are Professor Lawrence Jun Zhang and Professor Stuart McNaughton.

Project Overview

My research is guided by the question: "How EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching, and identities are related and interacted in their teaching practice?" I will be conducting this research in tertiary institutions with the teaching staff who teach the course of "College English" to undergraduate students whose majors are not English. I would value the opportunity to conduct some of my research in your university, and I am keen to include the view of teachers who work in such a context. I am therefore inviting your school/department to participate in this research.

Teachers' beliefs are found to be influential in shaping teachers' approach to tasks and decision-making and therefore are best indicators of teacher behaviors. However, in the field of applied linguistics, the bulk of research on teacher cognition (e.g., beliefs, knowledge, identity and decision-making) has been focusing on language teachers who are native speakers of the target language in western countries, and the literature indicates that until recently scholarly attention began to be paid to cognition of the large number of non-native speakers of English teachers. I am particularly interested in the EFL teachers' cognitions and their relationships to teaching practice in Chinese universities. To be specific, this research is aimed to 1) identify Chinese university EFL teachers', beliefs about teaching English in tertiary contexts, their practices, and

professional identities; 2) explore the relationship between these beliefs and their teaching practices; and 3) understand in what ways EFL teachers construct their beliefs and identities in practice.

Phase One—Survey Study

The study will begin around March 2014 and last approximately 6 months. It will be conducted in two phases consisting of a questionnaire survey and a multiple-case study of individual teachers. Participation is entirely voluntary. You are welcome to participate in both phases or just one, and you are also free to choose not to participate at all. During the first phase, participants will complete a survey of their beliefs as EFL teachers. The second phase involves recruiting five individual teachers for a multiple-case study. During the case study, one-on-one interviews and classroom observations will be conducted with each participating teacher.

If you consent to participate in the survey, I will send you a link so you can complete a web-based survey composed of three questionnaires, Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching (BALLTQ), and Teaching Practice Questionnaire (TPQ), and Teacher Identity Questionnaire (TIQ). The survey consisting of 77 Likert scale items takes about 30 minutes to complete. If you prefer hard copies of the questionnaires, you can get copies at the faculty secretary's office with stamped return envelope included. You can choose to complete the survey in a place or at a time of your convenience. Please submit or return the completed survey within four weeks.

Phase Two—Case Study

If you want to continue your participation in the case study, please indicate it on the consent form.

Individual teacher interviews will be conducted as three separate interviews spanning over a period of several weeks. These interviews will last between 90 minutes and 120 minutes in total, and it will be conducted at a time and in a place you have agreed to. The interviews will be audio recorded and transcribed by the researcher herself. My supervisors and I will be the only people who see the transcript. During the interviews, you will have the option of asking me to turn the recorder off at any time. Once the interview has been transcribed, I will give you a copy of the Chinese transcript to check, to ensure that it accurately conveys your meaning, and to allow you to remove any information you wish. You will have one week to review the transcript and then return it to me so that I can translate it into English for analysis.

The initial interview is to obtain a profile of each participant, including biographical details, your language learning experience, and your previous and current teaching experience as a university EFL teacher. Following the initial interview, I will be observing your classroom teaching for two consecutive sessions. I will work with you to arrange the dates and time slots that fit your teaching schedule and you feel comfortable having me to come and observe. I will place a digital audio recorder on your desk to record your teaching and I will record my observations in writing field notes as well. Immediately after classroom observations, I will conduct a 30-minute interview with you. These interview questions are developed based on the initial interview and classroom observations. I wish to see you teaching in the natural setting so I will not be asking you to set up special activities and my role is a non-participant observer, who will not participate in your teaching or students' discussion or any learning activities. My

observation is not evaluative and will not affect your career or employment at any level as I have sought assurance from the Dean.

Since the observation also involves students, who are essential part of the classroom dynamics, I would like to ask you to explain the purpose and nature of my observation and distribute the letter to the students. The letter makes it explicit that the focus of the observation is the teacher. Students who do not feel comfortable with an observer in the classroom can be arranged to have a make-up class at a later time.

Teachers who have participated in case studies will be given \$60 per person in the form of book vouchers.

Your Rights and Options

Participation is entirely voluntary. You have the option to participate in both phases of the research, or only in one. Your dean has given written assurance that your decision to participate or not will in no way affect your employment status here. You may indicate your intended participation on the consent form. If you wish to withdraw from the research you may do so at any time, without giving a reason, up until I have finished data gathering on (date). You may also withdraw all data that you have contributed up until that time. However, the web-based survey is anonymous, and therefore you will not be able to withdraw the data once you have submitted the survey.

Benefits and Risks

Research has demonstrated that teachers benefit from the opportunity to reflect on their practice and to engage in reflective discussions about their practice with an impartial observer. I hope that you may find it beneficial to take part in this research. Literature indicates that teachers may feel uncomfortable being video-taped, and therefore I will audio tape your instruction to minimize your pressure and uneasiness. Also, I want to assure you that the purpose of the audio is to assist your recollection of events, and help connect your cognition with practice. I will not be judging your teaching in any way. Nevertheless, if you feel uncomfortable or challenged by the process, I will discuss with you appropriate avenues for follow-up and support.

Data Management

Your signed consent form will be stored in a locked cabinet at the Faculty of Education, University of Auckland, for six years. The data I collect will also be securely stored for six years. Electronic data will be stored in a password protected file on the University of Auckland server. Paper data will be stored in a locked cupboard in my office at the Faculty of Education. After six years, electronic data will be deleted, and paper data will be securely destroyed.

The data I collected will be analyzed and will then form the basis my PhD thesis. I may use the data for future academic publications or conference presentations. Further, as I explain next, I will not identify either you or your university by name. If you would like to have a copy of the final research findings, please indicate this on the consent form, and I will send a summary to you.

Anonymity and Confidentiality

This research is confidential. Therefore, I will not discuss any of questionnaire responses, the interviews or observations with you. Furthermore, the teachers who participate will be asked to keep their participation confidential. However, I am happy to provide you with a copy of the summarized findings at the end of the study. If you would like them, you may request them on your consent form.

The web-based survey is anonymous. It will be published on an open portal (e.g., surveymonkey.com) and when setting up the survey collector, I will configure it not to collect IP addresses to ensure participants are not traceable. Participants will not be asked about specific questions that will make them identifiable (see the attached questionnaires). For example, they will not be asked about which university or program they graduated from. Instead, they only need to indicate the type of institution which they graduated from, e.g., comprehensive university or normal university.

