Factors that Affect Chinese Teachers' Use of the L1 and TL at Teriary Level: An Investigation From Sociolinguistic Perspective

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Abstract

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been dominantly advocated in various educational contexts for many years. A number of countries promoted CLT in their English curricula, and the development of students' communicative competence has become increasingly important in the era of globalisation. It is because people from different areas in the world are increasingly interconnected and communicative competence entails international sensitivities to communication needs of global citizens. Emergence of English as a global language and the changing situation of English learning have been acknowledged globally. However, there appears to be increasing resistances against the implementation of CLT in countries like China, Japan and Vietnam. This study is a timely research that revisits English Language Teaching (ELT) in China with the focus on Chinese teachers' use of the Target Language (TL) and First Language (L1). The purpose is to have an in-depth look at the factors that affect Chinese teachers' use of the TL and L1 in College English classes.

The current study took place in a regional university in China. The research methods employed included 53 Classroom Observations, 4 teachers' interviews and 4 students' focus-group interviews, and document analysis. The findings suggest multiple resistances existing in the current research site and call for changes that should be made from different dimensions within the context.

Contents

Author Declaration

I, hereby declare that this submission is entirely my own work, and that all references used in research are fully acknowledged. This piece of work has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other universities.

Student Name: JunLiang Guo

Signature:

Acknowledgement

Not many people in my life; if there are any, I would like to put their names into this piece of work:

JunJun Guo

I am the luckiest person to have you as my younger sister; thanks for supporting me in your hardest time and loving me unconditionally.

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10 years gone, miss you every single day!

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Many thanks to Joelle.

People in St Andrews Building

Feel happy to see and to talk to people I do not know; many thanks for being nice and lovely.

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Introduction

Since the introduction of the concept "Communicative Competence" in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) (Savignon, 1972; Canale &Swain, 1980), communicative language teaching (CLT) has been dominantly advocated in English language education. The trend of globalization has led to a closer relationship between countries and regions, and people from different areas in the world are increasingly interconnected and communicative competence entails international sensitivities to the communication needs of global citizens. Research in the field through empirical studies is seeking better classroom practices. This study is timely research that revisits English Language Teaching (ELT) in China and my research problem is to investigate factors that affect Chinese teachers' use of the First Language (L1) and Target Language (TL) at tertiary level. This study distinguishes itself by extending the research boundary to a regional context and re-conceptualizing communicative competence to examine the feasibility and practicability of CLT in a particular regional context in China.

This thesis opens with the Context Chapter that orients the topic and the re-evaluation of ELT history. Then, it provides a brief summary of the seven chapters that follow. The first chapter is a context chapter which presents an overview of English in a global context and a local context which re-conceptualizes communicative competence in English teaching and learning as a global language. The second and third chapters are literature reviews which present overviews of theories from different perspectives that relate to teachers' language use and teaching methods. It also includes reviews of a collection of empirical studies within different research contexts on various factors that affect teachers' language use. Chapter Three moves from theories of language teaching and learning to a sociocultural theoretical framework with an exploration of social semiotic pedagogy underpinning ELT and it raises a point that a lack of understanding of diverging values and ideologies could cause failure of implementation of CLT and miscommunication. Chapter Four is a methodological chapter which presents the methodology applied in this current study. Chapter Five and Six are findings chapters which present College English classrooms from a pedagogical perspective and sociocultural dimensions. It is suggested that challenges to develop students' communicative competence could be traced to the learning culture within Confucius Heritage Culture (CHC) which prioritizes exams as the dominant assessment mode and a hierarchical relationship between the teachers and the students. The dominance of exams and hierarchical teacher-student relationships have been regarded as barriers to the implementation of CLT which emphasizes the development of communicative competence

rather than linguistic competence and both teacher support and peer support are valued. Chapter Seven discusses the key issues that emerged from the findings. It presents an overview of College English classrooms in current research site; it also speculates on CHC learning culture and the belief system which have been found to be influential in English classrooms. College English classrooms in the current study are featured with limited types of pedagogical activities and limited use of TL. The belief system includes expectation of teachers who are responsible for students' learning, students' preference of learning style being less interactive in classroom activities. Chapter Eight is the Conclusion and Recommendation chapter which presents pedagogical recommendations which bring to light opportunities for initiatives in the implementation of CLT in regional context in China.

Drawing on the sociolinguistic and sociocultural perspective, this study offers fresh perspectives on what Turnbull and Dailey (2009) described as an "age-old and controversial issue" in language teaching and learning by focusing on factors that affect teachers' language choices. The freshness also relies on the complexities of the context. From the pedagogical perspective, L1 is dominantly used in the classrooms where the ultimate goal is to develop students' communicative competence which has become a global demand on individuals; from a sociocultural perspective, a number of contextual factors have been identified that provide no environment to utilize Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) as a world-wide recognized teaching technique to maximize the learning of Target Language (TL).

In this study the research focus is on China's Higher Education (HE); but it presents theoretical implications for ELT in different regional and global contexts. The current study concludes with an urgent warning to develop students' minimal level of communicative competence in the current research context. It ends with an important message that teacher education is urgently required, which should not only involve raising teachers' cultural awareness in ELT practice but improving teachers' TL proficiency. Before proceeding to the context chapter, I provide my research positionality in the Current Study.

Positionality in the Current Study

In this section, I will provide a reflection on my positionality in the current study. This is a qualitative research study which is to explore the factors that affect Chinese teacher's use of their L1 and TL in College English classes. My reflections demonstrate the significance of my positionality by recognizing its impact on the research process, the participants and the researcher. Researcher's positionality is important in a qualitative study in the sense that the

concept of self as a research instrument reflects the possibilities that the researcher's subjectivity will bring to bear on the study and its findings.

Throughout the selection of the research topic and design of the research, my positionality as a Chinese English language learner remains at the forefront of my mind. I am a Chinese English language learner and I attended a College English Course in China before my study in the UK. My background helps me develop a sense of the structure of College English Courses and College English classrooms. It raised my interests to study College English teacher's language choice when I noticed the dominance of L1 being used in College English classes. After graduation, I came to UK to study TESOL and then went back to China to work in a Private English Training Centre and my role was to teach reading comprehension and listening which were key components of College English Tests (CET4 and 6). My target students were College English students, and they shared their stories with me regarding English learning in the university and their desire to develop communicative competence as well as their struggles in learning oral English. I realized that these students shared very similar learning experiences and struggles with me in the point that L1 was extensively used in their College English class and insufficient TL input was provided to develop students' communicative competence. Along with my experience of being a learner, my role shifted from an English language learner to an English language teacher, this led me to recognize that there appears to be constraints preventing teachers' use of the TL in teaching practice. Meanwhile, I realized the teachers' central role in language learning in China's context, and therefore, I decided to use a qualitative research method to uncover factors that affect College English teachers' language choice.

As the participants' experiences are framed in social-cultural contexts, so it is for me as a researcher. It raises challenges in data collection and analysis, particularly the interpretation of the data and the selection of the excerpts. According to Bourke (2014), interpretation consists of two concepts. One is in the researcher accounts of the experiences of the subjects and of her or himself; the second is the participants making meaning of their experiences. Methodologically, I also needed to reflect on a way of thinking about what counts as evidence (Xu & Storr, 2012).

As a Chinese English learner, I expected that my position as a person who shared some level of commonality (Chang, 2002; Fries-Britt &Turner, 2002) in terms of learning experience with student participants would aid me in the establishment of trust with them. What occurred was indeed the case and the student participants shared their expectations, opinions

and beliefs regarding teacher's language use and also the tensions between the examinations and the development of Oral English. Moreover, the students also shared that the Self Language Learning Center appeared not to support their leaning of listening and speaking as it is prescribed in the policy. Rather, the students appeared to be demotivated by the facilities and learning materials provided to them.

Conclusion of Positionality in Current Study

I am both an insider and outsider of the current research. At the beginning, I perceived my positionality as a limitation of the study. This is because I know the context, the teachers and students and I expected that my subjectivity would likely bear on my findings. As the project proceeded, I realized that my position is not necessarily a limitation, as it meets the positionality of participants. I engage in the current study, and it shapes me when I reflect on what happens in the field and more specifically, I am shaped by research participants and the research context. I am aware of my motives in data collection as well as participants'. Their motives relate to my positionality and the recognition of their motives is important in the sense that it is likely to enhance the openness between me and the research participants. As a person who engaged in participatory research with the students and teachers within the context under investigation, my positionality is an important aspect of the research process. I have been aware of this throughout my study. My positionality does not only pertain to its influences on the research process, but I needed to be honest, supportive and caring in my interactions with participants.

Chapter One – Context

1.0 Introduction

With a population of 1.3 billion, China is the world's second largest economy (The World Bank, 2019). China's development is tied closely to China's pursuit of economic development and the escalation of commercial, technological and cultural exchanges with the rest of the world (Gu, 2003). English as a lingua franca has been recognized as a critical tool which helps China to enter smoothly into the global marketplace (Ministry of Education, 2000). English proficiency of the population is viewed as a part of human capital which shows a direct correlation between the population's English skills and the economic performance of the country (Lee, 2012). China's significant growth could be attributed to its heavy investment in the creation of human capital as development of English skills, and it promotes a climate of English learning in China.

The current study investigates factors that influence Chinese teachers' use of the First Language (L1) and Target Language (TL) at tertiary level from a sociolinguistic perspective. This research aims to uncover the factors that affect Chinese teachers' language decisions in College English classroom practices. Investigation into China's English Language Teaching (ELT) is complex. It may not be possible to obtain a comprehensive understanding of ELT without knowing about English education in various historical stages; it may only be possible to obtain a sketchy understanding of ELT without considering China as a context with serious regional disparities which lead to various local sociocultural and socioeconomic developments. Ultimately, varieties in these dimensions distinguish local ELT practices from other regions.

Historically, foreign language has been perceived as an essential tool in developing China's economy and strengthening the nation (Hu, 2005). Relating the country's development to foreign language education means an increasing need to train specialists to learn western science and technology by reading texts and documents (Burnaby & Sun, 1989). Comparatively, not enough attention has been paid to speaking and listening and this has led to an extremely imbalanced development of students' English language skills. In particularly, it has failed to develop an adequate level of students' communicative competence in millions of Chinese English learners (Hu, 2002). This phenomenon was described as "deaf and dumb" English which suggests a lack of students' ability to communicate in English (Fang, 2010). Nowadays, it is widely recognized that Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) enjoys

global popularity, and it would be a solution to the problem of Chinese students who are incapable of using English for communication after years of formal instruction (Hu, 2005). Consequently, CLT has started to be promoted in a top-down manner since its introduction in 1970s to China.

Researching into ELT in the Chinese context, I bear in mind its regional disparities and how they will affect local ELT practices. Therefore, I chose to conduct a thorough investigation of teachers' language use in a regional institution. At the same time, a layered model has been developed to present multiple dimensions of the current research context which associate with local the ELT practice in the current study. More details of the implications about the layered model will be given in findings and conclusion chapters. However, I will apply a similar rational underpinning the development of layered model to structure the context chapter with different themes. Each theme stands for one dimension of the Chinese context. Therefore, there will be five themes in this chapter including, Globalisation, Foreign Language Context, Confucius Heritage Culture (CHC), Socioeconomic Development in the Research Site at Provincial Level, and Research Institution which is named as Institution B in the current study (Figure One). Before proceeding to the key theme, it is crucial to clarify that CHC demonstrates cultural dimensions of China, and it has been organized into a separated theme so as to provide a rich description of China as a cultural context.

Figure One: Adaption of Layered-Model of Research Context

1.1 Theme One - Globalization

In the era of globalization, the social interaction that now takes place on a global scale inevitably involves people across the world communicating with each other. In this situation, language is an essential component of the process of globalization. A single code to unite people of the world linguistically is needed, and so English has emerged as a pre-eminent code for international communication (Seargeant &Swann, 2013). Many people nowadays name it as a *lingua franca* which is a means of communication used by people who do not share the same first language (Seidlhofer, 2001). Globalisation is propelled by English as a global language; mutually, globalisation has promoted the use of English and creates an "English Frenzy" (Park, 2011), which provides a broad context in which English language teaching and learning take place. Below I explore how globalisation relates to the current study with the definition of "English as a global language".

The complex nature of globalisation has resulted in a diverse range of perspectives in defining "English as a global language". In the current study, I will focus on two aspects which relate to my study. The first one has been mentioned above within which English is perceived as a means of communication which takes place among people transcending national boundaries (Seidlhofer, 2004); another aspect is the population of English speakers in the world (Crystal, 2012). These two perspectives involve different dimensions of how globalization would influence ELT in my research context. The spread of English as a global language raises challenges against adherence to English Native Speakers' (NSs) norms; and the growing population of English speakers is interrelated with an increasing enthusiasm for English Language Teaching (ELT).

Crystal (2012) calculated the total number of English speakers as 1.5 to 2 billion people which is about one quarter and one third of world's population who speak English with certain proficiencies (Graham, 2016). The population of people who speak English has been categorized into three groups by Crystal (2012). The first group is English Native users; the second group is users from a Second Language context (SL) within which English has its official role along with the local language in these countries. The third group is users from the Foreign Language (FL) context within which English has been learned as a primary foreign language in the formal education system. Putting them together, Crystal estimates the 1.5 to 2 billion English speakers includes 398.7 million from the first group; the second group with 600 million and the population of the third group includes English speakers from over one hundred countries (McArthur, 1998, cited in Graham, 2016). The figure reveals

that a larger proportion of English speakers are non-native speakers (non-NSs) than the English Native Speakers (NSs). Graddol (1997; 2007) reported that non-NSs have come to outnumber English NSs in the sense that most interactions in English take place in the absence of English NSs. The context has been changing and English belongs to everyone who speaks it, and it is nobody's mother tongue (Rajagopalan, 2004). In a changing context, English Native NSs may not necessarily continue their ownership of English (Kuo, 2006). It raises a question should English language teachers continue conforming to English NSs norms in ELT practices when the status of English has changed into a global language? Seidhofer (2005) reported that English NSs norms are still regarded as custodian over what is acceptable usage. It raises the necessity to re-examine adherence to NSs norms in English language classrooms within which the advocacy of the development of students 'communicative competence' is drawing upon a non NSs model (Jenkins, 2002).

English has been actively promoted as a global language in policy initiatives and education curricula. The recognition of English as a global language has already been seen in China's Foreign Language Education Policies (FLEPs). Guidelines published in 2015 described English as the most extensively used international language and an important tool for international cooperation, and exchanges of science technologies and cultures (Guidelines, 2015). However, it raises a question whether the global and national recognition of ELT gains recognition and acceptance everywhere in China. In particular, the current research is located in a regional institution; China has the largest population of English learners, however, there is serious regional disparities and various socioeconomic status (Bolton,2002; Crystal, 2008). That is to say, regional recognition of ELT may not necessarily be consistent with global and national recognition.

This theme is named as globalisation and therefore, the focus of the theme is to show the relationship between globalisation and English. That is, globalisation propels the development of English as a global language. The changing status of English brings about language policy initiatives in various contexts as an educational response to the growing need for English use in somewhere English is not a native language for the majority (Nunan, 2003). The recognition of English as a global language has been reflected through NFLPs in China, and it calls for an understanding of the impact of English as a global language in instructional practices. The impact comes with an advocacy of English medium instruction which led me to explore the research context in considerable depth. Therefore, the second theme is "China as a Foreign Language Context". China as a research context carries dual features of being a foreign language context and a sociocultural context which is

characterized with a unique educational system. Therefore, four subthemes will be included which are History of English Language Teaching (ELT) in China; China' s Education System; National College Entrance Examination; College English Test.

1.2 Theme Two - China as a Foreign Language Context

In the calculation of global English users, I drew upon Crystal's (2012) categorizations to show persuasiveness of English being a global language. I use Kachru's model (1986) to define Crystal's (2012) categorizations so as to locate China as a learning context in Kachru's expanding circle which holds unique sociolinguistic and cultural realities (Figure Two). Before linking Kachru's model (1986) to Crystal's (2012) categorizations. I will briefly describe Kachru's model (1986). As seen in Figure Two, there are three concentric circles in Kachru's model (1986) which are the "Expanding Circle", the "Outer Circle" and the "Inner Circle". These circles are defined based on the historical and sociolinguistic contexts (Kachru, 1992).

Kachru refers to speakers in Crystal (2012)'s first categorization as members of the Inner Circle within which English is used as the first language in almost all functions. The second category is referred to as members of the Outer Circle within which non-native English users use an institutionalized second-language (L2) variety of English (Lowenberg, 2002). The third category is referred to as the Expanding Circle within which non-native English users perceive English as a foreign language (FL) (McKay, 2011). China locates in the expanding circle as English is taught as a FL (Kachru, 1985). ELT in countries located in the expanding circle will be different from countries located in the Inner Circle and Outer Circle in areas of status of English and functional allocation, acquisition and conformity of norms (Berns, 2005). The following section will contextualize these areas in the context of China. I will start with a review of the history of English Language Teaching (ELT) in China. English as a foreign language has been part of China since the 18th century (Gil &Adamson, 2011). A review of the history of ELT will be helpful in understanding the role and status of English in China. Then, I will look at the functional allocation of English in China with an introduction of China's Educational System. English is a compulsory test subject at almost all stages of China's Educational System (Pan &Block, 2012) cross the country. The results of English subject tests have been perceived as a key to students' success (Cheng, 2008) in academics and their life. Exploration of the history of ELT will help to provide an understanding of how ELT was developed and its implementation at different historical

stages in China. Areas such as acquisition and conformity of norms will not be covered in this context chapter; instead, they will be integrated into themes which are more relevant.

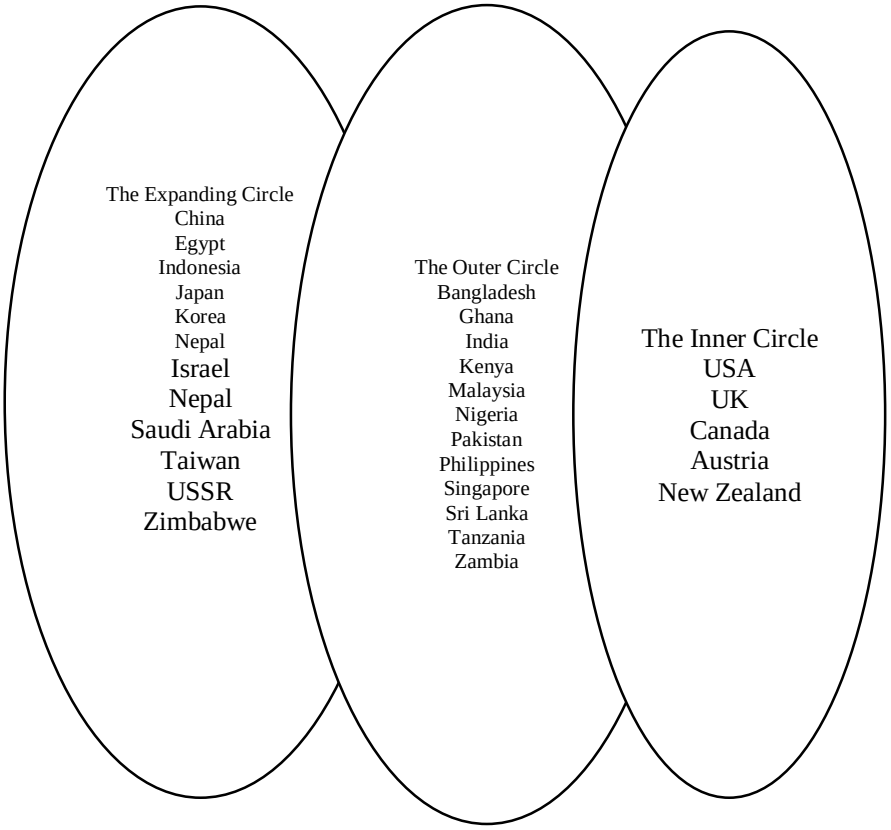

Figure Two: Kachru Model of World Englishes

1.2.1 History of English Language Teaching (ELT) in China

The first contact with foreign language was in 1637 when an expedition of four ships from England arrived in Macau and Canton (Bolton, 2002). However, as my research focuses on ELT at tertiary level in an academic setting the starting point for the examination of ELT history will be around the nineteenth century when formal English study came into play.