Excerpts from the interviews, my observations and your reflective journals will be used in my thesis and in subsequent publications and presentations. When reporting or publishing the information provided by participants, pseudonyms will be assigned to protect their identities. No identifying information and data collected from the research will be disclosed to a third party. In spite of my best efforts to maintain confidentiality, the fact remains that universities are public places. Therefore, there is always a slight chance that someone may be able to identify either the participants or the university.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet. If you have any inquiries or questions, please feel free to contact anyone in the following contact list.

| Researcher | Main supervisor | Co-supervisor |
|---|---|--|
| Shan Chen sche862@aucklanduni.ac.nz Ph: +64 09 373 7599 ext. 48406 | Professor Lawrence Jun Zhang lj.zhang@auckland.ac.nz Ph: +64 0 9 623 8899 ext. 48750 | Professor Stuart McNaughton s.mcnaughton@auckland.ac.nz Ph: +64 0 9 623 8899 ext. 87541 |

You may also contact the head of the School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, Professor Judy Parr at jm.parr@auckland.ac.nz or +64 09 623 8899 ext. 88998.

For any queries regarding ethical concerns, you may contact the Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Office of the Vice Chancellor, Private Bag 92019, Auckland, 1142. Telephone: 09 373-7599 ext. 83711.

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 16/12/2013 FOR A PERIOD OF THREE YEARS.
REFERENCE NUMBER 010815

Appendix E Consent Form (Teacher)



Faculty of Education
Gate 3, 74 Epsom Avenue
Telephone 64 9 623 8899
Facsimile 64 9 623 8898
www.education.auckland.ac.nz

The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601, Symonds Street
Auckland 1150, New Zealand

CONSENT FORM

(TEACHER)

Project Title: A Study of Chinese University English as a Foreign Language (EFL)
Teachers' Beliefs, Practices and Identities

Researcher: Shan Chen

I have read the Participant Information Sheet, and understood the nature of the research and why I have been invited to participate. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered to my satisfaction. I agree to assist this study and understand that my participation is voluntary.

I agree to participate in the questionnaire survey. YES/NO

I agree to participate in the case study. YES/NO

I agree that: (please indicate yes or no as appropriate)

- The researcher may observe my classroom teaching. YES/NO
- Students will be informed the nature and purpose of the observation. YES/NO
- Students' decision whether to participate/not participate will not affect their grades or any assessment results. YES/NO
- The researcher may audio record the interviews and classroom teaching. YES/NO
- The researcher may ask students questions which are not used to evaluate my teaching performance or students' performance. YES/NO
- The researcher may view my documentation of lesson planning and assessment. YES/NO
- Students' responses to the researcher's questions will not affect students' grades or relationship with the university. YES/NO

I understand that: (please tick)

- I understand the Dean/Head of Department has assured that my decision to participate or not will have no effect on my employment.
- I may withdraw myself and any data I have contributed at any time up until _____ without giving a reason.
- I will not be identified by name, and the researcher will make every effort to conceal the identity of the university, and of the identity of myself or my students.
- The questionnaire responses and contents of interviews and classroom observations will not be disclosed to me.
- Students' responses to the researcher's questions
- My involvement will include all or some of: a questionnaire survey, individual interviews and being observed.
- Toward the end of the study, teachers will be invited to attend one further meeting to discuss developing analysis. Participation of this meeting is voluntary.
- The researcher will not form part of the teaching team.
- Data gathered during this study will be securely stored for a period of six years, after which they will be destroyed.
- Research activities will be suspended should any safety issues become apparent.
- The findings from this study will be used in a PhD thesis, and to support future publications as well as conference presentations.
- At the end of study, the researcher discusses with me appropriate avenues for follow-up or support, on request.

I would like to receive a copy of the summarized findings.

YES/NO

Email address if yes _____

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS
COMMITTEE ON 16/12/2013 FOR A PERIOD OF THREE YEARS.
REFERENCE NUMBER 010815

Appendix F Participant Information Sheet (Student)



Faculty of Education
Gate 3, 74 Epsom Avenue
Telephone 64 9 623 8899
Facsimile 64 9 623 8898
www.education.auckland.ac.nz

The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601, Symonds Street
Auckland 1150, New Zealand

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

(STUDENT)

Project Title: A Study of Chinese University English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Teachers' Beliefs, Practices and Identities

Researcher: Shan Chen

Introduction

My name is Shan Chen, a PhD candidate in the School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, The University of Auckland. My supervisors are Professor Lawrence Jun Zhang and Professor Stuart McNaughton.

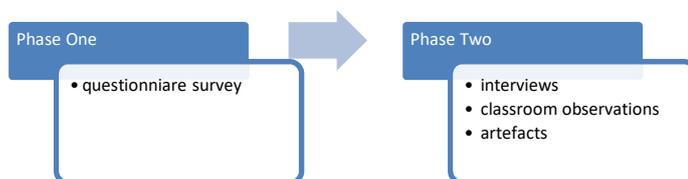
Project Description

My research is guided by the question: "How EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching, and identities are related and interacted in their teaching practice?" I will be conducting this research in tertiary institutions with the teaching staff who teach the course of "College English" to undergraduate students whose majors are not English. I would value the opportunity to conduct some of my research in your university, and I am keen to include the view of teachers who work in such a context. I am therefore inviting your school/department to participate in this research.

Teachers' beliefs are found to be influential in shaping teachers' approach to tasks and decision-making and therefore are best indicators of teacher behaviors. However, in the field of applied linguistics, the bulk of research on teacher cognition (e.g., beliefs, knowledge, identity and decision-making) has been focusing on language teachers who are native speakers of the target language in western countries, and the literature indicates that until recently scholarly attention began to be paid to cognition of the large number of non-native speakers of English teachers. I am particularly interested in the EFL teachers' cognitions and their relationships to teaching practice in Chinese universities. To be specific, this research is aimed to 1) identify Chinese university EFL teachers', beliefs about teaching English in tertiary contexts, their practices, and professional identities; 2) explore the relationship between these beliefs and their teaching practices; and 3) understand in what ways EFL teachers construct their beliefs and identities in practice.

The study will begin around March 2014 and last approximately 6 months. It adopts a mixed-method design and will be conducted in two phases. During the first phase, teachers will be invited to complete a web-based survey consisting of three questionnaires, Beliefs about

Language Learning and Teaching (BALLTQ), and Teaching Practice Questionnaire (TPQ), and Teacher Identity Questionnaire (TIQ). The second phase involves recruiting five individual teachers for a multiple-case study. During the case study, one-on-one interviews and classroom observations will be conducted with each teacher participant.



Student Involvement

Although the focus of my study is teachers, teacher-student interactions will be observed, audio-recorded and used as prompts to elicit the teachers' cognition during the second and third interviews. As a result, your voice and interactions with the teacher might be captured by the audio recorder. I will be observing your class for two sessions on _____ (date) and _____ (date) from _____ (time) to _____ (time). During the observation, I will be sitting in a corner in the back of the classroom and record the teaching activities on my note book in writing. I will audio tape the classroom instruction for subsequent interviews with your teacher. The audio recorder will be placed on the teacher's desk.

I will not interrupt the instruction or participate in any kind of classroom teaching or learning activities. I might talk to you during recessions to know about class routines or your opinions about the lesson, but the information you provided will only be used to help me understand the context, not to be used to evaluate the teacher's or students' performance. My conversation with you will not be audio recorded. You are not obliged to answer my questions. If you do not want me to be close by, you can ask me to move away. The input from you will not be disclosed to your teacher, the dean of the faculty or any third party. I have obtained assurance from the Dean and your teacher that your responses to my questions will not be disclosed to them and they will have no effect on your grades or your relationship with the university.

If you agree to participate, please indicate it on the CF form. Participation is voluntary and the Dean and teacher has assured that your decision to participate or not will have not affect your grades or your relationship with the university. The data I collected will be analyzed and will then form the basis my PhD thesis. I may use the data for future academic publications or conference presentations. Under no circumstance will I identify either you or your university by name.

Data Management

Signed consent form will be stored in a locked cabinet at the Faculty of Education, University of Auckland, for six years. The data I collect will also be securely stored for six years. Electronic data will be stored in a password protected file on the University of Auckland server. Paper data will be stored in a locked cupboard in my office at the Faculty of Education. After six years, electronic data will be deleted, and paper data will be securely destroyed. The data collected will be primarily presented in the researcher's PhD thesis, and may be used for future academic publications or conference presentations.

Benefits and Risks

Research has demonstrated that teachers benefit from the opportunity to reflect on their practice and to engage in reflective discussions about their practice with an impartial observer. To minimize the pressure and uneasiness of participants being observed, I will use an audio recorder instead of a video camera. Also, I want to assure you that the purpose of the audio is to assist teachers' recollection of events, and their reflection on them. I will not be judging them in any way.

Participants' Rights

You have the right to decide whether or not to participate and your decision will not have any effect on your grades or relationship with the university. If you do not consent to the classroom observation or you withdraw yourself during the classroom observation, there will be a make-up lesson arranged for you. You are not obliged to answer my questions. If you do not want me to be in your proximity, you can ask me to move away.

Anonymity and Confidentiality

This research is confidential. Excerpts from the interviews and my observations will be used in my thesis and in subsequent publications and presentations. When reporting or publishing the information provided by participants, pseudonyms will be used to protect participants' identities. No identifying information and data collected from the research will be disclosed to a third party.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet. If you have any inquiries or questions, please feel free to contact anyone in the following contact list.

| Researcher | Main supervisor | Co-supervisor |
|---|---|--|
| Shan Chen sche862@aucklanduni.ac.nz Ph: +64 09 373 7599 ext. 48406 | Professor Lawrence Jun Zhang lj.zhang@auckland.ac.nz Ph: +64 0 9 623 8899 ext. 48750 | Professor Stuart McNaughton s.mcnaughton@auckland.ac.nz Ph: +64 0 9 623 8899 ext. 87541 |

You may also contact the head of the School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, Professor Judy Parr at jm.parr@auckland.ac.nz or +64 09 623 8899 ext. 88998.

For any queries regarding ethical concerns, you may contact the Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Office of the Vice Chancellor, Private Bag 92019, Auckland, 1142. Telephone: 09 373-7599 ext. 83711.

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 16/12/2013 FOR A PERIOD OF THREE YEARS.

REFERENCE NUMBER 010815

Appendix G Consent Form (Student)

CONSENT FORM

(STUDENT)

The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601, Symonds Street
Auckland 1150, New Zealand

Project Title: A Study of Chinese University English as a Foreign Language (EFL)
Teachers' Beliefs, Practices and Identities

Researcher: Shan Chen

I have read the Participant Information Sheet, and understood the nature of the research and why I have been invited to participate. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered to my satisfaction. I agree to assist this study and understand that my participation is voluntary.

I agree that: (please indicate yes or no as appropriate)

- The research may be conducted in this classroom. YES/NO
- The researcher may be observing the class. YES/NO
- The researcher may ask me questions during recessions. YES/NO

I understand that: (please tick)

- I may withdraw myself, and any data attributable to it, at any time up until _____ without giving a reason.
- I will not be identified by name, and the researcher will make every effort to conceal the identity of the university and of the individual participants.
- The contents of classroom observations will not be disclosed to me.
- A make-up lesson is available for me should I not consent to participate or I have withdrawn myself during the observation.
- Data gathered during this study will be securely stored for a period of six years, after which they will be destroyed.
- Research activities will be suspended should any safety issues become apparent.
- The findings from this study will be used in a PhD thesis, and to support future publications as well as conference presentations.

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS
COMMITTEE ON 16/12/2013 FOR A PERIOD OF THREE YEARS.
REFERENCE NUMBER 010815

Appendix H Questionnaires (English Version)

Survey of University English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Teachers' Beliefs, Practices and Identities

Part A: Demographic Information

Gender: Male Female

Years of teaching *College English*: less than 5 years 5-10 years 10-20 years more than 20 years

Education: B.A. M.A. Ph.D.