China's ELT has experienced changes since it started in the nineteenth century (Boyle, 2000; Ng&Tang, 1997). Its development has been perceived as outcomes of complex interplays of political, economic, social and educational factors (Adamson, 2004; Deng, 1997). Ruan (2012) categorized China's ELT development into three stages. The first stage was to fight against imperialism and prepare the country for the modernization at the turn of the 20th century. The second stage was facilitated by the implementation of an Open-Door Policy in 1976, and English was recognized as helpful to enable China to step onto global stage.

Therefore, the third stage is to propel China's entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO) in the twenty-first century, the successful bid for Olympic Games in 2008 and increasing foreign investments and multinational cooperation with China. According to the role of English at each stage, it shows a highly instrument value of English (Pan &Black, 2012). Historically, the instrumental value of English in the development of China has been recognized, and it may be reasonable to claim that ELT in China's context carries a goal to prepare students to serve the needs of the country. This could distinguish ELT at tertiary level from that at previous stages in China's Educational System, and I will go back to this point when relevant points emerge in the sections below. Next, I will follow Ruan's (2012) idea of examining the development of ELT at different stages; but I will adapt it to link the development of ELT at the following four stages which are Before New China, After the Establishment of China, From 1976-2001: Open-door Policy and Four Modernizations and After 2001: The Peak of English's Popularity. These four stages not only reflect China's development but the development of ELT at tertiary level.

Before the New China (1902-1949)

English was first introduced to China in the middle seventeenth century when the British colonialists established their first trading post in Canton (known as Guangzhou) (Ruan, 2012). The formal English education started in 1862 when the late Qing Dynasty encountered a deep socioeconomic and social crisis (Zhang, 2015). The trigger behind the crisis was double defeats in the two Opium Wars with the West in 1839 and 1856. After the war, the Qing government realized the importance of technology and military power, and then established a number of Westernized schools with the purposes of training interpreters and translators. Jingshi Tongwen Guan (*京师同文馆*) (Sun,1996:36) was the first foreign language training school; after that, an increasing number of interpreter schools was established , such as Guangzhou Tongwen Guan, Shanghai Fangyan Guan and Hubei Self-strengthening school (Hubei Ziqiang Xueyuan). Foreign teachers were employed at schools (Bolton, 2002). English courses were provided by institutions of Higher Education until 1903 (Sun, 1996). Japanese was also taught as a foreign language in some schools at this stage.

Establishments of westernized schools aimed to teach students with advanced western technology; subjects studied in schools included chemistry, anatomy, geology, Western military theories and tactics and industrial technology. English was taught as a means to achieve the learning of these subjects. At the same time, Confucius classics as the

fundamental of Chinese culture of learning were also incorporated into the curriculum (Ruan, 2012). Historically, this is known as the Westernization Movement (Yang Wu Yun Dong,1861-1895).

English and western subjects had been taught in westernized schools, but "westernized" seemed to exclude the assessment system and teaching methods. This study investigates ELT and therefore, I will focus on the assessment and teaching methods of English. Ruan (2012) claimed that China's traditional assessment system and teaching methods had exerted significant impacts on westernized schools. In terms of English the assessment was to test students' rote memorization which took place on a monthly basis (Adamson, 2004). Regarding the teaching methods, Chinese traditional methods were applied in foreign language teaching. For example, students were required to read the textbook aloud and memorize rules of grammar and translation. Zhang Zhidong (1837-1909), the advocator of the Westernization Movement (Yang Wu Yun Dong,1861-1895), proposed an idea that "*Zhong xue wei ti, xi xue wei yong*". "*Zhong xue*" refers to the core of Confucius culture, and "*Wei ti*" refers to the application of western technology. It literally means China's traditional culture should be preserved while building up the nation's power by learning from the West (Pepper, 1996). This idea was not introduced on behalf of English teaching and learning; however, like any other western subjects, English was assessed and taught in a traditional way.

In sum, China attempted to obtain self-development by learning from the western countries; English was taught and learned as a vehicle to achieve the goal. Historically, ELT carried an instrumental value. In addition, components of China's traditional culture of learning were found in the assessment and teaching practice of English since its introduction into China at earlier stages. It suggests a cultural dimension needs to be considered in this current study.

After the Establishment of China (1949-1976)

From 1949 to 1976, development of ELT was not the corollary of the previous stage due to the political climate (Ross, 1993). Tensions were raised between China and western countries, and English was replaced by Russian. Since then, Russian was taught as the primary foreign language at the secondary and tertiary levels of education (Gary, 1991). English was abandoned from the school and university curricula. During 1952 and 1953, English departments in normal universities were closed down and only eight colleges provided English courses (Chang, 2006; Hu, 2001). English teachers were transformed in

order to teach Russian after receiving training through short-term Russian language programmes (Zheng & Davidson, 2008).

In the late 1950s, Russian language lost its dominant role in China's educational system due to an ideological split between Russia and China. The Ministry of Education (MOE) resumed ELT in senior high school and English was prescribed as a compulsory subject test for National College Entrance Examination (NCEE). In 1964, English was officially introduced as the first foreign language in middle schools and this was a landmark of ELT development in China's history as English's role was officially acknowledged by the Chinese government (Chang, 2006). Adamson (2004) described this stage as the first "renaissance" of ELT in China since its establishment in 1949. Unfortunately, it was interrupted by the "Cultural Revolution" which was the largest and longest political movement in China's history (Adamson, 2004). The "Cultural Revolution" lasted from 1966 to 1976, and all classes in schools across the country were suspended during a 10-year period (Ruan, 2012). English classes were also suspended, and all foreign language teachers were sent to the countryside for re-education through manual labour. It was not until 1971 that universities and colleges re-opened, and ELT re-started in higher education. The goal of ELT was to enable students to use English as a "weapon" for future political struggles (Adamson & Morris, 1997).

At this stage, college students were composed of workers, farmers, soldiers and high school graduates and the majority of them did not learn English before their entry to higher education institutions. Meanwhile, for a long time after the Cultural Revolution, China had a shortage of qualified teaching staff and curricula, resources and facilities (Ruan, 2012). Consequently, English had to be taught from the beginning level. From 1949 to 1976, the development of ELT showed a lack of consistency in China's National Foreign Language Policies (NFLPs) and in well-designed planning in English education (Chang, 2006).

From 1976-2001: Open-door Policy

The stage from 1976 to 2001 was a time when China experienced acceleration of economic development with the launch of the Open-door policy. The Open-door policy increased China's contacts with western countries as it allowed an increasing number of multinational enterprises to invest in China. According to Chen (2004), 400 of the 500 most famous multinational enterprises had invested in China by the end of 2000. It made a huge change in English's role, as it extended the use of English from academic settings to daily life. The increasing contact with multinational corporations meant increasing opportunities to have

contact with people from other countries. It inevitably led to an increase in the demand of individual's English capability (Ruan & Leung, 2012). The goal of ELT had to shift from the development of learners' reading skills to their speaking skills so as to enable communication with people from other countries.

At this stage, several initiatives in English education at tertiary level had been made and they led to English starting to gain priority in China's educational system. Firstly, the MOE issued a document to stress the significance of English teaching and learning in 1979 (Zhang, 1984). Ruan & Leung (2012) perceived it as a starting point for English to gain its predominance in China's educational system. Since then, English has been incorporated into the school curriculum and enjoyed equal position with Chinese and Mathematics in secondary school (ibid). In sum, English's role had been acknowledged socially and academically at this stage.

After 2001: The Peak of English's Popularity.

From 2001 until now, there are plenty of issues marking the development of ELT in China. However, I bear in mind that this is a context chapter and my focus is on understanding ELT in a broad context. In particular, the development of ELT in China's history suggests that English has a highly instrumental value in the sense that it bore immediate influences on China's development at different stages. After 2001, there has been an era of globalization. Besides the further pursuit of economic and social development, integration into the global community has become a new goal of China at this stage (Fong, 2009). Several international events showed China's efforts, including China's entry into World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2001, organization of Olympic Games in 2008 and World Expo in 2010. Ruan & Cheung (2012) interpreted China's engagement in international events from another perspective. They believed that China's engagement in international events was a way to present itself to the world and enhance China's interaction with the world.

From any perspective, these international events made English's popularity in China reach a new peak, and English teaching and learning received unprecedented widespread public support (Ruan and Cheung, 2012). It gave rise to various social activities related to English learning, such as "Beijing Foreign Language Festival" and "Foreign Language Week" in Beijing, and "English Days" in Shanghai (Bolton, 2002) and more similar events in other areas were reported in the local news. Gargill (2006) perceived these English learning social activities as a way to incorporate ELT into the Chinese social and cultural fabric which is likely to boost the general public's English proficiency. It suggests that a kind of English

context had been established in China's social context (Pennycook, 2007). It is suggested that this shifting context for English calls for the re-consideration of English teaching and learning as a foreign language (FL) in China.

In sum, a historical overview of ELT development in China reflects English's unique and unprecedented role and status in China's development. The relationship between English and Chinese politics and national development has been historically ambivalent (Gil &Adamson, 2011). However, it seems certain that ELT history reflected an instrumental value of English learning in China. English teaching and learning have become increasing important as it is not only a matter of teaching and learning but it has significant impact on national development. This recognition has resulted in English's prescribed role as a compulsory test subject at almost all stages in China's educational system. Next, I will introduce China's educational system. The current study is located in the institution of Higher Education (HE); and English is a compulsory test subject in China. An understanding of China's educational system is an essential part of the current study.

1.2.2 China's Educational System

China has universalized the nine-year cycle of compulsory education so that all children must receive at least nine years of schooling (Davey, De Lian & Higgins, 2007). Learning starts from kindergarten (aged 2-6 years), and then primary school (aged 6-12), secondary education (aged 12-18) and then a limited number of students continue through to higher education. The undergraduate degrees are four years, post-graduate for three years and doctoral study varies within different disciplines. China's educational system is presented in the Figure Three below. It shows not only a holistic picture of China's educational system but college students' journey of English learning in formal education.

Generally, English starts to be taught as a compulsory test subject from the third grade onwards in the schooling system; but it may vary among areas. For example, in educationally and economic developed areas, children start to learn English from the kindergarten in the hope that they could attain a higher level of competence in English by starting at an earlier age (Hu, 2008).

Apart from the stage of kindergarten, English is taught as a compulsory exam subject for each stage of the educational system. Accordingly, English language assessment permeates through each stage, and students need to pass the examinations to progress to the next stage

of education. Consequently, English is playing an essential role in China's educational system and I highlight key exams that Chinese students need to take from the stage of primary to Higher Education and beyond in Table One. Before proceeding, I need to make some clarifications regarding the examinations presented in Table One. Firstly, these exams are important in the sense that their outcome will determine whether students are eligible for further study at the next stage; secondly, Chinese and Mathematics are also exam subjects and those two subjects along with English are three major components of examinations at each stage. There may be some other examination components beside these three major subjects, but they vary in different regions. Lastly, they are not the only English exams students undertake. At tertiary l level, students are required to take a final exam of English and the College English Test (CET). The final examination is an Achievement Test which is strongly associated with the content of the textbook; varieties of textbooks are used by different institutions. It is therefore more appropriate to examine the final examination in the university context related to this study. The current study focuses on ELT at tertiary level and CETs are the key English examinations for non-English major college students and they deserve a separate sub-theme.

I refer to Figure Three and Table One to show Chinese student's educational experience. Figure Three demonstrates China's educational system, and Table One shows China's assessment system of Chinese students' English proficiency. It is seen that Chinese students' educational experiences involve numerous high-stake tests in English to complete and each of them has significant influence on students' educational advancement (Cheng &Curtis, 2010). Success in these examinations is seen as the key to success in life for students and for those who wish to pursue further education (Cheng, 2008). This may partially explain why English examinations are closely tied with ELT practices in the China's context.

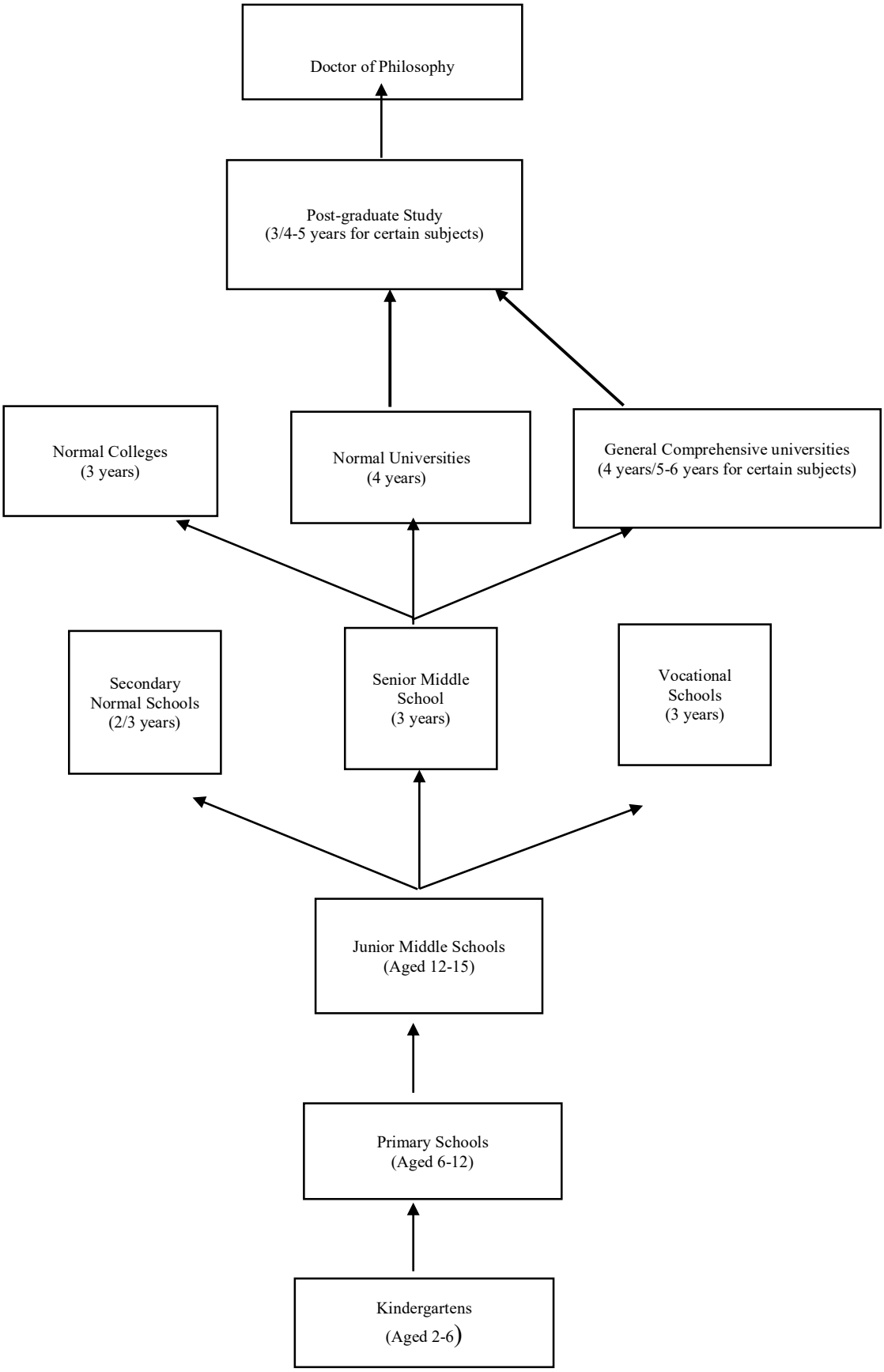

Figure Three: China's Educational System

Table One: China's Assessment System of English Language Proficiency

Stage of Education	Level	Examination
Stage 1:	Primary School to Junior Middle School	Junior Middle School Entrance Examination
Stage 2:	Junior Middle School to Senior Middle-School/Secondary Normal-School/Vocational School	Senior Middle School Entrance Examination
Stage 3:	Senior Middle School to the University/College	National College Entrance Examination
Stage 4:	Undergraduate to Postgraduate	Post-graduate Entrance Examination.
Stage 5:	Postgraduate to PhD	PhD-Entrance Examination

I will focus on two key relevant examinations which are the National College Entrance Examination and CETs (CET4/CET6). Insights into the National College Entrance Examination are important for the current study to understand the diversity of students' TL proficiency as a permanent phenomenon in College English classes.

1.2.3 National College Entrance Examination (NCEE)

The National College Entrance Examination (NCEE) plays an important role in China's society and it is described as "*du mu qiao*" to Higher Education. Literally, it means a difficult, but the only path to access Higher Education. University education is perceived as a key to increase life chances in China where the job market is fiercely competitive (Davey, De Lian, Higgins, 2007). Pedagogically, the National College Entrance Examination is important in the sense that it has shaped pedagogical practices from the secondary education stage onwards (Changbin, 1995). The competitiveness of the examination leads to teachers and students placing considerable pressure on the preparation for the examination.

This examination consists of three compulsory exam subjects: Chinese, English and Mathematics; it also includes optional subjects such as biology, geography, chemistry, geography, history, physics and politics. The exam is represented in the form of "3 +X"; "3"

refers to the three compulsory exam subjects whereas “X” represents combined examination subjects such as “Comprehensive Examination of Art” which includes politics, history and geography or “Comprehensive Examination of Science” which includes biology, chemistry and physics. This is the form of the NCEE in the current research context; the structure of the examination may be slightly different among various provinces. The total score for the exam is 750, and the full score of each compulsory exam subjects is 150, and the “X” is 300.

According to university’s ranking in the country, each university has a minimum score for enrolment. Students whose total score of NCEE passed the minimum requirement are likely to be enrolled if students select the university, they wish to attend in the College application form. Students in Institution B in this study shared a similar total score, but it does not necessarily mean their score for English subject was similar or their English language proficiency was at the same level. The minimum score is a total of all exam subjects. It could happen that a student who obtains a higher score in Chinese, mathematics and subject X but a lower English score is in the same class with a student who obtains a higher score in English and an average score in other subjects. My argument is diversities in students’ TL proficiency exist in the enrolment system which prescribes no borderline score for individual subjects. This phenomenon is intensified when candidates from some regions are eligible to enter with lower total scores than students who are resident in other areas. The total lower scores can mean a lower requirement in the English score. Students’ TL proficiency in College English classes varies and this may lead to challenges for teachers when preparing students with different English levels to pass the CETs.

1.2.4 College English Tests (CETs)

College English Tests (CETs) are national standardized proficiency tests, and the purpose is to examine English proficiency of non-English major undergraduate students in China and ensure that Chinese undergraduates meet the requirement of English levels specified in the National College English Teaching Syllabus (NCETS) (Syllabus for College English Test, 2006, p.1 cited from Zheng &Cheng, 2008). It was officially started by the MOE in 1988 and administered by the College English Examination Guidance Committee, on behalf of the Higher Education Department, Ministry of Education. The CET consists of six bands for non-English major students with each band covering one term. Second-year students with four terms of English courses are required to pass the CET 4 and if students fail, they would be ineligible for a bachelor’s degree (Shao, 2006). Students who pass the CET 4 with a score of 425 are eligible to attend CET 6.