Area of concentration for your postgraduate degree: Literature Education Linguistics
 Others please specify _____

Have you studied in an English-speaking country for more than a year? Yes No

Have you visited as a scholar in an English-speaking country? Yes No

Part B: Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching Questionnaire

This scale is designed to obtain information about your beliefs of teaching English as a foreign language to college students. It is NOT a test. It is NOT an evaluation of you as a teacher. There are no right or wrong answers. All your responses are confidential. Please rate each of the statements by circling the most appropriate answers on the scale. 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neither agree nor disagree, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly Disagree.

| Items | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country. | | | | | |
| 2 It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to learn English. | | | | | |
| 3 Teachers do not need to stop students to correct them as long as they are able to get the message across. | | | | | |
| 4 Some people have a special ability for learning a foreign language. | | | | | |
| 5 Smart people are good at language learning. | | | | | |
| 6 Women are better than men at learning foreign languages. | | | | | |
| 7 The listening, speaking, reading and writing skills of English are all interrelated. | | | | | |
| 8 The teacher's language ability determines the outcome of students' language learning. | | | | | |
| 9 Instructional activities should enable students to engage in meaningful communications. | | | | | |
| 10 Group/pair work activities play an important role in helping students acquire English. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|----|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| 11 | To help students pass the CET Band 4 and Band 6 is one of the major concerns in <i>College English</i> teaching. | | | | | |
| 12 | <i>College English</i> should be taught as an integrated course. | | | | | |
| 13 | The primary curricular focus is on the adopted text book and accompanying ancillaries. | | | | | |
| 14 | To learn English is to learn the vocabulary words and grammar. | | | | | |
| 15 | Rote memorization is of great importance in language learning. | | | | | |
| 16 | Meaning is more important than linguistic accuracy. | | | | | |
| 17 | Language is acquired effectively when it is used as a vehicle for communication or doing something else. | | | | | |
| 18 | The goal of foreign language education is to develop students' communicative competence in real life situations. | | | | | |
| 19 | Foreign languages are learned through a process of trial and error, so errors should be seen as a natural part of learning. | | | | | |
| 20 | English teaching and learning activities in class should be related to students' real lives on or off campus. | | | | | |
| 21 | Authentic materials can better facilitate language acquisition. | | | | | |
| 22 | When students make oral errors, the teacher should correct them immediately. | | | | | |
| 23 | It is important for students to be given the right answer after an exercise. | | | | | |
| 24 | Teachers should point out every single mistake students have made in writing. | | | | | |
| 25 | If students are allowed to find out what was wrong and why, they will learn more. | | | | | |
| 26 | The teacher should always require that responses in the target language be linguistically perfect. | | | | | |
| 27 | The core of the teaching syllabi is to cultivate students' ability in communicating in English. | | | | | |
| 28 | The major task of a <i>College English</i> teacher is to teach the textbook. | | | | | |
| 29 | It is necessary to translate English into Chinese in English instruction. | | | | | |
| 30 | Massive drill and practice with language patterns is essential in English learning. | | | | | |
| 31 | A major goal for College English teaching is to help students pass CET-4 and CET-6. | | | | | |
| 32 | Fluency is more important than accuracy. | | | | | |
| 33 | Some students will never be good at English how hard they try. | | | | | |
| 34 | Foreign language teachers need to be fluent themselves in order to teach effectively for communication | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|----|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| 35 | When students make oral errors, it is best to ignore them, as long as you can understand what they are trying to say. | | | | | |
| 36 | It is not necessary to actually teach students English; they are capable of learning English on their own. | | | | | |

Part B: Teaching Practice Questionnaire

Please rate each of the statements by circling the most appropriate answers on the scale. 1 = never; 2 = rarely; 3 = sometimes; 4 = frequently; 5 = very frequently.

| Items | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|-------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | I use English as the medium of instruction. | | | | |
| 2 | I explain the text sentence by sentence. | | | | |
| 3 | I ask questions to check students' understanding of the text. | | | | |
| 4 | I have students write topical essays or narratives to express their opinions and experiences. | | | | |
| 5 | I have students discuss the text in groups to figure out the main ideas and the organization. | | | | |
| 6 | I engage students in talking about life-related topics. | | | | |
| 7 | I use lots of modelling in class and reinforce key points. | | | | |
| 8 | I make students summarize the reading text orally or in writing. | | | | |
| 9 | I use Chinese to explain vocabulary and grammar. | | | | |
| 10 | I use task-based language teaching methods. | | | | |
| 11 | I use English songs and games for teaching. | | | | |
| 12 | I play English movies for students. | | | | |
| 13 | I have students work in groups for a variety of activities, e.g., role-play, acting out a situation, debating, etc. | | | | |
| 14 | I have students translate the text. | | | | |
| 15 | I do word dictations with students. | | | | |
| 16 | I have students practice patterns for reinforcement. | | | | |

Part C: Teacher Role-Identity Questionnaire

Please rate each of the statements by circling the most appropriate answers on the scale. 1= never true of me, 2 = slightly true of me, 3 = moderately true of me (sometimes true, sometimes not), 4 = fairly true, 5 = very true of me

| Items | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|-------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | I use a variety of activities and strategies to stimulate students' interest in learning English. | | | | |
| 2 | I make students aware of the importance of learning English. | | | | |
| 3 | I manage the classroom interaction. | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|----|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| 4 | I don't like to change my teaching method. | | | | | |
| 5 | I give students opportunity to discuss the text for reading comprehension. | | | | | |
| 6 | I want students to enjoy the class and the process of studying English. | | | | | |
| 7 | I promote inquiry learning and autonomous learning | | | | | |
| 8 | I have my students make speeches or oral presentations. | | | | | |
| 9 | I make sure my lessons are interesting and engaging. | | | | | |
| 10 | I am involved in research on English language teaching and read related literature. | | | | | |
| 11 | I am in search of effective pedagogies and exploring the ways of being a qualified College English teacher. | | | | | |
| 12 | I teach English learning strategies. | | | | | |
| 13 | I attempt to understand students' needs and the goings-on of their life and study. | | | | | |
| 14 | I recommend English learning resources for students. | | | | | |
| 15 | Through reflection, I search for ways to enhance my teaching practices. | | | | | |
| 16 | I make every effort to improve my own English proficiency. | | | | | |
| 17 | I would like to make friends with my students to be part of them. | | | | | |
| 18 | I like to reflect on my teaching practices and search for ways of improvement. | | | | | |
| 19 | I look for novel ideas to surprise students and engage them. | | | | | |
| 20 | I am interested in learning about English pedagogies and linguistic knowledge. | | | | | |
| 21 | I teach what is scripted in the textbook. | | | | | |
| 22 | I see my main responsibility as helping students pass tests. | | | | | |
| 23 | My job is to transfer the content from the book to the student. | | | | | |
| 24 | I encourage students to draw on various resources to learn English outside the class. | | | | | |
| 25 | I care about students like parents. | | | | | |

-----END OF SURVEY -----

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

* If you are interested in participating in the case studies of my research consisting of interviews and classroom observations, please leave your contact information and I will be in touch to give you more details.

Name _____ Phone _____ Email _____

Appendix I Questionnaires (Chinese Translation)

大学英语教师信念调查表

尊敬的老师:您好!本调查表的目的是为了了解大学英语教师英语教学信念和身份角色。请您根据自身情况,按照第一印象如实选择;答案无优劣、对错之分。调查的结果仅用于本项研究,谢谢合作!

I. 个人信息

1. 性别: 男 女
2. 您教大学英语的时间: 0-2年 2-5年 5-10年 10年以上
3. 您目前的学历: 本科 硕士 博士
4. 您所学的专业: 英美文学 英语教学 英语语言学 翻译 其他 请注明_____
5. 海外经历: 没有 少于1年 1-3年 多于3年
6. 是否接受过**语言教学方面**的培训(例如学习过语言教学法课程等): 是 否

II. **英语教学信念**指的是大学英语老师对外语习得和在大学里如何教英语的看法、观点。请仔细阅读下面陈述并按照自己的真实想法选择**1=非常不同意, 2=不同意, 3=不确定, 4=同意, 5=非常同意**。

| 题号 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. 学英语最好是到英语国家去学习。 | | | | | |
| 2. 要想学好英语必须要了解英语国家的文化。 | | | | | |
| 3. 孩子比成人学外语更容易。 | | | | | |
| 4. 有些人有学语言的天赋。 | | | | | |
| 5. 聪明人擅于语言学习 | | | | | |
| 6. 女性比男性更擅长外语学习。 | | | | | |
| 7. 英语的听说读写各项技能是互相联系的。 | | | | | |
| 8. 老师的英语水平决定了学生的英语能否学好。 | | | | | |
| 9. 课堂活动应该让学生进行有意义的交流。 | | | | | |
| 10. 小组活动在学生习得语言的过程中发挥重要作用。 | | | | | |
| 11. 在教学中,教师应该让学生有机会用英语来探索自己感兴趣的话题和事物。 | | | | | |
| 12. 大学英语是一门综合性课程。 | | | | | |
| 13. 课程教学应围绕教科书和附带的练习进行。 | | | | | |
| 14. 学语言主要就是学习词汇和语法。 | | | | | |
| 15. 死记硬背在语言学习中很重要。 | | | | | |
| 16. 学生能用英语把自己的意思表达明白比语法正确更重要。 | | | | | |
| 17. 习得语言的有效方式是把语言当作工具用来交流和使用。 | | | | | |
| 18. 外语教学的目的是培养学生在真实情景中的交际能力。 | | | | | |

| 题号 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19. 外语学习是一个试错(trial and error)的过程, 因此犯错是很自然的。 | | | | | |
| 20. 教师在设计课堂活动和任务时应基于现实情境或需要。 | | | | | |
| 21. 使用地道的英语材料更好的帮助学生习得英语。 | | | | | |
| 22. 当学生的口头英语表达出现错误时, 老师应该及时纠正。 | | | | | |
| 23. 学生完成英语课练习题后, 给学生核对答案是十分必要的。 | | | | | |
| 24. 老师应该一一指出学生英语写作中出现的错误。 | | | | | |
| 25. 如果让学生们自己去搞清楚为什么他们的表达或者答案是错误的, 他们能学到更多东西。 | | | | | |
| 26. 老师应该要求学生尽量使用正确的语言形式。 | | | | | |
| 27. 培养学生的英语交际能力是教学大纲的中心。 | | | | | |
| 28. 在大学英语教学中, 教师的主要任务是按课本授课。 | | | | | |
| 29. 在英语教学中使用汉语解释是很必要的。 | | | | | |
| 30. 大量的练习、做题在英语学习中是很重要的。 | | | | | |
| 31. 大学英语教学的一个重要目标是帮助学生通过四六级考试。 | | | | | |
| 32. 语言的流利程度比准确性更重要。 | | | | | |
| 33. 有的学生再怎么努力也学不好英语。 | | | | | |
| 34. 老师的英语讲的流利, 对提高学生的英语交际能力很有帮助。 | | | | | |
| 35. 只要学生把意思表达明白了, 没有必要打断他们来纠正错误。 | | | | | |
| 36. 不用老师教, 学生也能自己学会说英语。 | | | | | |

III. 以下是关于大学英语教师角色身份的叙述, 请根据你的教学情况回答。1=与我的情形**完全不一致**, 2=与我的情形**通常不一致**, 3=与我的情形**有时一致**, 有时不一致, 4=与我的情形**通常一致**, 5=与我的情形**完全一致**。

| 题号 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|--------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 我通过进行各种课堂活动和手段来引起学生们学英语的兴趣。 | | | | | |
| 2 我通过各种方式让学生意识到学英语的重要性。 | | | | | |
| 3 我掌控和管理课堂教学互动。 | | | | | |
| 4 课本上写着什么, 我就教什么。 | | | | | |
| 5 我认为教师的职责是教书育人。 | | | | | |
| 6 我希望我的学生们能享受英语课堂, 享受英语学习的过程。 | | | | | |
| 7 我鼓励、引导学生进行探究式学习和自主学习。 | | | | | |
| 8 我帮助学生备考(例如四六级)。 | | | | | |
| 9 我会想出各种办法让我的英语课生动、有趣。 | | | | | |
| 10 我阅读相关文献, 从事有关英语教学的科研活动。 | | | | | |
| 11 我不断探索如何有效地教学方法和如何当一名大学英语教师。 | | | | | |
| 12 我会向学生介绍英语学习的方法和策略。 | | | | | |
| 13 我跟学生谈话、交流以了解他们的学习情况和想法。 | | | | | |
| 14 我向学生们推荐课外英语学习资源。 | | | | | |
| 15 我反思我的教学实践并寻找提高的途径、方法。 | | | | | |
| 16 我通过各种方式来提高自身的英语水平。 | | | | | |