CET results have been regarded as a standardized assessment of college students' English language proficiency. It has been accepted as proof of college students' English language proficiency in the job-hunting market. In addition, the pass rate of CET serves as a uniform standard for evaluating the quality and level of English teaching of universities in China (Liu, 2013). CETs have exerted extensive impact on ELT at tertiary level and the stakeholders involved (Cheng, 2008). For administrators, CET has moved beyond an assessment of students' competence to become an indicator of the quality and level of ELT of the university which affects the rankings of the university in the national league table (Yan & Huizhong,2006). For teachers, the results of the exam have become an important marker measuring the quality of their English teaching (Yan & Huizhong,2006). For students, a desired score of CET would be helpful in hunting for a better job. From this perspective, passing CETs is the common goal for all stakeholders of ELT

The "wash-back" effects of CET4 and CET6, such as "teaching-to-the-test" has been recognised (Tang and Biggs, 1996; Xu and Liu, 2009). Some researchers express their concerns that CET4 and 6 do not assess college students' communicative competence which is the requirement of the teaching syllabus at tertiary level (Gu &Liu, 2005). Despite students learning English over ten years, they were found to be incompetent in communicating in English and in particular were not good in listening and speaking (Ning, 2010). A new reform was conducted in 2007, and the test added more listening comprehension questions, and a speaking test is administered to students who perform well on their written test. However, only a relatively small number of students get the top marks in the CET 4 exam and have the opportunity to attend the oral test (Yan & Huizhong,2006; Wu, 2009). Meanwhile, CETs have been disconnected from college students 'graduation with a recognition of the "wash-back" effects of CETs, and therefore, many universities officially announce that they will not take CETs certificates as the graduation requirements of undergraduates. Students themselves can make their own decision regarding the participation of CETs.

It is evident that English has played an important role in China's national development; English currently continues to enjoy unprecedented importance in the Chinese context with a focus on its instrumental function - "English is learnt as a medium of learning at various stages in the formal educational system" (Kachru, 1983 p.42). English has been perceived not only as a language but a tool to define Chinese students' life potential (Gil & Adamson, 2011). The cultural context is a critical issue to be considered in relation to English primarily

serving an instrumental function. In addition, the importation of Western theories of English teaching and learning has been found to fail to improve students academically from the Confucius Heritage Culture (CHC), the context in which the current research is located (Thanh, 2014). The next section will explore the relevance of Confucius Heritage Culture (CHC) in the context of this study.

1.3 Theme Three - Confucius Heritage Culture (CHC)

Countries such as China, Vietnam, Singapore, Korea and Japan are considered as having Confucius Heritage Culture (CHC) (Phuong-Mai et al, 2005). CHC represents a system of philosophical, ethical and political thought used to regulate the thinking and behaviours of people from countries such as Mainland China, Taiwan, Korea, Japan, Singapore, among others (Biggs, 1996; Wong, 2004; Watkins & Biggs, 2001). Confucius culture emphasizes the ties among individuals in a society, social hierarchy, and social harmony. Children are taught to respect the people who are older and who have a higher rank such as parents, elders and teachers (Ramburuth & McCormic, 2001).

CHC impacts on education beliefs in three ways. First, the role a teacher plays in an individual's growth is instrumental. In Confucius culture, the teacher is more than just a teacher but also plays a moral role as a “parent” who has an obligation to instruct students to follow social norms (Watkins & Biggs, 2001). For example, CHC exhibits the high-power distance dimension which means the hierarchical relationships between teachers and students (Hofstede, 2005). The teacher is considered the font of knowledge, which is delivered without any concession to students (Halliday, 1994). Knowledge transmission has been perceived as the teacher’s responsibility. Accordingly, the students’ responsibility is to absorb what the teacher transmits.

Second, conflict is seen as an undesirable and ineffective learning behaviour and should be avoided with the greatest efforts (Chang, 2000; Chiu, 2009; Williams, Watkins, Daly, & Courtney, 2001). The higher the level of uncertainty and ambiguity in learning, the higher the chance of conflict between students, the less comfortable students from Confucius culture will be with their learning. The avoidance of uncertainty is important in learning. The collectivism aspect of Confucius culture offers a solution by surrendering the individual's learning needs to the group's collective learning interests. Individual learning need is to be sacrificed to satisfy the group's collective learning interests that are determined by the teacher. This reaffirms Chen & Bennett's findings (2012) that the instructors from

Confucius culture tend to cater to the class as a group so that they can cover all the content they deem as the most important to the entire class.

Third, CHC emphasizes the importance of an individual's diligence in academic pursuits and instils the belief that all students regardless of what innate ability they have can do well through significant effort (Chen & Bennett, 2012; Rao & Chan, 2009; Watkins & Biggs, 1996). Students tend to focus mainly on learning achievement and success by concentrating on tasks directly related to their learning achievement and caring less for fun and excitement which are seen as learning-irrelevant activities. This could explain why students make significant effort with language skills, such as reading, writing, translation and listening rather than English speaking which is not a compulsory component of the examination. This highlights the importance of understanding the sociocultural context of language learning in the current study. Next the discussion will move to the particular regional context. Regional disparity makes a difference in the allocation of financial and educational resources which ultimately affect ELT practice in classrooms. This provincial layer is important in the sense it establishes a unique sociocultural and socioeconomic environment for a research study in a regional context; it deserves a careful investigation so as to understand the detailed background information about the research institution. Without narrowing down to understanding the provincial level, I will not obtain a comprehensive understanding of factors that may affect ELT along with teachers' language use and therefore, the next section focuses on the provincial layer.

1.4 Theme Four - Socioeconomic Development in the Research Site at Provincial Level

In this theme, a brief introduction of the province's socioeconomic development will be provided, and the province will be named as XX province to maintain confidentiality of the research site. The local economic development of the province has a strong association with the establishment of technological development zones in the province which creates more job opportunities. English learning has been associated with better job prospects such as employment in international companies (Lam, 2005). Several companies in these technological development zones are joint-ventures, and the capital city of the province has also attracted numerous foreign investments from various countries and regions. Again, in order to maintain confidentiality, I will anonymize names of all organization, companies and events mentioned that are associated with XX province including technological zones;

instead, several figures will be used to show their importance in the local economic development.

XX province is one of the best provinces for Technological Development and it includes several national level high-tech and industrial zones and all of them contribute to the local economic development. In 2018, the nominal GDP reached around 3.9 trillion yuan (US595 billion) which tripled that of 2010. The majority of technological zones are located in the capital city whose GDP was about 1,500.000 billion yuan in 2018. The capital city has also attracted an increasing number of foreign investments, and over 5000 foreign-invested enterprises have been established in the city. The capital city has been ranked among the top list of China's metropolises. At the time of data collection, the capital city looked for the chance to increase its global engagement by organizing international events. The local economic and social development enables provincial educational development; XX province has a huge population of students and a number of schools and institutions of Higher Education (HE). The following section provides an overview of higher education in XX province.

XX is one of the well-developed provinces in education, and it has over 100 higher learning institutions, over 80 of them located in the capital city. These universities and colleges make the capital city a hub of higher education and research in China. The large population of students and numbers of top-ranking universities contribute to make the XX province a province with a good reputation in education. It is also worth noting the commitment and efforts that the local government has made for its education development.

"Education first "strategy would be further implemented so as to ensure all types of education are developed in an all-round way. Priority will be given to the development of education. Increasing amount of money and efforts will continue to be invested in education". (Local government website)

The local government itself has made efforts to enhance its higher education and at the same time it has recognised that a majority of universities in XX province have to explore multi-channels to raise funds for their own development. The government encourages university-company collaboration, which has become an acknowledged strategy applied by the local government. A statement presented in the local government's official website states:

"XX *will actively explore the interactive mode of enterprises and universities so that education can better integrate with the economy and better serve the economic and social development. XX will relieve the debt of universities actively and effectively".*

Uuniversity-company collaboration tends to open up more possibilities to raise funds for the university. Institution B is an example (the institution involved in this study). It received multiple funding from the provincial government, MOE and subject-relevant enterprises and alumni. Regional disparity appears not to cause a financial dilemma regarding the local development of education in this region. Institution B where all data arising from Classroom Observations, teachers' and students' and documents analysis come from will be discussed in the next section.

1.5 Theme Five - Research Site: Institution B

Institution B is a public, comprehensive research university located in XX city, capital of XX province in central China. It is a key university co-administered by Ministry of Education and XX Province. It claims traditional strengths in engineering and sciences that are integrated with contemporary popular disciplines such as medicine, economics, management, humanities, art, law and philosophy.

The history of the institution dates back to the late Qing Dynasty. Its recent history witnessed its development by merging with other colleges and institutions to develop key disciplinary fields. Currently, it is authorized to confer over 60 Bachelor's degree programmes, 30 Doctoral degree programmes, 104 Master's degree programmes as well as master's degree programmes of Engineering in 17 fields. Among them, 2 first-class Master's degree programmes which are ranked Top 10 in China. Institution B has established several high-level research centres, including one national key laboratory and 12 experimental centres with private enterprises. As a university, Institution B has subject strength and has established extensive collaborations with different national organizations and private enterprises. In a broader environment, Institution B is surrounded by plenty of joint-ventures. English has become an essential requirement for students in Institution B in the local context. Globalization compels Institution B to recognize the significance of developing students' communicative competence in English; in the era of globalization, Institution B needs to develop students' communicative competence, as English is an indispensable component for China's modernisation and internationalisation. Next, I will look at College English Teaching in Institution B.

1.5.1 College English Teaching in Institution B

College English includes two key areas of study which are the Integrated Course and Listening and Speaking. The focus of reading comprehension in the Integrated Course is to develop students' reading skills and text analysis is the key part in the teaching. Listening and Speaking aims to develop students' listening skills and communicative skills. The textbook of Integrated Course is the New Standard College English, published by the Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press; the textbook of the Listening and Speaking Course is the New College English, published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.

The total teaching hours of College English Course for each term is 48 teaching hours and each teaching hour comprises 45 minutes. Non-English major students attend College English courses twice a week. At the end of term, students are required to attend the final exam; the students' total score consists of final exam results, attendance rate of class and performances in the class. In the second year, second year students would attend the CET 4.

1.5.2 College English Classes

In this section, I will provide detail of the physical classroom environment within College English classes. In the class, all desks in the classroom are fixed to the floor and lined up in rows which face the teacher who is lecturing. This type of classroom layout has entrenched itself with "Chinese culture of learning" (Jin & Cortazzi, 2011).

The average number of students in this research study was from 35 to 40. The figure shown in the Student List and records differed from the actual number of students in attendance at classes. I counted student numbers at the beginning of each class and recorded the number in my Field Notes. I found the actual size of classes was smaller and the number of students ranged from 22-40. The figures 22 and 40 were not the average number; rather 22 was the minimum number and 40 was the maximum. Records in my Field Notes illustrated that all four teachers encountered the situation that the number of students in their classes varied in every single class.

1.6 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, I established a context for the current study. Four key themes emerged: Globalization, English History, FL context and China's educational system. Historically, English has been endowed with instrumental value in Chinese society (Pan, 2011). Nowadays, English as a global language has been extensively accepted and acknowledged (Crystal, 2012). Therefore, the instrumental value of English has been reconfigured and the emphasis of English education is ready to shift to the development of communicative competence so as to meet the needs of China's social and economic development and international exchanges (Guideline, 2015). However, China is a Foreign Language (FL) context, and English is learned and taught as a compulsory exam subject. It raises tensions between the exam and the development of students' communicative competence. The current study will be conducted in this context. After an introduction of research context, I will move to literature review.

Chapter Two – Literature Review I (Theories of Foreign Language Teaching and Learning)

2.0 Introduction

Since the 19th century, one of the dominant assumptions of Foreign Language (FL) and Second Language (SL) teaching is that FL and SL are best being taught without references to students' First Language (L1) in the classroom (Cook &Graham, 2012). This assumption is also known as the "Monolingual Assumption". It has been widely accepted in the literature of language teaching through the last thirty years of the 20th century despite receiving increasing criticism resulting in calls for re-consideration of the use of L1 (Cook, 2008; Levine, 2011). Practically, L1 is still extensively used in many language classrooms over the world (Cook, 2008) which is not necessarily reflected in the literature. Therefore, I start this chapter with an introduction of terminologies in relation to the use of the L1 and TL. The use of terminologies reflects principally the research focus from various perspectives, and then, the contexts within which English is being learned and taught. The clarity of terminologies is essential because they are used interchangeably in the literature for different purposes.

Before proceeding, I provide an overview of the literature reviewed in this chapter to clarify how the literature can help to address my research question. I also make clear how different themes interact with each other. In the current study, I investigated factors which influenced Chinese teachers' use of the Target Language (TL) and First Language (L1) at tertiary level. Therefore, the literature will focus on theoretical frameworks underlying the TL and L1 use as well as empirical and pedagogical studies which reflect the actual use of teacher's language across various educational contexts. The theoretical literature mainly involves theories supporting the monolingual assumptions which claim that TL is best taught monolingually without reference to the L1. Specifically, I will focus on theories of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) with a focus on Krashen's Hypotheses which lays the foundation of the monolingual teaching. In recent years, the monolingual assumptions have been frequently questioned, and in particular a range of empirical studies which investigate teacher's language choice in Foreign Language (FL) and Second Language (SL) contexts imply that L1 continues to be extensively used in the classroom. Further evidence is found in studies in the field of the SLA which imply the benefit of L1 use in FL and SL learning. A number of studies in the field of the SLA and Sociocultural perspective (SCT) supporting for the L1 use will also be reviewed.

This chapter concludes by looking at the literature of language teaching with a particular focus on teaching methods and approaches which are relevant to the use of the L1 and TL. Particular attention has been paid to the GTM and CLT. As the literature (Cook, 2007) implies, GTM continues to be widespread in EFL contexts, and consequently, extensive L1 use is found in ELT practice. Therefore, the shift from the L1 to the TL appears to become a perceived barrier in the implementation of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), particularly in the context within which the current study was conducted. CLT holds a position that the primary function of target language use (TL) is for communicative purpose and TL is learnt through its use in communication (Brandl, 2008). Consequently, one of the key tenets of CLT is to engage learners into meaningful interactions in the TL so as to develop their communicative competence (Hymes, 1971). Therefore, the extensive TL use is essential in that it provides opportunities for learners to use the TL. This is particularly important in Foreign Language (FL) contexts within which students' access to the TL are restricted to the classroom settings. However, it is important to make it clear that CLT does not explicitly exclude the L1 in spite that it may hamper learner's acquisition in TL (Swain, 1985). Rather, the literature implies that L1 has its place in CLT and the exclusion of the L1 is not advisable (Spada, 2007). This is not only due to the increasing amount of study re-examining the value of the L1 (Neokleous, 2017; Turnbull, 2018) which indicates pedagogical advantages of the L1 use in TL learning, but the L1 use tends to be a context-sensitive issue which needs to be examined in context. In order to uncover how L1 is related to CLT, a number of empirical studies will be reviewed in the chapter.

2.1 Terminology

A few terminologies have been used in academic debates regarding the use of target language (TL) and First Language (L1). It has led to considerable confusion, because different terms have been used to refer to the same concept by different scholars and authors from various perspectives. In this regard, clarity is needed in the current study to locate the research problem in a precise manner.

China is a multi-ethnic country which has 56 ethnicities and has a huge number of dialects. Mandarin has been promoted as the official language but is not necessarily the mother tongue (ML) or native language of students. First Language (L1) is not a satisfactory term for Chinese students but it can be considered more accurate, because Mandarin is regarded as the official first language in China. I therefore use the notion "First Language" (L1) for the

existing language of teachers, Mandarin, which is also shared with their students. English has been taught and learned in China as a Foreign language (FL) and it is most likely to take place in an academic setting. Therefore, I use Target Language (TL) to refer to the new language to be taught and learned. Hall and Cook (2012) argued that TL implies military overtones. However, considering the role of English in China, which has been examined in the previous chapter, English learning has a highly instrumental value, and it carries a sense that English is being learned so as to realize goals – at both the macro level regarding the promotion of China's development and micro level, as regards passing the exam. Nowadays, Chinese students may learn English for multiple purposes, but the dominant goal for the majority of students in China's context continues to be the examination (Cheng & Curtis,2010). This is because English has been taught as an examination subject at almost all stages of China's educational system (Table One).

For the reasons mentioned above, this study will adopt the terms "L1" to refer to Mandarin that the teachers and students have already known and use extensively and through which they approach the TL which is the new language being taught. In terms of the behaviour of language switching, I prefer to describe this process as the teachers' use of L1 and the TL which allows me to examine the research problem from a wider social, cultural, pedagogical and institutional dimension. By contrast, 'code-switching' narrows the scope of the research as it involves a great deal of work in syntax, morphology and phonology or the evidence of grammatical theories (MacSwan, 2000; Jake & Myers-Scotton & Gross, 2002; Nilep, 2006). The current study takes a more generalised view of the research problem, rather than focusing on these specific areas. Thus, I decided to use teacher's TL and L1 use to describe the behaviour as language switches.

In sum, the key terminologies which will be used in this thesis are TL, L1 and teachers' use of the TL and the L1. Next, I will start the review of literature with the Monolingual Assumption of Language Teaching, because it has been one of the fundamental assumptions of FL and SL teaching (Cook, 2017); that is, FL policies across various countries have been dominated by monolingual principles (Cummins 2008; McMillan & Rivers,2011; Makalela 2015).

2.2 Monolingual Assumptions of Language Teaching

From the late nineteenth century, monolingual teaching has been widely promoted in the literature of language teaching and has gained its status as an unchallenged assumption of

particularly Foreign Language (FL) teaching, not only in teaching English but other major languages in Europe (Graham &Cook, 2012). The development of the Monolingual Assumption is partially attributed to the historical context. The goal of foreign language learning started to move away from traditional language teaching methods such as the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) which emphasizes the skill of translation in and out of the TL language. It aims to primarily develop learner's reading and writing skills (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2013). The Reform Movement (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004) drew upon research in fields of phonetics and psychology to oppose GTM and advocated a method which shifted attention of language teaching to spoken English. The monolingual assumption emphasizes exclusive use of the TL with minimum interference from the L1 (Howatt, 1984; Cummins, 2007). Practically, one of the important reasons behind the wide acceptance of the Monolingual Assumption could be said to be the development of the "Berlitz Method", a language teaching method excluding students' native languages in classrooms (Berlitz London, 2011), which gained increasing popularity from the 1950s. Berlitz Schools were founded in the USA and established organizations in other countries across the world, and the Berlitz Method was extensively used in teaching English and other languages. Consequently, it could be argued that the success of the Berlitz Method led to the monolingual principle underlying became a model of language teaching. It is worth mentioning the background within that period which contributed to the popularity of the Berlitz Method. At that time, students spoke different L1s, and native speaker teachers did not necessarily know students' languages which made the reference to students' L1 impossible in the classrooms. This is one of the reasons the Monolingual assumption has been criticised because its success cannot be separated from practical considerations (Graham & Cook, 2012). Further, the development of the Berlitz Method is in the context of the emergence of the Direct Method. The primary focus of the Direct Method is to develop learner's competence in listening and speaking, and therefore it encouraged the direct use of the TL as the medium of instructions in all situations in the classroom setting (Yu, 2001). Despite the widespread acceptance of the Monolingual principle in language teaching attributed to the historical background, it is theoretically supported by Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories, which, more precisely, drew on Krashen and Terrell (1983)'s Natural Approach. Therefore, I will next review the theories of SLA underpinning Monolingual teaching.

2.3 Understanding Monolingual Teaching from the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) Perspective

From the perspective of SLA, there are two key theoretical tenets that supported monolingual teaching, which are the development of children's First Language (L1) Acquisition and Krashen's Hypotheses. (See detailed discussion of Krashen's hypotheses in section 2.4). Specifically, the idea underpinning the avoidance of L1 is that children learn their L1 without references to another language (Cook, 2017). In this regard, L2 learning bears a resemblance to the development of children's L1 acquisition. I will refer to Lightbown and Spada (2006, 2013) who explained L1 acquisition from three different perspectives. They are the behaviourist perspective, the innatist perspective and the interactional/developmental perspective. After reviewing each of them in detail, I will move to Krashen's theory (1983).