| 题号 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|-----------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 17 我愿意在课下和学生们交朋友，和他们打成一片。 | | | | | |
| 18 我帮助学生培养学习能力和探索能力。 | | | | | |
| 19 我会去寻找一些出其不意的点子让学生们在课堂上有惊喜、感兴趣。 | | | | | |
| 20 我通过各种途径学习有关教学法和语言教学的相关知识。 | | | | | |
| 21 我的主要任务就是帮助学生学习课本知识。 | | | | | |
| 22 我在课堂上积极的使用、倡导某个教学法（例如：任务教学）。 | | | | | |
| 23 我英语教学的主要目的是帮助学生通过考试。 | | | | | |
| 24 我鼓励学生使用网络上的课外资源来学习英语。 | | | | | |
| 25 我向父母对待孩子一样，关心自己学生的成长。 | | | | | |

IV. 教学实践：请标出您使用以下教学活动的频率 1=从不，2=很少，3=有时候用，4=经常用，5=很频繁地使用。

| 题号 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|--------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 我使用英语教学。 | | | | | |
| 2 我给学生逐字逐句的讲解课文。 | | | | | |
| 3 我让学生自己查资料，在班上做 presentation。 | | | | | |
| 4 我让学生写命题作文（essay）或者故事。 | | | | | |
| 5 我让学生自己讨论来学习和理解课文内容。 | | | | | |
| 6 我通过向学生提问来检查他们是否理解了课文。 | | | | | |
| 7 我在课堂上做大量的示范（modelling）反复强调重点。 | | | | | |
| 8 我让学生给课文做口头或书面总结。 | | | | | |
| 9 我用汉语来解释词汇和语法。 | | | | | |
| 10 我采用任务教学法。 | | | | | |
| 11 我使用英语歌曲或游戏教学。 | | | | | |
| 12 我给学生放英语电影。 | | | | | |
| 13 我让学生做小组活动，例如 role play, 场景表演，辩论等。 | | | | | |
| 14 我让学生翻译句子和课文。 | | | | | |
| 15 我给学生听写单词。 | | | | | |
| 16 我让学生多做练习（drilling）来加深记忆。 | | | | | |

请检查一遍，看有无遗漏。再次感谢您的合作！

* 如果您有兴趣参加我下一个阶段的大学英语教师个案研究（访谈和课堂观察），请将您的联系方式留下，我会跟您联系告知相关细节。

姓名_____ 电话_____ 邮件地址_____

Appendix J Interview Guide

Interview Schedule

Initial Interview

1. Please tell me your experience of learning English in schools.
2. Do you think your own language learning experience have any influence on the way you teach?
3. What course do you teach (e.g., English Reading and Writing, English Listening and Speaking, or Integrated English)?
- 4a. Can you describe how you teach it? What is your focus (e.g., grammar, vocabulary, comprehension, oral reading fluency, or else)? What do you think is the most important aspect of developing foreign language proficiency?
- 4b. Among the four hypothetical teachers, which one's teaching style resembles yours? Please elaborate (alternative question to Question 4a if the teacher has difficulty describing his or her own teaching methods).

Teacher A:

uses the prescribed syllabus and scheme of work in planning lessons. Except on very rare occasions, she generally sticks to what is prescribed. Even though she sometimes does not think they are appropriate or interesting, she tends to carry out the activities in the course book, and follow the same order in which the activities are presented.

Teacher B:

sees that the primary purpose of teaching English is to develop students' ability to use the language appropriately in various situations. The teaching materials he uses are based on teaching language functions (e.g. greeting, apologizing, etc.). For him, fluency rather than accuracy is more important.

Teacher C:

regards language as a system of grammatical structures. Her aim in teaching English is to ensure that her students can produce error-free language at all times. She plans her lessons around a range of grammatical structures (e.g. passive voice, present perfect, etc.). When introducing new grammar, she first presents the structure to the class, explaining how it works and any necessary terminology associated with it. She then moves on to getting her students to do some activities which would allow them to practice the new structure in a controlled way. Once the students are confident with using the structure, she sets up activities which would allow them to produce the language more freely.

Teacher D:

sees vocabulary as being fundamental to language, and therefore the teaching of vocabulary as being essential if students are to develop confidence in their ability to use language in various social and educational settings. He spends a significant amount of time in teaching vocabulary to students beforehand. He provides definitions and give examples to explain new words. Students are expected to memorize the spelling of the words, and recall their meaning from memory automatically. He sees vocabulary as the foundation of language learning. Thus it is necessary to develop a large vocabulary which students can draw on in reading and listening comprehension and writing.

6. Have you received any training on language teaching methodology?
7. Can tell me a couple of important incidents that helped shape your teaching beliefs or principles in your past experience?

Interviews after classroom observations

These interviews will be based on excerpts of actual classroom incidents and interactions. After each excerpt questions will be asked.

1. What was the goal of this lesson or what did you want to achieve in the respect of content as well as students?
2. What was the positive outcome of this lessons and what had contributed to it?
3. What problems or difficulties you have encountered and how you resolved them?
4. What beliefs, principles or knowledge guided your decision making in class?
5. What impressed you most or what you have learned from this classroom practice or experience as an EFL teacher?

Appendix K Transcription Conventions

- (?) talk too obscure to transcribe.
 - Hhhhh audible out-breath
 - .hhh in-breath
 - [overlapping talk begins
 -] overlapping talk ends
 - (.) silence, less than half a second
 - (..) silence, less than one second
 - (2.8) silence measured in 10ths of a second
 - ::: lengthening of a sound
 - Beau- cut off, interruption of a sound
 - he says. Emphasis
 - = no silence at all between sounds
 - LOUD sounds
 - ? rising intonation
 - (left hand on neck) body conduct
 - [notes, comments]
 - : length
 - (.) pause of 0.5 seconds or less
 - (n.n) pause of greater than 0.5 seconds, measured by a stopwatch
 - () transcriber comment
 - < > uncertain transcription
 - (()) nonvocal noise
 - [] overlap beginning and end
- (Sources: Bailey, 2008; Bucholtz, 2000)