2.3.1 The Behaviourist perspective

Behaviourist theory is an influential theory of learning which was popular in the 1940s and 1950s in the USA, and it was mainly advocated by B.F. Skinner (1957). Behaviourism perceives language as a set of grammatical structures which entails phonemes, morphemes and syntax (Savignon, 2018). Language learning is regarded as a verbal behaviour (Skinner, 1985) which is observable like any other behaviour. Precisely, behaviourism emphasizes extensive drilling and repetition in the learning process, and then, learning processes are enhanced by reinforcement afterwards. Referring this process to the development of children's L1, behaviourists argue that children initially attempt to imitate the language around them, which is described as stimuli provided to the children, and with the stimuli, they are likely to respond with the reproduction of the language, conditioned with positive reinforcement like praise or successful communication. The "positive reinforcement" encourages children to continue to imitate and practise these sounds and language patterns until they form "habits" of correct language use. The reinforcement could also be realized in a negative way such as punishment or disapproval. The reinforcement is fundamental as it increases the likelihood that language behaviour will occur again and ultimately become a habit (Richard & Rodgers, 2014) or not, but the positive reinforcement tends to be more important than the negative one in children acquiring their L1.

Behaviourism seems to offer a reasonable way of understanding how children learn some of the regular and routine aspects of language at early stages. That is, language learning is perceived as a process of habit formation and assumes that children automatically acquire

the language through exposure to stimuli provided by the linguistic environment. Relating Behaviourism to L2 learning, behaviourism perceives language learning as an observable behaviour and emphasizes the role of external factors in the learning process such as stimulus and linguistic environment and seem to ignore inner mechanisms (Nor & Ab Rashid, 2018). This is where Behaviourism receives criticism from different theorists, among them, Chomsky, whose innatist theory (1959) was described as a successful damaging criticism of behaviourism (Graham, 2000). Chomsky (1959) denies children have to wait for the stimuli provided to them to learn a language and argues that children acquire complex grammars without reference to any other language. He argued behaviourism fails to provide sufficient explanations of how children acquire the complex grammar (Lightbown &Spada, 2013).

2.3.2 The Innatist Perspective

Chomsky (1959) hypothesizes the commonality of the development of children's L1 acquisition. Specifically, he claims that children are born with an innate template for language which is called the Language Acquisition Device (LAD). It contains principles that are universal to all human languages (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). From his perspective, the children are born with a specific innate ability to make sense of the underlying rules of a language system on the basis of language samples they are exposed to (Gass, 1989). Chomsky's Universal Grammar (UG) denies that language learning involves merely repetition of mechanical aspects of language (Mitchell & Myles, 2019) as the Behaviourism advocated; it seems to also deny language learning arising from social contact (Cook, 2010).

Further, Chomsky assumes that learning the rules of the children's L1 is universal, and it suggests that the linguistic environment plays a limited role in L2 learning. Innatism receives criticism from Piaget (Pascual-Leone, 1996) who argued that language is acquired through interaction between children and the physical environment.

2.3.3 Interactionist/developmental perspective

Unlike the Innatists, Interactionism emphasizes the role of the environment in the learning process rather than an innate mechanism in the human brain (Spada & Lightbown, 2013). They believe that what children need to know in language learning is available in the language they are exposed to, and they acquire the language through interactions with people around them. This view was espoused by Vygotsky (1978), a socio-culturalist, who argued for the importance of interaction in developing children's language acquisition. However, Vygotsky was different from Piaget in the sense that Vygotsky associated the development

of children's acquisition with the social dimension of the interaction. He believed that language develops primarily from interactions between children or between children and adults rather than children themselves with the physical environment. Lightbown and Spada (2013) echoed Vygotsky (1978) by putting stress on interactions that children involve in, because interactions principally contribute to the origins of children's language and thoughts, and then allow them to access language that is adjusted to their comprehension level.

In sum, each of the three perspectives provides an explanation regarding how people acquire their L1. Behaviourism values the linguistic environment within which positive reinforcement is available, and this reinforcement continuously encourages children to imitate and practise the language they hear until the habit is formed; however, it may explain how children acquire simple language patterns, but it fails to provide evidence to show how children acquire complex grammatical structures. Chomsky (1959) proposes the idea of Universal Grammar (UG) which claims that children acquire their L1 in a universal way and tends to emphasize the powerful role of inner mechanisms, the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) situated in the brain, in the development of language acquisition. Chomsky tends to minimize the role of environment in language development, and this is rejected by the interactionists. From the interactionist perspective, interactions between children and the physical environment, as well as social interactions with other children or adults are emphasized. In particular, they argue that language and thoughts primarily develop through social interactions, and they provide children opportunities to find out whether their utterances are understood and the adults they interact with need to make adjustments to their language accordingly. The interactionist perspective suggests the important role of input in terms of L1 acquisition.

Next, I will look at Krashen's (1983,1985,1988) theories of language learning which justify the theoretical tenets underpinning the monolingual assumptions. Before proceeding, I need to clarify that Krashen's theories were published in different publications and some of his work was co-written with other scholars. Therefore, I refer to Krashen and Terrel (1983) when looking at "acquisition" and "learning" hypothesis.

2.4 Krashen's Hypothesis

Krashen's and Terrel (1983)'s theory mainly includes five hypotheses which are the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the

input hypothesis and the affective filter hypothesis. The following section will look at each of these hypotheses in detail.

2.4.1 Acquisition- learning hypothesis

Krashen and Terrel (1983) claim that an adult L2 learner can "internalize" the rules of TL through two distinctive systems which are acquisition and learning (Greggs, 1984). Acquisition is an outcome of a sub-conscious process, and this process is similar to the way children acquire their L1 which is attributed to the in-built LAD (Chomsky,1981; Krashen & Terrel, 1988: 26-27). That is, language acquirers are unaware of that they are acquiring language; instead, they are aware that they use the language to communicate (Krashen, 1982). Therefore, the "Acquiring" process requires meaningful interactions in natural communication (Schütz, 2007). In interaction, interlocutors are concerned primarily with the meaning of the language rather than the form of the language. In contrast, learning is a conscious process in the sense that it results in conscious knowledge about the TL, such as the grammatical rules. Learning is a product of formal instruction which requires learners to be aware of explicit knowledge of the language, and to be able to talk about it (Krashen, 1982). The differences between acquisition and learning systems also rely on their attitudes towards errors. The acquisition system results in the development of acquirer's language competence which is also sub-conscious; in other words, the acquirer has a sense of "feeling" the correctness (Krashen, 1982, p.10), and errors are acceptable. In contrast, error detection and corrections are central in the learning system (McLaughlin, 1987).

These two systems co-exist in adults but imply two independent ways of learning in a SL which lead to different outcomes. A learner who acquires a language is likely to develop a feeling for the "correctness" of the language in a "sub-conscious" way (Zafar, 2009). In contrast, the learning of conscious rules helps learners to monitor their language by modification and correction, so as to allow learners to reach the "right" form of language rules. Krashen (1982) claims that acquisition is a powerful process in adult's language learning and the learning and acquisition hypothesis indicates that adult language learners are also able to acquire the SL as children do. However, Krashen (1982) makes it clear that it does not necessarily mean adults would always acquire native-like level in SL learning even if they are capable of 'picking up' the language.

The learning-acquisition hypothesis seems to provide some grounds for teacher's use of the L1. In particular, the learning system of the SL; if the "learning" process enables learners to talk about the grammar explicitly, it implies that learners must comprehend the grammar before they speak. Grammar is complex and includes various dimensions, from clarification of grammatical functions, nuances of grammatical meanings to grammatical structures (Butzkamm, 2003). In order to enable students to comprehend the grammar, teachers' instruction must be comprehensible. This seems to provide reasonable grounds for the use of the L1 in explaining grammar-related issues (Edstrom, 2006) in a SL or FL classrooms.

2.4.2 Monitor Hypothesis

The Monitor hypothesis represents the distinctions between the acquisition and learning systems in language performance. Krashen (1982, 1983) regards acquisition as the utterance initiator which is responsible for fluency in SL; learning acts solely in the role of being a monitor, which entails planning, editing and correcting functions (Schutz, 2005). The Monitor function works if three conditions can be met. These are:

- Performers have sufficient time, which allows them to think about rules and use them effectively.
- Performer focuses on form and thinks about the correctness.
- Performer is aware of the rules.

The Monitor hypothesis emphasizes the process of conscious learning which is to modify the form of utterance after it is "produced" by the acquired system (Krashen, 1982). It indicates that conscious learning of grammar plays a limited but crucial role in learners' language production. This has been pedagogically recognized by Ellis et al., (2002) who suggests that the teaching of linguistic form and grammatical rules continue to play a major part in language pedagogy. Grammar also has its role in developing students' communicative competence, and Swain and Canale (1980) define grammatical competence as a part of communicative competence. That is to say, the conscious learning of grammatical rules is essential in SL learning. However, in many FL classrooms, including the classrooms in the current study, students are mainly exposed to the learning of grammar rules, because passing exams is the dominant goal of English teaching and learning in FL contexts like China and Japan (Cook, 2017). The Monitor Hypothesis recognizes the crucial role of conscious learning of grammar as a monitor of learners' output and implies a limited function in language learning (Krashen, 1982). However, it appears to undervalue the contextual reality that learning of grammar has been perceived as the priority particularly in certain FL

contexts, and the learners' learning system has been paid more attention than acquired system.

2.4.3 Natural Order Hypothesis

The Natural Order hypothesis claims that "second language acquirers acquire grammatical structures in a predictable order" (Krashen, 1980: 169). More precisely, for a given language, some grammatical structures tend to be acquired earlier than other structures. The Natural Order Hypothesis is independent of an acquirer's age, background of L1 and degree of the exposure to the TL. In other words, all language learners follow a natural order of acquisition no matter what their L1s are (Krashen, 1982).

The Natural Order Hypothesis receives criticism that not all adult language learners attain the language in the same sequence (Zafar, 2009), and individual variation seems to be not considered. Further, the evidence in support of the Natural Order hypothesis is mainly based on English morpheme order studies which are demonstrated unsatisfactorily (Gass and Selinker, 1994).

2.4.4 Input Hypothesis

As one of the most influential hypotheses of FL learning and teaching, the Input Hypothesis is essential to be explored (Loschky, 1994) when investigating the topic of teacher's language choice. This is because the Input Hypothesis answers the crucial question of how learners acquire language (Krashen, 1980). Krashen hypothesized that learners would acquire the language by understanding the "comprehensible input" provided to them. Specifically, "comprehensible input" is at a stage which is a little beyond the learners' current level of acquired competence (Krashen &Terrel, 1983). Technically, comprehensible input is formulated as "i+1" (ibid). "i" refers to learners' current level of competence, and "+1" suggests the next stage of complexity that learners will acquire. In order to understand what is being said (Krashen, 1987), learners need to draw on the help of context or extra-linguistic information to enhance their understanding of "i+1". When communication is successful, input relevant to "i+1" will be automatically provided. It should be noted that the Input Hypothesis relates to acquisition, not learning and implies that "comprehensible input" facilitates learners' development of language acquisition which is not a product of teaching

(Krashen,1982: 21-2). However, it could be argued that the Input Hypothesis has serious implications in the field of FL teaching and learning.

Comprehensible input has been perceived as an essential factor in the development of learners' acquisition, consequently, the aim of FL teaching is to duplicate the acquisition process by using the TL as the medium in the classroom, so as to provide sufficient comprehensible input to learners (Krashen, 1987). The FL teacher is usually the only source available of TL input in classroom settings, so they need to adapt their language to help learners to comprehend what has been said, which includes modification, simplification and repetition of the TL. As a result, learners' speaking develops through the understanding which has been established in the brain through exposure to comprehensible input over time (Macaro, 2003).

Among Krashen (1985)'s five hypotheses, the Input Hypothesis is a strong justification of teacher's exclusive use of TL in SL and FL classroom settings. Teachers' use of TL provides an adequate amount of input for successful SL learning (Mitchell &Myles, 2009). In general, it has been claimed that the FL context is perceived as an input-poor environment of TL (Sze, 1999), and learners are rarely exposed to the TL. In such a context, the adequacy of comprehensible input has become the primary focus of the instruction. However, the result of one empirical study seems to be against the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis in relation to its implementation in classroom settings. Harley and Swain (1984) conducted a study in immersion classes in Canada, which could be considered among the best sources of comprehensible input; but they found that learners made a large number of errors when they spoke (Cited in Macaro, 2003). This seems to imply that the adequacy of input is an essential condition for successful SL learning but not the only one. Further, an adequate amount of input has not been specifically defined by Krashen, but it could be logical to claim that the "adequate amount" in FL contexts is different from the amount of language that L1 children exposed to, and also that in SL contexts.

The amount of time that L1 children are exposed to language is likely to be much more than the time available for learners in FL contexts. Clarke (2003) estimated that three-year-old children devote about 70 hours a week to using new language. By contrast, only 3-4 hours a week is spent in a conventional language class in FL contexts, which provides learners with limited exposure to TL (Butzkamm, 2011). As mentioned previously, Krashen (1985) does not clearly define the notion of "sufficient (or adequate) amount". In the implementation of TL use in the classroom, a massive amount of input is linked to recurring examples of TL

use (Lightbown and Spada, 2013), which implies that the "adequate amount" of input in TL provided by teachers does not necessarily entail a wide variety of meaning-focused instruction but more limited pragmatic functional use of TL. It casts doubts regarding the quality of comprehensible input; further, White (1987) questions the imprecision of formulation, and argues that Krashen does not precisely suggest how Comprehensible Input Hypothesis works in practice.

As mentioned above, Krashen describes each component of "i+1" and claims that "i" refers to learners' current stage of knowledge and "+1" refers to the next stage which is a little beyond learners' current state. In a FL classroom, there are usually about 35 to 40 students, and therefore there may be 35 to 40 different "i"s for each student (Payne, 2011). In addition, the Input Hypothesis implies that "i" is defined by learners rather than teachers, because teachers may not know exactly what the learner's current level of knowledge is. If this is the case, whether teachers' modification of TL could help with learners' acquisition will be another important question to be addressed.

Gass and Selinker (2001) found that utterances directed at less-competent learners could involve adjustments at all levels of a given language from phonological, syntactic and lexical choices. Teachers' modified utterances may meet some students' needs rather than the others, because the significance of modification in TL not only relies on adapting teachers' language to learners' level of comprehension, but also entails a large number of elaborations of L2 structures (Mackey, 2013) which is to ensure learners fully understand the TL being addressed to them. Despite the Input Hypothesis receiving doubts as mentioned above, it is influential in FL teaching and learning, because it is widely believed that learners' fullest competence in TL is achieved if the teacher provides a rich TL environment (Crichton, 2009).

2.4.5 Affective Filter Hypothesis

The Affective Filter Hypothesis describes the relationship between affective factors and the SL acquisition process (Krashen, 1982). This hypothesis is proposed by Dulay and Burt (1977) and was developed by Krashen (1982) who claimed that every learner has an affective filter that determines 'the degree to which the acquirer is "open" (p. 9). Precisely, the Affective Hypothesis identifies three key personal variables that impact on learners' SL acquisition which are motivation, self-confidence and anxiety (Zafar, 2009). A high affective filter is likely to lower the intake of the TL input into the LAD by preventing comprehensible

input from being used for acquisition (Schutz, 2005) and vice-versa. Learners are likely to achieve SL acquisition if the affective filter is at a lower level (Schutz, 2005). MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012) identified the significance of positive emotions on language learning, and they claim that positive emotions enhance learners' ability to notice things in the environment and strengthen their awareness of language input which allow them to 'intake' the input in the TL. In FL settings, part of teachers' job is to create a low-anxiety environment and bolster learners' self-esteem (Krashen, 1982, p.10).

Literature on language anxiety implies that FL learners' anxiety is a unique type which is specific to FL learning (Azher, Anwar & Naz 2010; Horwitz et al. 2010). Horwitz and Cope (1986) name it Foreign Language (Classroom) Anxiety (FLAC), and defines it as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feeling and behaviours related to classroom learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p.128). It is associated with negative emotions like embarrassment, self-doubt, fear and boredom which are found to hamper progress in L2 development. In addressing learners' anxiety, L1 can play a positive role in reducing FL learners' anxiety and enhancing the affective environment for learning (Levine, 2003; Rolin-Ianziti &Varshney, 2008).

2.5 Summary of Krashen's Hypothesis

As one of the most influential models of SLA, Krashen (1982, 1986) has long been "a source of ideas for research in SLA" (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p.38). He has made significant contributions to understanding how people become a proficient L2 learner (Brown, 2000). Along with these credits, however, Brown (2000) described Krashen's theory as one of the most controversial theories in SLA in the last quarter of the twentieth century. In my interpretation, the controversial points rely on Krashen's theories lacking the explanatory power (Gregg, 1984, p.94) of the notions and of the applications in different FL or SL learning contexts which render monolingual teaching less applicable. It particularly involves two hypotheses which are "The Monitor-hypothesis" and "Comprehensible input". Nowadays, grammar is still widely taught and tested in many educational contexts. It may not be surprising to find students know the rules of grammar rather than being able to use them (Savage & Bitterline & Price, 2010). Students in these contexts may have a wider repertoire of grammar knowledge than other language knowledge; the Monitor process is important, however, because it enables them to communicate "accurately, meaningfully and appropriately" (Larsen-Freeman, 2001). In terms of the hypothesis of Comprehensible Input, some notions remain unclear. For example, the notion of "i+1" can be ambiguous (McLaughlin, 1987), particularly in a class with 30 students which is the average size of

College English classes in China. Although Krashen's theories have been criticised to lack explanatory power (Gregg, 1984) in FL and SL educational contexts, many teachers have adopted them as strong beliefs regarding FL and SL teaching in spite of the context. That is, the exclusive use of the TL is seen as an essential condition to develop students' language acquisition, and exposure to TL input has been widely accepted by language teachers. The next section will discuss types of input to the language learners and the focus will be the simplification of comprehensible input.

2.6 Simplification of Comprehensive Input

Krashen (1985) postulates that providing learners with modified language input is an important way to enhance their comprehension of input. He proposes the notion of "caretaker speech", which has been developed with variations which are used interchangeably such as "baby talk" (Gregg, 1984), and "teacher talk". "Baby talk" refers to language that adult speakers use in communicating with babies and young children who do not have full competence in language; similarly, "foreign talk" refers to language used to address foreigners who do not fully command native competence in TL (Ferguson, 1981). They both share features of language forms that adult speakers use in communicating with young children who do not have full competence in the language. Therefore, they are recognized as simplified registers, primarily used by native speakers of a language to outsiders "who are felt to have very limited command of the language or no knowledge of it at all" (Krashen, 1985). Regarding "foreign talk", it also seems to represent a simplification of the norm of the TL which is used by the native speaker (NS) community. Within classroom settings, learners could receive simplified input through teachers' adjustments of their speech, and this is defined as Teacher Talk (TT). TT is a valuable source of comprehensible input for learners which is crucial for developing learners' language acquisition (Krashen, 1981). In particular, TT is the major source of comprehensible TL input that FL learners are likely to receive in FL classroom settings. TT will be reviewed in a separate section (2.7.1). The core idea of these three variations of caretaker speech is to provide simplified input to less competent interlocutors so as to facilitate their comprehension. In the case of FL or SL learning, simplification is defined as "second language input that has been modified by a speaker to facilitate SL learners' comprehension. It includes simplification at levels of phonology, syntax, lexis and discourse (Leow, 1993, p.334).

The simplification of comprehensible input received a variety of criticism (Gregg, 1984; McLaughlin, 1987; Ochs', 1982; White, 1987), particularly with regard to its effects in

SL/FL acquisition (Hatch, 1983). White (1987) argues that simplification can be dangerous for learners, because simple sentences do not necessarily contain complex language properties. Further, simplification tends to have an effect on acquisition by providing learners with more grammatical information (Krashen, 1985; Long, 1985). It is worth pointing out that, from an SLA perspective, teaching grammar is a means to help learners with their comprehension rather than a goal in itself. The explanatory power of "Caretaker Speech" and its variations seem to lack contextualization in different contexts. In particular, the terms like "baby talk" and "foreign talk" are ambiguous in FL/SL contexts which are likely to cause misinterpretations by teachers. These terms may simply be interpreted as the reduction in linguistic complexity which is not found significantly to help with non-native speakers' comprehension (Pica et al., 1987: 737).

The role of simplified input and its effects on making input comprehensible has been acknowledged (Long, 1983a) despite receiving plenty of criticism. Long (1981, 1983a) insists that linguistic modifications are not the only way to provide L2 learners with comprehensible input. Interactional modification is another type of condition for language acquisition.

2.7 Interactional Modification

Interactional modification is perceived as an important strategy of negotiating meaning. Negotiation is "the modification and re-construction of interaction that occurs when learners and interlocutors experience difficulties in comprehensibility (Pica, 1994, p.494). Regarding FL/SL learning, it is claimed that negotiation facilitates learners' comprehensibility, modification of their output, and draws their attention to form and meaning (Long 1996). It principally affords learning opportunities which allow learners to receive input needed for acquisition (Ellis & Shintani, 2013), and then facilitates learners' output (Swain, 1985).

Interactional modification is an essential component in FL/SL classrooms, and it is widely accepted that successful L2 classrooms must create an input-rich environment which provide learners with optimal opportunities for meaningful use of the TL through different types of interactional modifications (Long, 1980, 1996; Pica, 2000; Swain, 1985). In a FL context, the FL teacher is a key interlocutor with students in interaction, and TT is regarded as a main source of comprehensible input available for FL/SL learners (Cullen, 1998). bearing the importance of interaction in mind, I will start with the review of TT below; then, I will move

to Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) which has been identified as one of the most influential teacher-student interaction patterns (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975).

2.7.1 Teacher Talk

From an SLA perspective, TT facilitates FL/SL language acquisition by identifying students' current level of knowledge in TL and directing input at this level. In other words, TT has a key role in creating opportunities for entry into dialogic interaction with students so that teachers can ascertain their current level of knowledge and attempt to determine "+1". Similarly, it also creates opportunities for the joint construction of knowledge (Gibbons, 2003; Van Lier, 2001) by engaging students into "dialogic inquiry" (Wells, 2000). A number of studies conclude that engaging students in elaborated student talk in the classroom setting facilitates collaborative learning, develops high-level thinking and makes knowledge meaningful for students themselves (Nystrand, 1997; Soter, Wilkinson, Murphy & Edwards, 2008). Further, TT in FL/SL settings not only serves as a comprehensible input in TL, a vehicle to expand students' linguistic repertoires in TL (Pica, 1994), but a stimulus for student talk and student participation in classroom interaction. Boyd and Rubin (2006) claim that student talk is a necessary practice in TL learning and a vehicle for the negotiation of meaning in academic subjects and the all-important social milieu (p.142). Walsh (2002) points out that the language classroom should be viewed as a social context in its own right which is jointly defined by the participants. He found that participants in the EFL classroom were restricted in their language choice by the prevailing features of the context. His findings echo Ellis (2003) who emphasized the interrelation between the socio-cultural context and features of the TT. Accordingly, TT in the classroom shapes the type of learning likely to occur.

The current study was conducted in the context of China, where teachers play a traditional role as the transmitter of knowledge (Cheng, 2008). More importantly, the English class involves teacher-fronted tasks such as the illustration of grammar which entail complex language use and requires very little student participation. As a result, teacher talking time can be dominant for the total talking time available in the classroom. It seems to be inevitable that the predominance of teacher talk may deprive students' opportunities to speak and then minimizes their contributions. Further, Walsh (2002) stresses that pedagogic purposes shape teachers' language use. That is to say, the amount of TL use in the classroom is not the only criterion to evaluate the quality of TT, and contextual factors come into play (Guthrie, 1987). In order to have a clear understanding of the "quality" of TT, it is important to understand

communication patterns in the classroom which carry a large amount of TT. Further, part of the current study is to address the question that how Chinese College English teachers' language use is related to the Chinese context and how the pedagogy of the College English class influences their language choice. A review of the literature in relation to communication patterns will provide a base for comprehensive understanding of relationships between contexts and TT.

2.7.2 Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF)

Initiation-Response-Feedback is identified as one of the most influential teacher-student interactions from schools to universities (Sinclair and Coulthard,1975). The structure was extended by Mehan (1979) into IRE which stands for Initiation-Feedback-Evaluation. Precisely, IRF generally consists of one turn of teacher's initiation, one turn of student's response and another teacher turn of feedback. Teacher initiation is usually in the form of questions which aim to elicit students' responses (Dayag et al, 2008), and then the teacher provides students with feedback to their response. Within each round of IRF interaction, teachers make two contributions and students only make one.

IRF has been identified as the most frequent form of teacher-student interaction in the classroom (Kumpulainen & Wray 2003; Van Lier 1988). The basic IRF structure takes a variety of forms which allows it to serve a wide range of pedagogical functions (Nassaji &Wells 2000; Van Lier 2000b). In particular, I, R and F moves are found in almost all exchanges in imparting knowledge in language classrooms (Yanfen &Yuqin, 2010). Furthermore, IRF reflects the teachers' controlling role of classroom interaction (Van Lier, 2000a). On the one hand, teachers control the flow of the interaction by rejecting turns until the expected one is found (Sharpe, 2008); on the other hand, teachers control the opportunities for learning (Walsh, 2002) as they control who may speak and when, how much one can contribute, what topic and the turn-taking through IRF (Hall &Walsh, 2002). It appears that teachers' control is not only realized through the interactive devices they choose but also their language use in the interaction with their students. IRF has been criticised on several grounds. Thornbury (1996) argues that teachers take the majority of initiation moves and students have no opportunities to ask questions by themselves, nominate topics of their interests and negotiate meaning. Van Lier (2000b) claims that the IRF deprives learners' opportunities to take initiative which reduces independent thinking and development of interactional skills (Van Lier, 1996; Wood, 1992). In terms of the students' response, Smith et al (2006) highlight the brevity of students' responses and the

lack of sustained interaction with individuals. In addition, IRF is criticised for depriving students of opportunities of asking questions (Thornbury, 1999), and negotiating meaning (Cullen, 2002). The problem to be addressed is how teachers could make use of their turns to maximize students 'participation in the interaction. Therefore, the following sections will focus on teacher's "I" and "F"/ "E" move.

2.7.2.1 "I" Move and Display Question

Display question refers to the questions where teachers already know the answer and the purpose is to ask students to recite information. Display questions are used to test students' mastery of content knowledge. They tend to be closed. Richard and Schmidt (2010) suggest that teachers use more display questions to initiate interaction in comparison to invitation and direction.

Kim and Elder (2005) report a positive relation between TL and display questions. That is, teachers tend to use a series of display questions to test students' mastery of the target language structure. Interestingly, it is pointed out that this type of interaction does not involve complicated instructions. Display questions gained popularity in ESL and EFL classrooms, and it was found that display questions created more interactions, although display questions resulted in students' responses with short answers (Farooq, 2007). Brock (1986) argues that display questions are less effective in producing opportunities for learners to use TL than referential questions. The next section will move to the literature on the referential questions.

2.7.2.2 "I" Move and Referential Question

Referential questions refer to the questions where the teacher does not know the answer (Long &Sato, 1983) which can be either open or closed. Referential questioning principally aims to increase opportunities for students to use the TL by extending their turns in the interaction with teachers (McNeil, 2012). Studies within various theoretical perspectives report the benefits of the use of referential questions in facilitating FL learning. From a sociocultural perspective, referential questioning promotes students' thinking and provides possibilities for co-construction of knowledge by both the teacher and students (Boyd and Rubin,2006). From the perspective of language teaching and learning, students' responses in the TL to referential questions are perceived as a sign of learning (McNeil, 2012), because referential questions promote students' comprehension and production in the TL which reflect students' own thinking, but which may require teachers' support in the process.

Despite little research conducted regarding the relationship between the type of teachers' questions and students' responses, it seems that the level of the question influences students' responses. In an early study, Wilson (1973) reported that an increase in the mean of the cognitive level of teachers' questions resulted in an increase in the mean level of students' response. That is to say, the cognitive level of teachers' referential questions is likely to result in a higher cognitive level of students' responses.

Studies conducted in EFL classrooms report that referential questions are challenging for students who have relatively lower TL proficiencies (Shomoossi, 2004). In such a situation, the "F" move appears to be important to ensure that IRF pattern provides learning opportunities for students (Hall &Walsh, 2002).

2.7.2.3 F-Move

"The F-move" refers to the Follow-up or Feedback move identified by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). Generally, it forms the third part of a chain of I-R-F (Initiate-Respond-Follow up/Evaluation) exchanges between students and their teacher. Different types of "F" move have been identified and it is found that feedback is the powerful move to facilitate students' learning (Hardman, 2008). Furthermore, "repetition" tends to be extensively identified in various contexts (Liu, 2008; McNeil, 2012) which is also termed as "echo". Precisely, it refers to when the teacher echoes students' responses by repeating what students said. Walsh (2002) claims that teachers' echo is used for good reasons in the sense that it amplifies one student's contribution so that other students can hear. This is particularly important for a large class, and the teacher's echo can ensure other students hear what the student said and can provide a potential space for further discussion. Furthermore, teachers' repetition of one student's response acts as an indicator that the answer is correct (Hellermann, 2003). However, it does not necessarily create learning opportunities for learners (Liu, 2008).

In previous sections, I reviewed the literature mainly from the field of SLA which contributes to build up a solid theoretical foundation of monolingual teaching. However, contradictions and ambiguity have been found when considering the implementation of these theories in different sociocultural contexts. It is worthy pointing out that SLA does not only provide the base for the monolingual teaching, but also for the use of the L1. The next section will look at L1 use from SLA perspective.

2.8 Theoretical Framework of L1 use

The mainstream theories have paid more attention to justifying why TL should be learnt without recourse to the L1 (Cummins, 2007); however, there is still evidence that can be traced from various perspectives as to how the use of L1 could be beneficial to the learning process of TL. Based on theoretical evidence from the SLA and sociocultural perspectives, instructional strategies involving L1 use are proposed.

2.8.1. Examination of L1 Use from SLA

Schmidt (1990) proposes the Noticing Hypothesis and stresses learning is a conscious process in the sense that learners should have momentary subjective experience of noticing the input (Robinson, 2003). "Noticing" the input in learning a SL/FL should include the awareness of the differences and similarities between TL and learners' L1. Robinson and Schmidt are supported by Tian and Macaro (2012) who investigated the effect of teacher's codeswitching on L2 vocabulary acquisition in Chinese universities. They found that students who received lexical information contained in the L1 outperformed students who only received information in L2 in learning vocabulary in the short term. Schmidt (1990) also admits that L1 use is not a determinant in learning rather it plays a facilitative role, and this claim is supported by other studies which investigate vocabulary learning (Celik, 2003; Hummel, 2010; Macaro, et al., 2009). In order to clarify why I refer to a number of studies whose focus is L1 use and its relation to the contrastive form-focused instruction to support the argument that L1 has played a facilitative role in language learning, this is because, to date, this area tends to remain significantly under investigated in SLA research (Cook & Graham, 2012). A small number of studies focused on the effects of L1 use on learner's acquisition of vocabulary; in addition, vocabulary learning is viewed as an essential component of English learning in the Chinese context, and the belief is extensively accepted by both teachers and students that vocabulary is the foundation of learning English. Therefore, theoretical recognition of L1's facilitative role in vocabulary learning might lead to certain modification of the current tendency which attempts to avoid L1 in English classrooms. Meanwhile, there is also evidence that the teacher's use of the L1 facilitates language learning from the cognitive perspective as well as from the sociocultural perspective.

2.8.2. Examination of L1 Use from Sociocultural Perspective

It is important to understand better how L1 may serve as a cognitive tool in SL/FL learning, and particularly, how learners use their L1 when engaging in meaning-focused activities of TL. This is an important tenet of Communicative Approach (CA). Therefore, I will mainly draw on the literature within sociocultural theories which entails two key tenets. The one is that a human being's cognitive development is mediated by social interactions; and the other is Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978). Sociocultural theory is also an essential principle underpinning Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and details related to ZPD will be examined in Chapter three. In this section, I will mainly focus on how literature within sociocultural theories give evidence to L1's cognitive role in SL/FL learning. In addition, social context is an essential concept of sociocultural theory, and it may be more consistent to refer to studies which are conducted in contexts which are similar to the research context within which English is learnt and taught as a FL. However, studies of L1 use using a sociocultural lens have also been extensively carried out in Immersion programs (Swain &Lapkin, 2000). The findings from these pro-studies should also bring insights into investigations in FL contexts. Therefore, I will also look at literature pertaining to immersion programs.

From a sociocultural perspective, language is a cognitive tool in all forms of higher order mental processing Vygotsky (1978), and its development is a collaborative process driven by social interaction (Hall & Cook, 2012; Levine, 2011). That is, language's mediating cognitive function derives from social activities (Swain &Lapkin, 2000, 253). In other words, the forms of human cognitive capability develop through interaction within social and material environments, including conditions in instructional settings (Engestrom, 1987, cited in Lantolf and Thorne, 2015). Therefore, language, as a mediating cognitive tool, not only mediates relationships between human beings and others, and themselves, but the relationship between themselves and the physical world (Vygotsky, 1978). Furthermore, Vygotsky (1978) claimed that symbolic tools are inwardly and cognitively directed, which function as an auxiliary means to control our mental activity (Cited in Lantolf and Thorne, 2015). Similarly, Prawat (1999) proposed that language has dual functions and one of them is defined as an inward function which is defined as a "unit of thinking". The inward or self-directed use of language for cognitive regulation is also known as "Private Speech" (PS) (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006). To better understand L1's cognitive function, PS is an important

concept to be explored. In the late twentieth century, researchers of SLA raised attention to PS on L2 learners (Centento-Cortes &Jimenez-Jimenez, 2004; DiCamilla & Lantolf, 1994; Frawley &Lantolf, 1985; McCafferty, 1994). They provide evidence that PS has been extensively used by L2 learners.

DiCamilla and Anton (2004) investigated English-speaking college students learning Spanish; specifically, they focused on the role of PS in students' collaborative interaction. It is found that PS enhances learners' concentration on the task and enable them to realize the distance between their thinking and the right solution to the problem. Accordingly, learners are likely to adjust their language to realize the object to increase their control over the task. Centeno-Cortes and Jimenez-Jimenez (2004) investigated L1 use during problem-solving tasks, and they found that L2 adults in the study used a higher frequency of PS. In sum, PS provides learners with opportunities to get themselves psychologically ready and creates a non-threatening learning environment, both of which are essential factors for learning to occur (Lantolf, 2006). In the same line of the research, Alegria de la Colina and Garcia Mayo (2009) investigated the function of L1 use among low-proficiency undergraduate Spanish EFL learners and found principally that PS is an essential instrument for the individual to externalize their reasoning so as to re-gain self-regulation in coping with cognitively demanding activities, while providing possibilities for interlocutors to build up new knowledge. These studies suggest that PS is likely to occur in the learners' L1, and this is particularly seen among low-proficiency students of the TL. Hence, the use of the L1 provides them with cognitive support which enables them to perform tasks at a higher level than they could in L2 (Storch and Wigglesworth, 2003). This is echoed by a number of studies. Scott and de la Fuente (2008) reported that college -level French and Spanish learners used L1 to deal with more complex tasks in their learning. Similar findings are also reported by Swain and Lapkin (2000) who examined students' L1 (English) use in an immersion program; precisely, they looked at two eight-year grade French classes. Students worked in pairs and each class was assigned a task. One class worked on a dictogloss, and the other one worked on a jigsaw task. They also found that L1 plays a facilitative role in engagement of classroom activities, and this is particularly the case for learners with lower TL proficiency. There is also evidence to show that the L1 use could facilitate learning by reducing learners' processing load in coping with challenging tasks. These studies clearly show that the prohibition of L1 use is likely to hinder the learning process of TL.

It is also worthy pointing out that the significance of understanding L1 use from the cognitive perspective lies on the differences between children acquiring L1 and adults learning SL/FL.

That is, children acquiring their L1 involves numerous activities which make up their daily life. As Wells (1999) claims, there is no separation between language learning and using language to learn about the world for the children. However, it makes a difference in adults learning SL/FL. TL is not a part of the adult learner's life; rather it is an object of activities they encountered in classroom settings. This is where the acknowledgement of the importance of the classroom reality along with its diversity and complexity needs to be stressed, because classroom reality does not only determine types of cognitive function served by L1, but also exerts growing influences on L2 teaching and learning. Hence, I now will turn to details of L1 use in classroom settings. Previously, I reviewed the literature in relation to L1 use from different theoretical perspectives. The following section will focus on a pragmatic perspective and attempt to argue that L1 plays an essential role in TL teaching and learning in FL contexts, and exclusive TL is unrealistic in an important number of contexts, including that of the current study. This is a powerful argument which needs to be acknowledged, because it has contributed to the re-emergence of L1 use in the classroom.

2.8.3 Re-emergence of L1 Use in the Classroom

L1 is found to be extensively used in various educational contexts across the world where teachers and students share L1 (Cook, 2008), even though the advocacy of exclusive use of TL has dominated in literatures of SLA and language teaching and learning for many years. There now appears to be increasing attention paid to L1 use in classrooms across different educational contexts. This is not only a result of the indisputable fact that L1 is extensively used in language classrooms across the world, but also growing criticism of the monolingual teaching approach.

In the field of FL teaching, the use of L1 and exclusive use of TL are labelled by various terminologies which represent different research purposes. Stern (1992) proposed concepts such as "cross-lingual" and "intra-lingual" teaching. The former refers to teaching which refers to learners' L1, and the latter refers to the teaching only in the TL. From Stern's perspective, "cross-lingual" and "intra-lingual" are not the opposite to each other; instead, these two positions form a continuum. This continuum implies a combination of L1 and TL use in language teaching; and the way that L1 is used and the amount of L1 use will vary within different stages of instruction (Stern, 1992). He also believed that it is unrealistic to implement the monolingual teaching approach by abandoning L1 use, because the use of the L1 as a reference system is not a choice which can be determined by TL learners, in the

sense that L1 and TL co-exist in learners' minds (Cook, 2001). In some FL contexts, monolingual teaching is not unrealistic in the sense that part of the goal of TL learning is to develop the learners' skill of translation. If so, L1 use should be an important part of classroom life. As Stern (1992) stressed, the context of learning along with the goals of TL learning determines the L1 and TL use.

The current study took place in the Chinese context within which English (TL) is taught as a FL and the bilingual nature of the classroom is an inherent part of the context (Widdowson, 2003). Precisely, the goal of ELT at tertial level in China is not only to develop students' communicative competence but their translation skills. This is specified in the Chinese Foreign Language Educational Policies (FLEPs). In words, students come to College English class with their L1 and the goal of English learning is principally to enable them to acquire TL, and also develop their translation skills. In such a context, learning TL will never be the same as the way children acquire their L1, because L1 lays the foundation for TL that they learn (Butzkamm &Caldwell, 2009), and can be a part of the goal of language learning. In order to move away from a ban on L1 in FL teaching, teachers should perceive L1 with a flexible and less rigid attitude (Widdowson, 2003), and obtain a clear understanding of functions that L1 may serve in FL learning. Therefore, the next section will turn to a review of empirical evidence of L1 use which implies the functions L1 served in language classrooms in different educational contexts.