Appendix L Examples of Narrative Analysis

1. A narrative analyzed with the Labovian approach

Tony: 学生的反馈是非常地 positive (abstract). 我在下学期开课之前, 做一个问卷, 匿名的 (orientation), 让我比较欣慰的就是他们反馈大部分是 positive 的, 因为是匿名的, 但是没有人骂, 或者说不好之类的, 有个别的可能态度有点差, 或者没感觉之类的, 但是很多学生都那种称赞啊, 或者“人生正能量大师”这一类的 (complicating action), 让我觉得当老师可能意义就在这里。这就是让人欣慰的地方因为当时我写那个题目的时候就说, 我可能改变不了你的人生, 但是我是路边的一个小草, 在你眼睛累的时候, 湿润一下你的眼睛, 我就觉得已经足够了。这是当老师让人觉得或者有意义的一个地方 (evaluation)。

English Translation

Tony: Students' feedback was very positive (abstract). I did a survey before the semester started and it was anonymous (orientation). In spite of only a few with unpleasant attitudes, many students wrote words of praise. For instance, they called me "the positive energy giver." (complicating action and result). I was happy to see that most of them held positive views toward my teaching. I think perhaps this is the meaning of being a teacher (coda). It made me happy. I said to them when I handed out the survey that I might not change your life, but I would like to be the grass on the roadside. If I can help relieve the tiredness when you look at me, that's enough. That is where I found the meaning of being a teacher (evaluation).

2. A narrative analyzed with the thematic approach

Chen: 那你有没有觉着在大学里, 英语这个课程跟其它的课程不一样啊?

Tony: 我觉着不大一样。几方的原因, 首先, 在中国这种唱衰大学英语的这种背景下, 老师都觉着自己很无力, 因为它不是自己的专业, 很多学生都以直接的经济效益为看齐, 所以他的专业对他来说更重要, 所以很难讲你和他的专业课。但是有的学生也觉得学高数和政治也没用, 我就以这个做比较, 政治比英语还没用。但是我也知道他们根本都不学。他们就是去听听, 偶尔参加一下。他们根本也都不学。所以政治老师他们更惨, 但是, 在中国这种政治环境下, 政治老师要比大学英语老师好, 因为没有人敢攻击马列主义部。所以退而求其次, 攻击谁, 攻击英语呗。数学能攻击吗? 数学是基础课程啊, 也不能攻击。大学语文能攻击吗, 学中国的东西不能攻击。所以只能攻击英语。所以大家就唱衰英语。我认为大学英语要改.....

English Translation

Chen: Do you think *College English* is different from other subjects in universities?

Tony: Yes. I can see a couple of factors contributing to this. First, at present, the whole climate across the nation is that *College English* is viewed as a marginal subject in tertiary institutions. Against this backdrop, EFL teachers feel helpless and powerless in talking students into English learning, because students think their major courses are much more important to them and studying them are more beneficial for their future careers. Some students think *Advanced Math* and *Marxism* are useless too; therefore, I tell them English is more useful than Marxism. But you can't deprecate these subjects In China. You can't attack Marxism; it's politically sensitive. You can't criticize the learning of Math or Chinese. Math is one of the fundamental courses in science while Chinese the official language and the essence of the Chinese culture. So people belittle the English subject. I think CE needs some transformation...

Challenge: the social and institutional climate is against College English. CE is regarded as a useless subject. Heteroglossia: voices from students and others

Appendix M ANOVA Test Results for Belief Factors

Table 1
ANOVA Results of Beliefs by Years of Teaching Experience

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-------------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Communicative Conceptions | | | | |
| Between | 4 | 2.49 | .043 | .03 |
| Within | 321 | | | |
| DV: Traditional Conceptions | | | | |
| Between | 4 | 1.58 | .158 | .02 |
| Within | 321 | | | |

Table 2
ANOVA Results of Beliefs by Qualification

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-------------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Communicative Conceptions | | | | |
| Between | 2 | .44 | .645 | .00 |
| Within | 323 | | | |
| DV: Traditional Conceptions | | | | |
| Between | 2 | .07 | .930 | .00 |
| Within | 323 | | | |

Table 3
ANOVA Results of Beliefs by Major

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-------------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Communicative Conceptions | | | | |
| Between | 2 | .93 | .446 | .01 |
| Within | 323 | | | |
| DV: Traditional Conceptions | | | | |
| Between | 2 | .88 | .475 | .01 |
| Within | 323 | | | |

Table 4
ANOVA Results of Beliefs by Overseas Experience

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-------------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Communicative Conceptions | | | | |
| Between | 3 | .99 | .394 | .00 |
| Within | 322 | | | |
| DV: Traditional Conceptions | | | | |
| Between | 3 | .53 | .659 | .00 |
| Within | 323 | | | |

Table 5
ANOVA Results of Beliefs by ELT Training

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-------------------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Communicative | | | | |
| Conceptions | 2 | 2.22 | .110 | .01 |
| Between | 323 | | | |
| Within | | | | |
| DV: Communicative | | | | |
| Conceptions | 2 | .09 | .910 | .00 |
| Between | 323 | | | |
| Within | | | | |

Table 6
ANOVA Results of Beliefs by Institution Category

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-------------------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Communicative | | | | |
| Conceptions | 2 | 2.04 | .131 | .01 |
| Between | 323 | | | |
| Within | | | | |
| DV: Communicative | | | | |
| Conceptions | 2 | .39 | .678 | .00 |
| Between | 323 | | | |
| Within | | | | |

Appendix N ANOVA Test Results for Teaching Practice Factors

Table 1

ANOVA Results of Teaching Practice by Years of Teaching Experience

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|--|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Communicative, Student-Centered Teaching Practices | | | | |
| Between | 3 | 1.42 | .228 | .02 |
| Within | 322 | | | |
| DV: Didactic, Teacher-Fronted Teaching Practices | | | | |
| Between | 3 | 2.38 | .094 | .01 |
| Within | 322 | | | |

Table 2

ANOVA Results of Teaching Practice by Qualification

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|--|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Communicative, Student-Centered Teaching Practices | | | | |
| Between | 3 | 3.37 | .036 | .00 |
| Within | 322 | | | |
| DV: Didactic, Teacher-Fronted Teaching Practices | | | | |
| Between | 3 | .57 | .565 | .00 |
| Within | 322 | | | |