2.8.4 The Functions of L1 Use

Studies investigating L1 use have been conducted extensively in the field of FL teaching and learning, and L1 is reported to serve various functions. In the 1980s and 90s, Duff and Polio (1990, 1994) conducted studies to investigate variables influencing teachers' L1 use. They studied 13 different TLs in a university in the USA. They found that L1 was mainly used for instructions related to vocabulary and grammar, classroom management, administration and to show solidarity to students, and translation for unknown vocabulary of TL. Similar results of L1 use in language classes are documented by researchers from a range of various classroom contexts. For example, Copland and Nekleous (2011) investigated teachers' L1 use in two Cypriot private language institutions, and L1 was used to give instructions, explain grammar, translation and give praise to students. Üstünel, and Seedhouse (2005) examined the relationship between pedagogical focus and teachers' language choice in a Turkish university. They reported three organizational patterns of L1 and L2 use in an EFL

setting. One was when teachers tended to switch to L1 after students' pauses or hesitation in answering the questions. Carless (2004) investigated the implementation of a task-based approach in primary schools in Hong Kong and found that students' L1 use was likely to maintain their motivation and interest in the class and provide cognitive support in coping with tasks; L1 was also found to benefit students by the reduction of their anxiety thus enhancing a positive affective environment for learning (Auerbach, 1993:20). Although teachers' L1 use is the focus of the current study, an acknowledgement of benefits of students'L1 use may help teachers to avoid depriving students' opportunities for learning as a result of banning L1 use in the class. Particularly, the avoidance of L1 deprives students from behaving fully as 'normal people' (Allwright & Bailey,1991), that is, the avoidance of L1 will not allow students with lower TL proficiency to express themselves freely, which can increase students' anxiety in the classroom (Brooks-Lewis, 2009).

The literature of L1 use seems to imply that teachers lack awareness of the nature and impact of their language choices (Polio &Duff, 1994). It is Important to provide teachers with frameworks of principled L1 use (Kim & Elder, 2008) which distinguishes teachers' judicious use of L1 for pedagogical purposes and their random use as an easy option for classroom communication. Ellis (1994) categorizes the use of L1 into "medium-oriented" goals (e.g., explaining the vocabulary and grammar), and "framework goals" (assigning homework and giving instructions). Kim and Elder's (2008) and Pennington's work (1995) develops similar concepts such as "core goals" (teaching the target language), "framework goals" (management of classroom) and "social goals" (expressing personal concern and sympathy). Levine (2003) claimed that teachers' principled L1 use can be helpful in the reduction of learners' anxiety. Students felt a less threatening atmosphere in discussing local issues and they argued that TL could not allow them to have an adequate discussion of these issues (Canagarajah, 1999; Edstrom, 2006).

It may be clear that L1 is found to serve similar functions in different classroom contexts. Widdowson (2003) argues that L1 is an inevitable and "natural' part of language class, and it should be turned into a pedagogical advantage which is particularly relevant to FL teachers who share L1 with their students. The use of L1 allows teachers to draw on two language resources in their teaching practice. Further, these studies also reveal that L1 use is a complex issue which involves other complex factors at play. Teaching approaches and methods are found to be important factors, and I will turn to the review of key teaching methods and approaches in the coming section.

2.9 Teaching Methods and Approaches

Assumptions underpinning the monolingual teaching approach imply that L2 learning is a duplication of L1 learning; however, language learning in a natural context and learning in classroom setting is different in many ways. As a FL, English learning is most likely to occur in classroom settings. It may be reasonable to say the success of FL learning strongly associates with the FL classroom and the teaching that takes place in it. One of the key elements of language teaching is teaching method. As Brown defined, teaching method is a set of procedures or an overall plan for systematic presentation to teach SL or FL (p.,14). In the field of EFL and ESL, there are several approaches which are integrated into multiple methods (Celce-Murcia, 2001:5); I will focus on six of them which are characterized by the use of L1 and TL. I will start with Traditional Approaches (Richard &Rodgers, 2013) which include the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and the Direct Method.

2.9.1 Grammar Translation Method

As one of the well-known Traditional Approaches (TAs) in FL and SL teaching, the origin of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) can be traced back to earlier eighteenth and nineteenth centuries when it was used to teach Latin and Greek (Chastain, 1988). Therefore, GTM is also named as the Classical Method. GTM has a long history and interestingly, GTM is still extensively used in language classrooms across various educational contexts nowadays (Chang, 2011; Milawati,2019; Richard &Rodgers, 2013).

GTM principally aims to develop learners' ability in reading literature in the FL; in addition, GTM perceives learning as a mental exercise which will help learners grow intellectuality (Larsen-Freeman, 2011). Grammatical rules in the TL are the focus of learning, and they are helpful in helping learners to obtain a better understanding of their native language through learning the grammar of the TL. In classroom, GTM focuses on the development of learners' reading proficiency; grammatical rules are the basis of learning, and translation is an essential pedagogical method in the class which requires learners to translate grammatical rules from TL to L1 as well as sentences and texts in and out of TL (Brown, 2007). Translation has been reported as an effective pedagogical method which is applied by EFL teachers. For example, Dagiliene (2012) studied the role of translation in ELT in Kaunas and reported that translation enhanced students' development of language skills. In particular, the GTM was found to be more effective in improving accuracy of language than CLT

(Chang, 2011). Aqel (2013) found that the GTM was effective in teaching grammar. As the medium of instruction within the GTM, L1 use makes it possible to fulfil functions of translation such as comparing new structures and vocabularies of L1 and TL and acquiring the meaning of TL through translation (William, 2005). Therefore, L1 use can be said to be inseparable from the GTM; it may be also reasonable to state that the L1 use makes the GTM a popular teaching method.

Brown (2007) pointed out that the GTM required few specialized skills on the part of teachers in comparison with other teaching methods. More specifically, the GTM seems to be easier for EFL teachers to achieve TL learning by using L1 as a medium to teach TL. EFL teachers are non-native speakers of TL and they may be not proficient enough to teach effectively in TL. Drills, rehearsed exercises and discussions of grammar in L1 are easier for EFL teachers (Doglas, 2001). Further, L1 use has a positive impact on learners' second language acquisition in the sense that translation helps learners understand differences between L1 and TL as well as how L1 may influence TL use including errors caused by negative transfer from the L1 (Duff, 1996). Being aware of the interference, learners may be able to avoid making errors in TL use. In addition to the language skills, the grammar is fundamental, and grammar provides an explicit framework to guarantee the production of correct structures and expedite the learning process (Hedge, 2000). Therefore, grammar teaching is a core part of FL teaching, and L1 plays an important role in deepening students' understanding of grammar and helping students use the TL correctly (Kong, 2011).

The literature tends to associate the implementation of the GTM with contexts where the educational systems develop slowly, which lack teacher professional training programs, learning resources and financial support (Jin &Cortazzi, 2011). It can be argued that the association between these contexts and the GTM should not be taken for granted if these contexts were physically defined. Inherent sociocultural features of the contexts also need to be considered. English language proficiency in all contexts is associated with socio-economic mobility mediated by educational access (Ross, 2008., p.6). That is, language tests are functioning as gate keepers of admissions to all levels of education and employment. In these contexts, language assessment is examination-oriented and grammar-based. Students' English proficiency is defined by obtaining a good score in English language tests within which the content is a fixed set of grammatical concepts to be tested. The GTM is considered to be an ideal teaching approach in these contexts which it is helpful in preparing students for the tests (Crozier & Kleinsasser, 2006; Wada, 2002). Despite that GTM may potentially cause deleterious long-term consequences as producing "dump-and-deaf" English learners

(Wei & Su, 2008), EFL teachers tend to have a favourable attitude towards the GTM (Gorsuch, 2001). Taken together, these issues have led to the situation where many Asian EFL classes remain chained to the GTM.

In China's context, the assessment of college students' communicative competence is starting to emerge. That is, university students who obtain a relatively higher score of College English Test (CET4) are eligible to attend the Speaking test. In other words, CET4 remains the most important requirement for attendance of the Speaking test. Thus, the development of student's communicative competence at tertiary level are being promoted while the predominance of CET 4 is still in place. Consequently, neither teachers nor students appear to have a great deal of motivation to move beyond the learning of grammar and vocabulary. The GTM has exerted influences on stakeholders in China's context including College English teachers, students and the institutions. From the teachers' side, the adoption of the GTM appeared to be duty-bound, because they believed that input was insufficient if students were not taught with complex grammars (Kong, 2011). From the students' side, students did know how to study and learning with the GTM was able to give them a sense of accomplishment (Gorsuch, 2001). From the institution's perspective, the CET pass rate is an important indicator of rankings of institutions and are used for stimulating unintended competition for higher rankings. Therefore, GTM seems to be ideal in the context.

Furthermore, the language teaching practices in each context reflect both unique historical and cultural dimensions of the context. FLEPs often lead to both the desired economic outcomes as well as to potentially deleterious long-term social consequences (Ross, 2008). In Chapter One, official English learning started in the stage of Modernization proposed by Deng XiaoPing, and the purpose of English learning was to learn the technical knowledge of the Western countries, consequently, text-centred grammar- translation methods prevailed. In addition, outcomes of the GTM were measurable in a traditional way (Penner, 1995). Within the GTM, Grammar is taught deductively- that is, by the study of grammar rules. The GTM stresses accuracy which refers to the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences (Richards, Platt and Weber 1985, p. 108). Therefore, grammar is then measured by students' correct use of grammatical rules in their writing, translation and also in the format of multiple choice. The GTM meets expectations and needs of the principal stakeholders, in this case, institutions, teachers and students.

Although the GTM remains popular in many EFL classrooms, the GTM has been criticized for a long time. As Richard and Rodgers (2001) argued, GTM is a "theory-less" teaching

method, because literature offers no rationale or justification for GTM, and no attempts have been made to relate it to linguistic, psychological or educational theories. Further, a key criticism is that GTM pays least attention to the development of students' communicative competence. In the context where English is a global language, the GTM neutralized English learning when learners were confronted with English native speakers. Students suffered from deaf mutism in FL learning (Kong, 2011) with the GTM. Students acquire grammatical rules, but they feel difficulty in implementing their grammatical knowledge in oral communication (Chang, 2011), because grammar learning within the GTM ends up with grammar itself as the focus rather than being subsumed under functional categories (Douglas, 2001). This is where the GTM differs from the communicative approaches. Pedagogically, GTM provides students with tedious experiences of learning by including memorization of lists of isolated words, and drills of grammatical structures. The GTM does not lead to students' development of English language skills other than those techniques for grammar-based tests (Ross, 2008). In recent literature, a trend of incorporating the GTM into other teaching methods such as the Direct Method (Bhatti &Mukhtar, 2017) and CLT has been indicated, so as to suit the needs of EFL students. The core idea of the incorporation is to develop students' oral proficiency and it has led to foundations for the development of new ways of teaching one of which is the Direct Method.

2.9.2 Direct Method

In the 19th century, the GTM was considered as failing L2 teaching, and a reform movement started. One of the key principles of the reform movement was to prioritise the teaching methods which aimed to develop students' oral proficiency (Howatt, 1984). In this situation, the Direct Method emerged. The Direct Method is sometimes known as the Berlitz Method, because it is extensively used in Berlitz schools. It is also known as the Natural Approach which originated from an attempt to duplicate the way how children acquired their L1 into L2 teaching (Richard and Rodgers, 2013; Yu, 2001). Arguably L2 should be taught exclusively in TL and translation or the use of L1 should be avoided (Richard and Rodgers, 2001, p.11). Language should be taught the way children acquire their L1. Key features of Direct Method are summarized by Roger and Richard (2001, 2013). It includes:

- Exclusive TL use as the medium of the classroom instruction in all situations.
- Oral communication is developed on careful and graded progression which is organized around question-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small and intensive classes.

- Primary focus is on both oral ability and listening comprehension.
- Emphasis is also on accuracy of pronunciation and grammar.

It can be seen that Direct Method is radically different from GTM because it advocates an exclusive use of the TL as a means of instruction in the classroom. The ultimate goal of the Direct Method is to develop learner's spoken language. The context of private language schools contributes to the popularity of the Direct Method, which is different from public schools in the way that students were taught by Native Speaker (NS) teachers. Further, classes within the Direct Method in private institutions are small which allows teachers to pay attention to individual students (Brown, 2000). In addition, language learning is intensive, and provides learners with a large amount of exposure to TL. In contrast, public schools had more constraints in areas mentioned above which prevented the wider acceptance of the Direct Method in academic settings (Brown, 1994; Richard and Rodgers, 2001).

In EFL contexts, the arguments of the Direct Method focused on the teacher's language proficiency and the avoidance of misunderstanding without translation. Particularly, it required teachers who were native speakers (NS) or have nativelike-like proficiency in the TL (Richard &Rodgers, 2013) which has raised heavy demands on EFL non-native teachers. Teacher's language proficiency will determine the quality of input and feedback provided to learners and thus have a direct impact on learning (Andrews, 2001). Following this line of reasoning, teacher's language proficiency has become a crucial issue to be considered when using the Direct Method in FL contexts. As Sadeghi, Richard and Ghaderi (2019) stated, input given by NNS teachers may be different from that of NS teachers due to the constraint of TL proficiency. In a situation where teachers are not highly fluent in L2, they could be given the "green light" to use the L1 (Turnbull, 2001), and it may not necessarily cause dangers if teachers do not rely extensively on the L1 use. Furthermore, Dörnyei (2009) makes it clear that "untutored learning through simple exposure to natural language input does not seem to lead to sufficient progress in L2 attainment for most school learners" (p. 35), This may be why the Direct Method did not lead to the expected results, because teachers cannot rely on purely unconscious and automatic learning of foreign language approaches, and the L1, as noted above, plays an important role in explicit (conscious) teaching and learning (Lasagabaster, 2013). Lastly, strict adherence to Direct Method principles has often proved counterproductive, since teachers were required to go to great lengths to avoid using the L1, when sometimes a simple, brief explanation in the students' native language would have been a more efficient route to comprehension (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 12–13).

Teacher's proficiency in TL appears to be one of the contextual constraints in implementing the use of the Direct Method in EFL contexts. It also tended to have the drawback that it overemphasized and distorted the similarities between naturalistic first language learning and classroom foreign language learning and failed to consider the practical realities of the classroom (Richards and Rodgers, 2001:12–13).

2.9.3 Audio-Lingual Method (ALM)

The ALM emerged in the mid-40s with the decline of the Direct Method (Maleki, 2005). Similar to the Direct Method, ALM is an oral-based approach, and the goal is to develop learners' communicative competence. Historical background also partially contributed to the widespread of the ALM. At that time of the outbreak of World War II, there was an increasing need of interpreters in the army who were orally proficient in different languages. In this situation, the ALM came out and it is therefore also known as Army Method (Maleki, 2005:2-3).

Similar to the Direct Method, the ALM advocates the use of the TL in the classroom, and it emphasizes the monolingual context of L2 without interference by the L1 (Baker, 1996). L1 is therefore forbidden with the purpose of avoiding the habits of the learner's L1 which may interfere with the learning of the TL (Allright, 1988). Unlike the Direct Method, students are expected to take in grammatical patterns gradually through exposure to the L2. The Audiolingual Method perceived grammatical structures and patterns as the starting point of learning, and systematic attention is paid to pronunciation and intensive oral drilling of basic sentence patterns (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 52). The theoretical foundation underpinning the ALM is structural linguistics which perceives language learning as a system that is established by a careful sequencing of grammatical structures. Learning theory underpinning the Audio-lingual Method is Behaviourism which perceives language learning as a process of habit formation. That is, the Audio-Lingual method perceived language learning simply as to form behaviour to be learned through the formation of correct speech habits (Thornbury ,2000, p.21). More specifically, it is to form native language habits in learners (Dendrinos,1992). Further, speaking and listening comes prior to reading and writing within the ALM in teaching, because structural linguistics holds a view that 'the primary medium of language is oral' (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 55).

Dialogue and drills are two key techniques within the ALM (Richards, 2002: 20). Specifically, the Audio- Lingual method teaches language through dialogues with particular

focus on students' habit formation. That is, students are likely to achieve communicative competence by forming new habits in the target language and overcoming the old habits of their native language (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p.45). There are various forms of drills within the ALM from simple repetition of sentences, reading dialogues aloud, substitution and transformation (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Mart, 2013). The drills are incorporated into the dialogue and consequently, it does not only give learners opportunities to see how language functions in real-life conversation, but also helps learners practise TL use in concrete context.

Within the ALM, the teacher acts as a model (Butzkamm &Caldwell, 2009) for the drills. The ALM stresses the importance of accuracy of pronunciation for students' imitation and repetition. The teachers' work is demanding, because they need to speak accurately; furthermore, the ALM requires teachers to provide students with knowledge of the vocabulary which allows students to produce correct grammar patterns (Harmer, 2001). In fact, L1 use is not as severely restricted in the Audiolingual Method as it was in the Direct Method (Stern 1983: 464). In order to predict potential difficulties students may encounter, teachers can use Contrastive Analysis to identify the differences between the L1 and L2 (Celce-Murcia, 2001; Richards & Rodgers, 2007).

Like other communicative approaches, the goal of the ALM is to develop students' communicative competence. It stresses maximum use of the TL and the benefits of language exposure, which can bring about language learning gains in the form of effective and confident TL use (Duff & Polio, 1990; Turnbull, 2001). However, the centrality of grammatical patterns and vocabulary in language teaching was questioned (Richard, 2015), as it led to an inadequacy of teaching of the other three skills of listening, reading and writing (Savignon, 2018). Further, the ALM stresses the context of language use, but the mechanistic nature of pattern drills may not allow students to use TL productively in various communicative situations. As Long and Robinson (1998) argued, instructions with the ALM isolate linguistic form from its meaning.

The ALM seems to help develop basic speaking skills and may be appropriate for low TL proficiency students. The current study aimed to investigate English learning of College students who are adults, and who have learnt English over 10 years before their entrance to the university. They may have mastered the linguistic knowledge of English and the basic speaking skills. Dialogues and drills create merely opportunities for College students to repeat what have previously learnt in a mechanical manner. As a result, teaching via ALM may not necessarily to help College students to process to a higher level of communicative ability (Butler, 2011). Further, the ALM is a teacher-centred teaching method. The teacher

plays the role of the model and students need to wait for teachers' instruction and then follow the instructions with drills. The AML seems to satisfy those students who have lower TL proficiency or are less motivated in TL learning. As Nunan (2000) stated, "the ALM has had a greater impact on second and foreign language teaching than any other method" (2000, p.229), because the ALM emphasises the development of students' speaking proficiency on one hand and sustains teacher's traditional role as the model of learning on the other. Consequently, the ALM spread as a new pedagogical model across various educational contexts in the latter half of the 20th century.

2.9.4 Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative language teaching (CLT) is an overarching concept which is a broad, philosophical approach to the language curriculum (Nunan, 2004: 10). Currently, CLT has been extensively accepted by the profession, while GTM continues to prevail in many parts of the world (Bax, 2003). Consequently, it is popular to conduct comparative studies in EFL contexts which compare GTM and CLT so as to find out which approach may be considered more appropriate to the particular context. In this section, I will mainly consider CLT as a teaching approach and its transferability in EFL contexts is the focus of this section. To help us understand CLT as an approach, I will draw on the introduction of communicative competence, and empirical studies in EFL contexts with the purpose of illuminating the contextual constraints on the implementation of CLT in Chinese contexts.

CLT appeared at a time when language teaching in many parts of the world was ready for a paradigm shift (Jacobs and Farrell, 2003). Regarding teaching approaches, the promotion of CLT is partly a response to this change (Richard, 2005) as the GTM shifted to the innovative CLT. Unlike a traditional teaching approach, CLT makes it a priority to develop students' communicative competence, which provides a broader view on language use. That is, speakers are not only aware of grammatical rules, but issues emerging from social, cultural and economic milieux (Nuan, 1989; Coleman, 1996) which allows them to use language appropriately in a given context.

The notion of communicative competence was proposed by Hymes (1972) with an idea that the purpose of language learning is language use, and learner's language proficiency should be assessed by their ability to use language in communication (Savignon, 2018). Hymes' (1972) idea was extensively accepted and further developed and one of the most influential models of communicative competence can be illustrated by Canale and Swain (1983)'s

model which encompasses four competencies: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence.

Grammatical competence is used interchangeably with Chomsky's linguistic competence which refers to native speakers' knowledge of the syntactic, lexical, morphological and phonological features of the language and the capability to use these features to produce the words and sentences (Apltekin, 2002). Grammatical competence is perceived as the linguistic foundation of other competencies, because the accuracy of other language skills is built upon grammatical competence (Scovel, 2006).

Sociolinguistic competence refers to social rules of language use, and as Canale (1983:7) stated:

"[it] addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors such as status of participants, purpose of interaction and norms or conventions of interaction……appropriateness of meaning and appropriateness of meaning concerns the extent to which particular communicative functions (e.g. commanding, complaining and inviting), attitudes (including politeness and formality) and ideas that are judged to be proper in a given context".

It is about the understanding of the sociocultural dimension of the context which involves values, norms, beliefs and behaviour patterns of a culture. Discourse competence concerns the selection, sequencing and arrangement of words, structures, sentences and utterances to achieve a unified spoken or written text (Celce-Murcia & Dörnyei, 1995, p.13). Strategic competence refers to the ability to deal with interaction in an authentic communicative situation which requires the knowledge of communication strategies that one can deploy to solve the problems in interaction when the speaker does not have enough linguistic knowledge to convey the intended message as easily as in their L1 (Macaro, 2003).

Communicative competence reflects a broader conceptual base of communicative curriculum and pedagogy (Leung, 2005) which attempts to include linguistic, social, discoursal and interactional dimensions of language use, and this results in challenges in the implementation of CLT in SL/FL educational settings (Van Compernolle & Williams, 2012). The challenges also reside in a lack of detailed description of how teaching practice should proceed under the theoretical framework of communicative competence (Celce-Murcia & Dörnyei, 1995).

CLT does not have a unified definition, and it has been interpreted with great variations (Criado & Sanchez, 2009); its implementation may depend on how teachers interpreted the tenets underpinning CLT. Several studies have reported teachers' misinterpretation of the principles of CLT in various contexts, and the exclusive use of TL and prohibition of L1 may be one of them. CLT is developed on the basis of a plethora of theories of learning and empirical studies drawn from SLA, SCT, cognitive psychology and brain research (Krashen, 1982; Lantolf, 2001), but none of them provides the theoretical grounds to ban L1 use (Widdowson, 2003). Krashen (1982)'s Comprehensible Input theory encourages a rich input which provides students with opportunities to be exposed to a wide variety of language patterns, chunks, and phrases in various contexts and situations. (Brandl, 2008). A rich exposure to TL ultimately facilitates students' language acquisition. However, it could be argued that there is no way to replicate such a rich input in FL classroom settings, in other words, "rich input" in the FL classroom needs to be carefully defined. Doughty and Long (2008) suggested that "rich input entails realistic samples of discourse use surrounding native and non-native speaker accomplishments of targeted tasks" (p.61). That is, students need to hear the TL from multiple resources which provide them with exposure to rich authentic language discourse (Brandi, 2008) and the maximum possible use of the TL is essential. Cummins and Swain (1986) shared a similar notion proposing the "maximum exposure" hypothesis which claimed that learners should be exposed to TL as much as possible with the aim that the greater the amount of exposure the greater students would gain in TL learning. Consequently, teachers' exclusive use of has been advocated within CLT. However, it is worth noting that the input presented in TL must be comprehensible to students otherwise, learning will never occur (Krashen, 1982;1983). A judicious use of L1 can be considered essential in CLT (Larsen-Freeman, 2011) as it assists students' comprehension of the input. Moreover, there are other benefits of L1 use. Chen (2015) investigated effects of L1 use on CLT and found that L1 effectively reduced learners' anxiety when they were less confident. Studies reviewed in previous sections have also shown the facilitative role of L1 use in FL learning. In addition, from my view, the use of TL or L1 should be considered secondary when evaluating CLT, because the use of language may be a less distinctive feature of CLT in contrast with other advocated principles as its goal, role of the teacher and student, interaction type and communicative intent underpinning class activities (Larsen-Freeman, 2001). The use of L1 and TL is a vehicle to realize these principles and ultimately to develop students' communicative competence.

Although CLT seems to be universally accepted and encouraged by the teaching profession since its introduction decades ago, it seems to have failed to fulfil the expectations of teachers

and students who had faith to it. Chang (2011) examined teachers' attitudes towards CLT in Taiwan and revealed college teachers showed favourable attitudes towards CLT. The characteristics and principles of CLT were also displayed by the teacher's beliefs. However, their teaching practice seemed not to be motivated by their beliefs, because GTM was found to be extensively used by teachers in the study. Similarly, Toro, Camacho-Minuche, Pinza-Tapia and Fabian Paredes (2019) conducted a study to investigate the use of CLT on improving students' oral skills and found that individual and teacher-centred techniques such as repetition and modelling are extensively used. They also reported the use of independent learning techniques such as group work and pair work, but components of traditional teaching approaches tended to be inevitably a part of the class.

This may be the point to raise the question of whether teachers truly believe in CLT? The answer to this question could impact on the feasibility of CLT in their practice. Or there may be other stronger contextual constraints leading to issues of implementation. Teachers' beliefs are based on their experiences as learners, teachers and the training they receive; teaching is susceptible to 'apprenticeship of observation' (Borg 2009). That is, methodological preconceptions based on teachers' own schooldays may colour their understanding of the language classroom (Humphries & Burns, 2015). A majority of English teachers in EFL contexts should have passed English tests at various stages by learning in a traditional way. As a result, they believe that traditional teaching approach may be the best way to help students to succeed in their exams which is the goal of English teaching and learning in the majority of school and university contexts. In contrast, teachers have less experience of CLT and have not been taught within a CLT framework, therefore they may not really understand what successful CLT look like in the class and how it could help students. Consequently, they move back to the GTM which is familiar but different from CLT.

Some studies investigated CLT and claimed contextual constraints were the biggest barriers in the implementation of CLT (Marsh & Willis, 2007). For example, Humphries and Burns (2015) examined the outcome of curriculum innovation after the introduction of communicative textbooks in a Japanese engineering college. They suggested that contextual constraints have to be considered when making any attempt to transfer Western-originated teaching approaches such as CLT to other educational contexts. More specifically, it is important to evaluate the compatibility of CLT with existing perceptions, beliefs, and values of the teachers determining its implementation. This may be particularly the case when

importing CLT into Asian countries like China, South Korea, Japan and other countries and regions which are different from western contexts in many ways.

Firstly, Asian EFL contexts like China, Japan, Vietnam, Bangladesh and other Asian countries are complex. They have larger sizes of classes, limited instructional time, a lack of resources, examination pressure and other cultural factors (Ellis, 1994; David, Kemtong &Biljana, 2015; Gu, 2002). Similar findings were reported by Yang and Cheung (2003) who investigated the implementation of CLT in secondary schools in Hong Kong. They found that constraints that the teacher faced were large class sizes and teachers' lack of training in applying communicative techniques in teaching. These have been reported by earlier literature, but the situation of Asian EFL seems not to have changed even after two-decades of advocacy of CLT. Rahman and Pandian (2018) investigated the implementation of CLT in Bangladesh and reported similar problems that have hindered the implementation of CLT such as a lack of teacher training and a centrally based educational system. CLT seems to be "inappropriate and incompatible for the complex educational needs" (Chowdhury & Ha, 2008, p.305) in EFL contexts.

Secondly, Culture is an important factor to consider when attempting to import CLT into different contexts; CLT seems to encounter particular challenges in Asian EFL contexts (Chang & Goswami, 2011; Hu, 2002; Koosha &Yakhabi, 2013). Confucius Heritage Culture (CHC) has been valued for generations in Asian countries and it is believed to significantly influence learners' learning in these countries (Biggs, 1996). Culture is a core concept in this study as it specifically refers to the culture of learning and CHC implies a completely different culture of learning from that of Western countries. It could be argued that the difference is what has caused challenges in the implementation of CLT in Asian context. How teachers and students perceive their own role and teacher-student relationship and interaction between them will determine how teaching and learning will be organized in the class. For example, CHC holds a view regarding a social hierarchy regarding relations between subordination and superiority which exists in nature (Fan, 1985); the superior is responsible for looking after the subordinates and the subordinates should submit to the superior (Wang et al, 2005). Therefore, it can be argued that CHC emphasizes students' reliance on their teachers in class (Kennedy, 2002). China 's educational system enhances a teacher's central role in the class. The Chinese educational system is exam-oriented, and it requires students to reproduce "correct" knowledge transmitted by teachers so as to pass the exam (Zhan &Wan, 2010). The teacher is the authority who holds the knowledge and has right to judge right and wrong. If the teacher plays a facilitative role as advocated by CLT rather than displaying their knowledge in the class and they are perceived as not doing their job (Hui, 1997, p.38). That is to say, CLT redefines the teachers' role which is different from

students' and teachers' expectations and consequently, it has led to resistance to the teachers' changing role. It should also be noted that teachers' resistance could be because a changing role has led to multiple and excessive demands on the teachers themselves (Anderson, 1993). This leads to another important issue which is teachers' quality.

A third factor which can be considered a major barrier to the implementation of a CLT curriculum in China is the quality of teachers. As Fullan (2007) suggested, the introduction of a curriculum in the classroom largely depends on teachers. Siddique (2004) has pinpointed the lack of language proficiency and knowledge in language teaching as a constraint in the use CLT methodology in the classroom, while Sultana and Nahar (2008) have diagnosed similar problems in terms of teacher proficiency.

One more problem needs to be highlighted which is that teachers appear to be less concerned about students' communicative needs than perhaps in Western contexts. Unlike ESL contexts, TL is part of the curriculum and TL learning is heavily restricted in the classrooms which is an important source for students to be exposed to TL. In other words, TL learning is restricted by factors such as FL policy, teacher's TL proficiency and teaching materials. Assessment is the driving force behind curricular innovation, but the current assessment in EFL contexts seems to demonstrate limited reflections of CLT in comparison to GTM. Like other EFL contexts, high-stake tests determine students' future access to education and opportunity in job market in China. In my study, the primary goal of ELT continues to help students obtain certificate of College English Tests which are also known as CET band 4 and CET band 6 which are the prerequisite for students' success in their employment (Richard, 2015) and graduation. For a long time, students have had to pass CET 4 so as to obtain a bachelor's degree. Nowadays, many universities have disconnected the bachelor's degree from CET 4. Nonetheless, students still hold a belief regarding the importance of CET results. Motivation of TL learning is a product of pressure from academic and professional success. The goal of CLT to develop students' communicative competence seems to be incompatible with ELT at tertiary level in China, as it is less relevant to what students need to do, and there are not many opportunities for students to engage in social interaction in TL.

Like other teaching methods, CLT evolved, and teachers were urged to move from CLT as a teaching methodology to another teaching methodology known as Task-based Language Learning (TBLT) which is perceived as the updated methodological realization of CLT (Nunan, 2003). It raises a question as to whether CLT as a teaching method which is developed in one context can be successfully transferred to other contexts (Richard, 2013).

2.9.5 Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

In the past few decades, there has been a sharp increase in the number of studies on Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT) (Ellis, 2003; Kim, 2015; Samuda &Bygate, 2008). Principally, TBLT and CLT have no discontinuity (Littlewood, 2006). TBLT takes different routes to achieve the goal of CLT --- to develop learners' communicative competence (Richard, 2005). CLT focuses on providing opportunities for students to use English for communicative purposes (Howatt,1984) whereas TBLT perceives communicative task as the unit around which a course is organized (Littlewood, 2014). The concept of "task" has been used as a replacement for communicative activities during 1980s (Skehan, 2003). From this perspective, the rationale behind the use of TBLT is to enable students to learn the TL more effectively when they are engaged in meaningful communicative activities (Ellis, 2003). Then, TBLT can be regarded as a realization of CLT (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). However, the definition of "task" itself raised several debates (Bygate, Skehan &Swain, 2001; Ellis, 2003; Long, 1985; Prabhu, 1987), and it has invited confusion regarding practice. Particularly, many definitions of 'task' have been given in the context of FL teaching and learning (Carless, 2007) which provide contexts for language use and acquisition in classroom settings (Kim, 2015). For example, Long (1985) provided an initial definition of "task" which is:

"a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus, examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form……..." (Adapted from Ellis, 2003, p.4).

Long's (1985) definition seems to be ambiguous in that a task does not necessarily involves TL use. Ellis (2003) expanded Long's (1985) definition by linking the "task" to specific language skills. As he defined, "a task is a work plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meanings and to make use of own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills, and also various cognitive process" (p.16). Ellis (2003) defined a "task" from pedagogical perspective which not only paid attention to the authentic use of the TL, but the pragmatic properties and cognitive process (Izadpanah, 2010). However, the definition of a task remains unclear in the sense that how it differs from

the traditional classroom exercises (Widdowson, 2003). As a result, the feasibility of TBLT as pedagogic innovations in FL contexts remains unclear. Particularly, it was not considered wholly successful in enhancing the development of students' communicative competence, because a number of teachers were either untrained or not trained to teach the subject in a communicative way (Evans, 1996; Lai, 1993). Despite that TBLT has been introduced as an approach under the umbrella of CLT (Hu, 2005a), it has not been extensively implemented in China's context. It is because TBLT faces similar implementation barriers to CLT such as the demand of high-stakes assessment (Carless, 2007; Littlewood, 2007), and teachers' beliefs of language teaching (Qi, 2007).

In spite of challenges mentioned above, impetus towards the implementations of CLT and TBLT remain. It probably because TBLT indicates a less rigid attitude to banning the L1 in comparison with the Direct Method. The only issue involving L1 use is in the advice as to how to minimize the use of the L1 (Cook, 2001). However, Careless (2002;2004) examined the implementation of TBLT in Hong Kong and reported students' excessive use of the MT, and substantial variability among students with respect to their production of the TL. Similar challenges to those seen in the implementation of CLT were noted, and TBLT seems to enjoy popularity in Asia in this limited form. In mainland China, the national English language standards published in 2001 advocated TBLT (Hu, 2005a) which has been incorporated as a part of National English Curriculum (Lee, 2005).

In sum, it seems that teacher-centred teaching approaches are feasible in China's context. GTM has been firmly embedded in English instructional practices across various educational stages in China, and it has significant impacts on the way of Chinese students' learning. For example, Change (2011) reported Chinese student's over-reliance on teachers in English learning. Students either listen to teacher's lecturing or take notes, and they tend to passively accept what teachers told them and wait for teacher's instruction. CLT and TBLT highlights learner centredness which means learners will take more responsibilities in learning process. However, students who are taught with GTM may not have themselves ready for the change. Further, teacher's learning experience of being a student turns to be another barrier. That is, English teachers who were taught with GTM are likely to teach with GTM rather than CLT or TBLT (Xiao, 1998). In particular, a lack of teacher training of methodologies will lead to teachers see no alternatives of teaching approach but the one they are familiar with. In addition, Direct Method or the ALM place higher demand by requiring teachers to obtain NS or NS-like fluency in TL.

Chapter Three - Literature Review II (Theoretical Framework)

3.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter, I reviewed the literature regarding teachers' use of the L1 and the TL in various educational settings across the world, bearing in mind the research context, which is the Chinese College English classroom. I found that the concept of "context" emerging as a key issue in the implementation of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in classroom practices. A wide range of contextual factors has been found to exert influence on teachers' language decisions. The feasibility of CLT has also been challenged itself as an unclear concept (Bax, 2003; Harmer, 2003). The answer to "what is CLT?" depends on whom you ask about it (Spada, 2007, p.272.). In this chapter, I consider a conceptual theoretical framework for my study which aims to specify key factors that influence teachers' language use. I will briefly define and explain each learning theory that underpins a Communicative Approach (CA). Then, I identify key concepts in my current study and provide definitions of them. The next task is to establish my own theoretical framework on the basis of Layder (1997)'s social domain model. The last section explores a transferability model to summarise the key points made in this chapter.

3.1 Theoretical Tenets Underpinning Communicative Approach

The communicative approach (CA) is an "umbrella" term (Littlewood, 2011), and it provides a wide view of language teaching and learning. In this section, I will focus on the theoretical learning theories underpinning CA which include constructivism, socio-constructivism and sociocultural theories. The purpose is not to present an either-or proposition between the theoretical family of learning theories underpinning CA and Behaviourism which is a dominant learning theory (Boghossian, 2006) in the current research context. Rather, it is to explore the issues with respect to theoretical compatibilities emerging when the theoretical family of constructivist learning theory being transferred to a context within which a different learning theory is dominant. It is fundamental to understand the differences between them, because they represent different views of "Knowledge" and the way people acquire "knowledge". It is equally important to understand the implications these learning theories may have for teaching (Tam, 2000) which have direct application in the field of English language education. Next, I will define concepts within the theoretical families of learning: constructivism, socio-constructivism and sociocultural theories.

3.1.1 Constructivism

As a learning theory, constructivism has been defined as learners constructing their own knowledge in a realistic situation together with others (Kanselaar, De Jong, Andriessen & Goodyear, 2001). Learning is an outcome of "mental construction" of knowledge and meaning which only exist in learners' minds (Driscoll, 2000). Learners' prior knowledge is perceived as a determinant in the learning process. From a constructivism perspective, learners construct their own knowledge and understanding through their prior experience and reflections on these experiences (Bereiter, 1994). No knowledge is independent of the meaning that learners attribute to it or have constructed through experience (Hein, 1991). Learners are perceived as active agents of constructivism who self-regulate themselves and develop new knowledge through reflection and abstraction (Bada & Olusegun, 2015; Von Glasersfeld, 1995).

There are some implications regarding constructivism for teaching practices. Firstly, the significance of learners' prior knowledge should be recognized, as learners construct new knowledge based on what they have already known (Phillips, 1995). Teachers need to consider what students know and allow their students to put their knowledge into practice. Secondly, learning is an active process (Hein, 1991) in the sense that learners produce knowledge and create meanings by engaging themselves with the world through understanding, evaluating, judging and interpreting what they encounter. Classroom activities should engage learners' minds and Dewey described these activities as reflective activity (Dewey, 1938). Thirdly, the social dimension of learning should be recognized. From a constructivism perspective, teachers must engage students in the learning within which learners are closely connected with their teachers or peers rather than merely with the objective material (Dewey,1986). Brooks and Brooks (1993) emphasized the importance of engaging students in interaction with their teachers and other students.

3.1.2 Socio-Constructivism

Socio-constructivism comes from the same theoretical family as constructivism, and more specifically, from theories of constructivism. They share some important overlaps, but they also have some differences. I distinguish it from the above in the sense that socio-constructivism puts the emphasis on the role of "context" within which learning takes place (Lave & Wenger, 1991; McMahon, 1997), and social and cultural dimensions of the interaction (Vygotsky, 1978). In addition, Vygotsky (1978) interrelates individual cognitive development with the domains of language, thought and culture.

From a socio-constructivist point of view, learning is perceived as a process to construct knowledge within a social context (Vygotsky,1978). That is, learning is an outcome of social interaction (Gergen, 1995) within which knowledge is co-constructed by sharing with the other. Therefore, creation of meaning is fundamental in social interactions. In this process, language plays an important role as a mediator between the individual and the real world (Vygotsky, 1978). Language is a means which enables the individual to externalize their thoughts or "internal constructions". Vygotsky (1978) emphasizes the role of context in the sense of the interrelation between meaning-construction and social interaction. Meaning-construction is socially and culturally shaped by the context within which it occurs.

3.1.3 Socio-Cultural Theory

Socio-cultural theory is grounded in Vygotsky's work (1978), which perceives learning as a process of interactions with others. It assumes that learning arises not through interaction but in interaction (Ellis, 2000). Socio-cultural theory gives emphasis to the cultural context in understanding and interpreting language as it perceives language as a tool which is created by humans under specific cultural and historical conditions (Turuk, 2008).