Table 3

ANOVA Results of Teaching Practice by Major

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|--|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Communicative, Student-Centered Teaching Practices | | | | |
| Between | 3 | .86 | .491 | .00 |
| Within | 322 | | | |
| DV: Didactic, Teacher-Fronted Teaching Practices | | | | |
| Between | 3 | .32 | .865 | .00 |
| Within | 322 | | | |

Table 4

ANOVA Results of Teaching Practice by Overseas Experience

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|---|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Communicative Student-Centered Teaching Practices | | | | |
| Between | 3 | 7.41 | .000 | .06 |
| Within | 323 | | | |
| DV: Didactic, Teacher-Fronted Teaching Practices | | | | |
| Between | 3 | 3.06 | .029 | .03 |
| Within | 323 | | | |

Table 5
t test Results of Teaching Practice by ELT training

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> | <i>d</i> |
|---|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Communicative Student-Centered Teaching Practices | 324 | 3.02 | .003 | 0.41 |
| Didactic, Teacher-Fronted Teaching Practices | 324 | 2.97 | .920 | 0.01 |

Table 6
ANOVA Results of Teaching Practice by Institution Type

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|---|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Communicative Student-Centered Teaching Practices | 3 | 8.43 | .000 | .05 |
| Between | 323 | | | |
| Within | | | | |
| DV: Didactic, Teacher-Fronted Teaching Practices | 3 | 7.94 | .000 | .05 |
| Between | 323 | | | |
| Within | | | | |

Appendix O ANOVA Test Results for Role Identity Factors

Table 1
ANOVA Results of Identity by Years of Teaching Experience

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-----------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Motivator and Advocate | | | | |
| Between | 4 | 1.27 | .282 | .02 |
| Within | 321 | | | |
| DV: Facilitator | | | | |
| Between | 4 | 1.20 | .311 | .01 |
| Within | 321 | | | |
| DV: Reflective Practitioner | | | | |
| Between | 4 | 1.67 | .158 | .02 |
| Within | 321 | | | |
| DV: Book Teacher | | | | |
| Between | 4 | 1.57 | .183 | .02 |
| Within | 321 | | | |

Table 2
ANOVA Results of Identity by Qualification

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-----------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Motivator and Advocate | | | | |
| Between | 2 | 1.58 | .209 | .01 |
| Within | 323 | | | |
| DV: Facilitator | | | | |
| Between | 2 | 4.44 | .013 | .03 |
| Within | 323 | | | |
| DV: Reflective Practitioner | | | | |
| Between | 2 | 6.02 | .003 | .04 |
| Within | 323 | | | |
| DV: Book Teacher | | | | |
| Between | 2 | 1.48 | .230 | .01 |
| Within | 323 | | | |

Table 3
ANOVA Results of Identity by Major

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-----------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Motivator and Advocate | | | | |
| Between | 4 | 1.52 | .196 | .02 |
| Within | 321 | | | |
| DV: Facilitator | | | | |
| Between | 4 | 2.77 | .028 | .03 |
| Within | 321 | | | |
| DV: Reflective Practitioner | | | | |
| Between | 4 | 2.01 | .093 | .02 |
| Within | 321 | | | |
| DV: Book Teacher | | | | |
| Between | 4 | .71 | .588 | .01 |
| Within | 321 | | | |

Table 4
ANOVA Results of Identity by Overseas Experience

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-----------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Motivator and Advocate | | | | |
| Between | 3 | 2.81 | .026 | .03 |
| Within | 322 | | | |
| DV: Facilitator | | | | |
| Between | 3 | .98 | .417 | .01 |
| Within | 322 | | | |
| DV: Reflective Practitioner | | | | |
| Between | 3 | 1.01 | .401 | .00 |
| Within | 322 | | | |
| DV: Book Teacher | | | | |
| Between | 3 | 1.05 | .379 | .00 |
| Within | 322 | | | |

Table 5
ANOVA Results of Identity by ELT Training

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-----------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Motivator and Advocate | | | | |
| Between | 2 | 2.00 | .137 | .01 |
| Within | 323 | | | |
| DV: Facilitator | | | | |
| Between | 2 | 2.37 | .095 | .01 |
| Within | 323 | | | |
| DV: Reflective Practitioner | | | | |
| Between | 2 | 2.64 | .073 | .01 |
| Within | 323 | | | |
| DV: Book Teacher | | | | |
| Between | 2 | .54 | .585 | .00 |
| Within | 323 | | | |

Table 6
ANOVA Results of Identity by Institution Type

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-----------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| DV: Motivator and Advocate | | | | |
| Between | 2 | 5.38 | .005 | .03 |
| Within | 323 | | | |
| DV: Facilitator | | | | |
| Between | 2 | 2.76 | .065 | .02 |
| Within | 323 | | | |
| DV: Reflective Practitioner | | | | |
| Between | 2 | 2.52 | .083 | .02 |
| Within | 323 | | | |
| DV: Book Teacher | | | | |
| Between | 2 | 4.52 | .012 | .03 |
| Within | 323 | | | |

Appendix P Observation Data Coded in Terms of Communicativeness of Teaching Activities

| Teachers | Time/Percentage | Teacher presentation | Non-communicative learning | Pre-communicative language practice | Communicative language practice | Structured communication | Authentic communication |
|----------------------|-----------------|----------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| Tony (200 mins) | Time (mins) | 22 | 42 | 56 | 20 | 20 | 57 |
| | Percentage | 11% | 10% | 28% | 10% | 10% | 28.5% |
| Nancy (200 mins) | Time (mins) | 24 | 15 | 37.5 | 30 | 26 | 38.5 |
| | Percentage | 12% | 7.5% | 18.8% | 15% | 13% | 19.2% |
| Sunny (180 mins) | Time (mins) | 5 | 61 | 28 | 20 | 29 | 22 |
| | Percentage | 6.3% | 33.9% | 15.6% | 11.1% | 16.1% | 12.2% |
| Jessie (180 mins) | Time (mins) | 30 | 48 | 88 | 14 | 0 | 0 |
| | Percentage | 16.7% | 26.7% | 48.9% | 7.8% | 0 | 0 |
| Ellen (200 mins) | Time (mins) | 15 | 35 | 95 | 15 | 35 | 0 |
| | Percentage | 7.5% | 17.5% | 47.5% | 7.5% | 17.5% | 0 |

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