One of the key contributions of socio-cultural theory is that Vygotsky (1978) distinguished two levels of development which are the learners' actual level and their potential level of development. The former refers to the level that the learner is able to perform at independently; the latter refers to the potential level that the learner may reach through assistance. This is what he called the "*Zone of Proximal Development*" (ZPD), and this will be introduced below.

3.1.3.1 Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

The core idea of the ZPD is the relation between instruction and development (Chaiklin, 2003). The zone exists between what an individual can do unaided and what he or she can manage with the assistance from the other individual who acts as an expert or advanced learner. In the description of how the ZPD works, the concept of scaffolding needs to be introduced. The more knowledgeable other provides support by directing the attention of the learner to the learning target, and as the learner moves through the zone, they become more independent and are able to rely less on others for assistance. This process is known as scaffolding (Wood et al., 1976). Both Vygotsky (1978) and Bakhtin give emphasis to the learners' active role in the learning process (Barnes and Todd, 1995; Wells, 1999). ZPD implies individual students' differences which requires the teacher to differentiate tailored guidance within a classroom.

3.1.3.2 Language as Mediation

From a socio-cultural perspective, Human beings are "fundamentally socially organized entities" (Lantolf, 2007, p.32). Therefore, socio-cultural teaching (SCT) stresses participation in socially mediated activities as essential. It highlights the role of language plays in learning underlining that L2 learning is a social practice in nature rather than individual (Mitchell &Myles, 2004). Lantolf (2000) describes the concept of "mediation" as below:

"The most fundamental concept of sociocultural theory is that the human mind is mediated. […] Vygotsky argued that just as humans do not act directly on the physical world, but they rely, instead on tools and labour activity, which allows us to change the world, and with it, the circumstances under which we live in the world, we also use symbolic tools, or signs, to mediate and regulate our relationships with others and with ourselves and thus change the nature of these relationships. (P.1).

Mediation has a special meaning which can be applied to human learning and development given that the individual's mental and social activities can be assisted by tools and signs. These tools and signs are culturally, linguistically, socially, and historically situated entities that have been transmitted and transformed from generation to generation (Wertsch, 2007). Teachers as facilitators promote interaction by utilizing language as a social tool. However, language is not only a linguistic component, but also includes ideological concepts. Teachers may intentionally or unintentionally deliver certain messages through their language (Yoon & Kim, 2012). This is where mediation could be a source of cultural tensions.

3.2 Summary of Theoretical Family of Constructivism

The theoretical family of constructivist features include learning as a cognitive and on-going interactive process. Learners' interaction with social or physical environments is at the core of this theoretical family. The learner is at the centre and the teachers are the facilitators who assist learners' learning. The implementation of this group of learning theories requires a context which allows collaboration and social interaction within which learners are able to construct their own knowledge by engaging in meaningful activities. They share similarities as mentioned above but they also have differences. Constructivism shares some similarities with Dewey's experiential learning (Dewey, 1938), which emphasizes that learning takes place through the individual's accommodation of experience (Cobb, 1994). By contrast, socio-cultural theory is wider in the sense that it considers learning in a broader social system

(Scott & Palincsar, 2013). The next section critically reviews behaviourism as in the context of the current study, it will be seen that it is a key theory framing learning and teaching.

3.3 Behaviourism

Behaviourism perceives learning as a process of passive transmission of information from one individual to another and reception is the key instead of construction (Skinner, 1957). From a behaviourist perspective, knowledge is not constructed but acquired and the stimulus-response mechanism is responsible for learning (Boghossian, 2006).

Behaviourism involves a teacher-centred approach in which the teacher's role is to manipulate the environment for learners to elicit a specific response. Knowledge exists in the teacher's mind and the teacher's responsibility is to transfer the knowledge from her or his mind to the students' minds (Dewey,1938). That is to say, knowledge exists independently of the student and needs to be learned from an external reality. This type of pedagogy carries this view and can be described as a method within which the instructor assumes their primary responsibility is to transfer the knowledge to learners. As a learning theory, behaviourism has significant differences from learning theories arising from the constructivism family. Differences are presented in the Table Two below:

Table Two: Differences between Behaviourism and Constructivism Theoretical Family

	Behaviourism	**Constructivism Theoretical Family**
View of Learning	Fixed/external/Observable	On-going/Progressive/Mental/Cognitive
Knowledge Construction	Acquired by Transmission/individual	Co-Constructed/Interactive
Worldview	Objectivity	Subjectivity
Criteria of Knowledge	Yes, Objective criteria	None
Role of Learner	Recipient	Active Knowledge Constructor
Role of Teacher	Knowledge Holder/Transmitter of Knowledge	Facilitator/Supporter/Mediator
Instruction	Providing Knowledge	Supporting Knowledge Construction

As stated above, the fundamental differences between the behaviourism and the constructivism theoretical families relies on their perceptions about learning. Next, I will move to the key concepts derived from the learning theories above.

3.4 Key Concepts for Current Study

In this section, key concepts derived from the learning theories include Context, Culture and Teachers' Beliefs. The next section will define these key concepts.

3.4.1 Context

From a socio-cultural view, learning takes place within a social world (Wertch, 1991); it proposes the idea that learning is based on "the concept that human activities take place in cultural context and are mediated by language (John-Steiner and Mahn, 1996, p.191). In other words, learning is socially and culturally situated. Therefore, it is essential to understand the local social context within which the current study takes place. Furthermore, the situated nature of learning requires a shift away from understanding learning as interaction occurs between individuals; rather, it requires a holistic understanding of learning within a larger socio-cultural context. Therefore, context is a key concept for this current study which investigates teachers' language use in a regional context.

3.4.1.1 Definition of Context in this study

The aim of the current study is to investigate Chinese teachers' use of the TL and the L1 at tertiary level; the review of the literature in ELT and the research problem itself suggests multi-dimensional facets of the research context. In other words, context acts as an umbrella notion, and there may be no single and precise definition which could comprehensively demonstrate what "context" means in the current research. Instead, it may be more feasible to carefully define the scope of the context with the specifications of relevant dimensions. Therefore, the definition of context will be established as a "frame" (Goffman, 1974) which surrounds the teachers' use of the TL and the L1 in the Chinese classrooms. The departure points to analyse this concept is the social dimension.

3.4.1.2 Dimensions of Context

- **Social Dimension**

Within the aspect of the social dimension, there is an increasing discussion on ELT in the era of globalisation. A range of studies in terms of English and globalisation has been conducted at a macro level which focuses on the value of English as language capital and English linguistic imperialism (Crystal, 1997; 2000; Philipson, 2003); some studies focus on the use of English as a global language (Jenkins, 2007; Kachru, Kachru &Nelson, 2006). In

the current study, I consider English as a global language at a macro level with a focus on English's global status and the implications of English teaching as a foreign language pedagogy.

The relationship between the global status of English and ELT will determine the purpose of ELT. For example, in some foreign language (FL) contexts, English is being taught as a compulsory exam subject and students (Warden & Lin, 2000) may not see the need of communicative competence in English. Leaners' motivation for English learning is a product of curricular or from academic success rather than the need for communication (Wei, Lin &Litton, 2018). In some second language (SL) contexts, students are convinced that English will result in economic and educational advantages (McKay, 2012). In other contexts, it is a mixture of the previous two situations, the only difference being what will bring them rewards in terms of higher education and job possibilities is the results of English examinations rather than communicative competence in English. The last situation is extensively shared among countries in Asia (Hu & McKay, 2012; Oda & Takada, 2014). That being the case, one question to raise is whether a pedagogical approach can meet all needs, and what English's changing status as a global language means in the local context.
The current research takes place in China which has the largest and most diverse student population in the educational system (Wang & Gao, 2001). China has the largest scale of English language education. As introduced in Chapter One, English education has an important role in China's agenda of development (Hu, 2005a). Policy efforts and tremendous resources from both public and private sectors have been invested in English education (Qiang & Wolff, 2003). Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been predominantly promoted in China's education's system since its introduction about 30 years ago (Hu, 2002; 2005). However, Eisenchlas (2010) reported that instructional practices in many classrooms continue to be driven by grammar. Problems may derive from the implementation of CLT which may not fully recognize local students' needs and interests (Feryok, 2008; Hu, 2010).

- **Institutional Dimension**

The institutional setting offers resources and facilitates deployment of budgets, materials and equipment in the form of being an authority which has the power. Institutions set the agenda for ELT and therefore, control the teachers and their work. The structure of forces from the institution must be kept in mind when changes are recommended to be made. If preparing to shift to teaching through interaction as socio-cultural theory recommends, then

the kinds of interaction that classrooms permit and the changes the teachers can realistically make need to be considered.

3.5. Definition of Culture

- **Cultural Dimension**

In regard to the Cultural dimension, I will focus on the Confucius Heritage Culture (CHC). As Kumaravadivelu (2003) claimed, a focal point of the cultural dimension has always been the native speaker. That is, the teaching of culture is to help students to obtain an understanding of the native speakers' perspectives (ibid). Cook (1992) argued that it would be more beneficial to the ELT profession if more attention was paid to the L2 user rather than concentrating primarily on the NSs. This view has become important nowadays when English acts as a global language. English is frequently used for cross-cultural communications and the purpose of culture learning is not targeting one particular culture, but many different cultures and the cultural values embedded therein (McKay, 2012). The ultimate goal of doing so is to reflect on our own values and beliefs (ibid), and therefore, it raises the importance of understanding the local culture including the belief and value system embedded within it. However, the aim of this section is to define the cultural dimension of the context and therefore, I will focus on the concept of culture in the current research which is known as CHC, which is a dominant culture in many countries in Asia including China, Vietnam, Japan, and South Korea (Nguyen, Terlouw & Pilot, 2006).

The implementation of CLT has failed to make the expected impact on ELT due to the cultural conflicts which have arisen with the local culture in some contexts (Hu, 2002; Nguyen-Phuong-Mai, Terlouw, & Pilot, 2005, 2006); the universal relevance of CLT to language teaching has been questioned (Ellis, 1996) Studies call for the development of more culturally-appropriate or adjusted pedagogy which take into account the foundations of the local culture. Ellis (1994) suggested an important angle which is to examine the education philosophy underpinning CLT and the local classroom practices. The incompatibility is believed to result in the rejection of CLT in some contexts. To some extent, it may be reasonable to claim that the success of CLT in certain contexts depends on to what extent it could be culturally attuned to the local cultural norms. The next section will look at the scope of "cultural norms" in current study.

- **Cultural Norms**

The CHC is dominant in China; and cultural norms can also be perceived as Confucian Norms. There may be some confusions when "value" and "norms" are associated with the culture. Bagozzi et al., (2000) claim that cultural value represents a broad set of cultural traits. Cultural norms involve moral elements which are likely to affect an individual's definitions of appropriate or inappropriate behaviours (Hechter &Opp, 2001; Minkov et al.,2013). For example, a hierarchical teacher-student relationship has been recognized as a tenet of Confucian culture. Thus, a strict hierarchical teacher-student relationship is likely to be established among teachers and students who believe this type of relationship is appropriate. However, this type of relationship may not necessarily dominate the classrooms which emphasize equality in teacher-student relationships. That is to say, cultural norms are context-specific. This is particularly important in the current study which is conducted in a regional local context.

- **Power Relationship**

Hofstede (1986) proposed five role pairs of social interactions which are parent/child, man/woman, teacher/ student, boss/subordinate and authority and member. I need to point out that his categories are helpful in the comparison of cultural interactions, but it does not mean the role pairs of social interactions can be found in all societies or hold equal value (Yoo, 2014). Hofstede (1986) claims that these role patterns are the products of a society's culture, for example, teacher– student relationship is culturally endorsed as hierarchical in the CHC context.

From a socio-cultural perspective, learning takes place as individuals engage in culturally meaningful productive activity with the assistance of a more competent person (Monzó & Rueda, 2001). A socio-cultural perspective presumes the learning task is completed through collaboration, and the learner gains competence and the ability to take greater responsibility over the more cognitively demanding parts of the task (Rogoff, Baker-Sennett, Lacasa & Goldsmith,1995). Collaboration values both teachers' and students' contribution and they play a relatively equal role in the learning process. Equal teacher–student status challenges the culturally endorsed hierarchical teacher– student relationship and thus "faces resistance and unwelcome attitudes in those countries" (Chowdhury & Ha, 2008, p. 309), whose teacher-student relationship is hierarchical. It should be noted that teacher-student relationships in my study are hierarchical, which is inherently determined by the CHC.

3.5.1 Adaption of Social Domain Theory

To frame the key concepts discussed above for the current study, I drew upon Layder's (1997) social domain model to develop my theoretical framework. In this section, I will firstly introduce the key concepts of Layder's (1997) social domain model and provide justifications why I chose to adapt his model. Secondly, I will introduce the adapted version and provide a brief explanation regarding how each concept works with the others.

3.5.1.1 Layer's (1997) Social Domain Model

In the current study, I explore the social and cultural dimensions of English teaching and learning in the Chinese context with a focus on teachers' use of the L1 and the TL. Within the theoretical framework of social realism (Carter & Sealey, 2000; Layder, 1993), it is believed that any activities of human beings are shaped by both macro and micro social features from the social context, organizational setting, situated activity and agency. More specifically, Layder (1993) believed that humans' social behaviour is shaped by interactions between macro-level features such as social context and setting (e.g., structure) and micro-level features such as language use and psycho-biography (e.g., agency). He further pointed out that human beings' social behaviour is embedded within the society and history in which they are situated. Related to what he said above to the field of ELT, it can be argued that this suggests a recognition of socio-cultural aspects of ELT investigation which aims to understand teaching and learning practices from a broader cultural and historical context and raise the importance of understanding the teachers and the students as agents in their contexts. Layder's model (1993) contains four principal domains: psychobiography, situated activity, social setting and contextual resources. These domains are interactively connected and reflect social relations, power and practices (Layder, 1997).

The first social domain is "psychobiography" which refers to all human beings having unique biographies in which "personal feelings, attitudes, and predispositions" contribute to a continuing selfhood, which is embedded in their daily routines and experiences (Layder 1997:2-3). There are four teachers in the current study, which means that each has their own psychobiography. In addition, as Layder (1993) stated, teachers' social experiences will influence their personality and perceptions of the world. Cordon and Smith (1999) proposed the idea that psychobiography is a mixture of personal biography and social biography. Personal biography is acknowledged as the influences of events in one's personal life. For example, teachers' schooling experience is essential in shaping their beliefs and perceptions about education (Richardson, 1996). Social biography refers to educational, social and

financial capital the individual possesses (Gordon &Smith, 1999). Goodson (1992) suggests that both teachers' personal and social biographies influence their practices. This distinction is important in the current study in the sense that there are teachers who have obtained higher education qualifications and two who play multiple roles - as a teacher and administration officer. The differences may contribute to determining their perceptions regarding ELT.

However, the scope of Layder's (1997) definition of psychobiography remains unclear. Teachers' belief is one of the key components in the current study, and I raise a question as to whether "attitude" in Layder's (1997) definition can be interpreted as a synonym of belief. Layder (1997) appeared not to specify how his concepts could be applied in different disciplines. I add one domain "Situated Cognition" to expand the scope of domains for the current study. "Situated Cognition" comprehensively covers multiple cognitive dimensions of teaching, and it not only includes teachers' beliefs but teachers' knowing and thinking (Borg, 2003). This is a central component for the improvement of foreign language education. The situated activity of face-to-face contact is itself embedded within what Layder identifies as the domain of social setting. These two domains are different in their scope. Layder (1993, p.90) defines settings as "already established forms of organization" within which situated activity takes place, while class, gender, and ethical relations compromise the typical macro elements of contexts (Belz, 2002). With relation to my study, settings involve two levels. The first is the institutional level and the second is the level of the College English class. Within these two different levels, teachers position themselves differently. Layder continues that situated activity "shifts focus away from the individuals' response to various social situations towards a concern with the dynamics of interaction itself……" (Layder, 1993, p.80). ELT practice is a situated activity, but teachers are not only shaped by what happens in the classroom but also where the classrooms are situated.

Contextual resources refer to the anterior distributions of material and cultural capital which social actors inherit as a consequence of being born in a particular place at a particular time (Layder, 1997). Contextual resources can be manifested into local socio-economic situations which have huge diversities in China. This is not the main focus of the current study, but it is relevant in the sense that the unique socio-economic situation at provincial level provides an environment for ELT practices which does not only affect the distribution of resources available for ELT, but the opportunities College students may have due to their academic background in that they graduated in a regional institution like Institution B.

3.5.1.2 Adaption of Layder (1997)'s Social Domain Model

The social domain model is operative in the social world, and it gives emphasis to the social dimension of activity. In my study, it is part of an investigation which raises questions about the compatibility of CLT in another, different context and cultural dimension that has increasingly been my concern. Layer (1997)'s model proposed the areas that closely relate to my study when examining English teaching and learning from a sociocultural perspective. However, my study puts greater emphasis on exploring the cultural dimension to investigate the extent to which it requires to be highlighted more in certain contexts. Linking this point to my research context, I develop it as a core domain which exerts different degrees of influence on other domains. I argue that the concepts proposed in the following model do not have equally mutual influence on each other; instead, some domain or domains may exert more powerful influences" than" and "on" the others. For example, this may be the case of the transformation of CLT into different social and cultural contexts. That is, the cultural domain may be more powerful than other domains in constraining the implementation of CLT. This is the reason why "cultural domain" is presented as larger than the others in the adapted model below, which suggests it exerts stronger influences "on" and "than" the others. Within the understanding of how these domains work, it should be borne in mind that transformation of CLT into another teaching context should not be simply perceived as a changing technique on the surface; rather it also requires an understanding of a set of underpinning parameters and dimensions with the consideration of local sociocultural contexts. The last section of this chapter examines the "meaning" of the transferability of communicative approaches on the basis of the discussion above of the adaptation of Layder's (1997) model below.

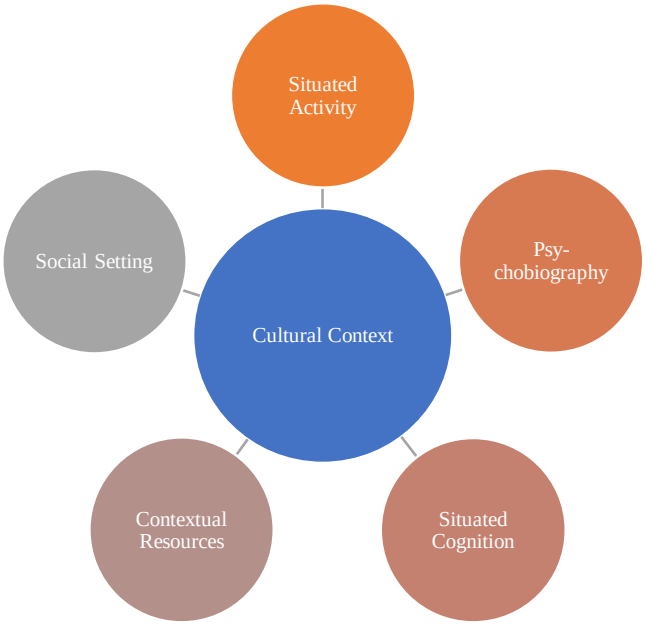

Figure Four: Adaption of Layder's (1997) Social Domain Model

3.6 Transferability in Foreign Language Education

ELT sits within two dominant paradigms of the TA (Traditional Approach) and CA (Communicative Approach), which broadly define a set of values and procedures to which practitioners subscribe (Willis &Willis, 1996). Each paradigm provides a framework and participants in the field such as the teacher, student and teacher trainer are expected to work around this set of shared values within this framework. Regarding the implementation of CLT, literature suggests a tendency that calls for a paradigm shift from the behaviourist psychology and structural linguistics toward cognitive and more contextualized, meaning-based pedagogy of language (Bax, 2003; Jacob &Farrell, 2003). The transferability of CA relies not only on the shift from TA to CA but also the shift of the paradigms. I present two dominant paradigms examined in the model shown in Figure Five below.

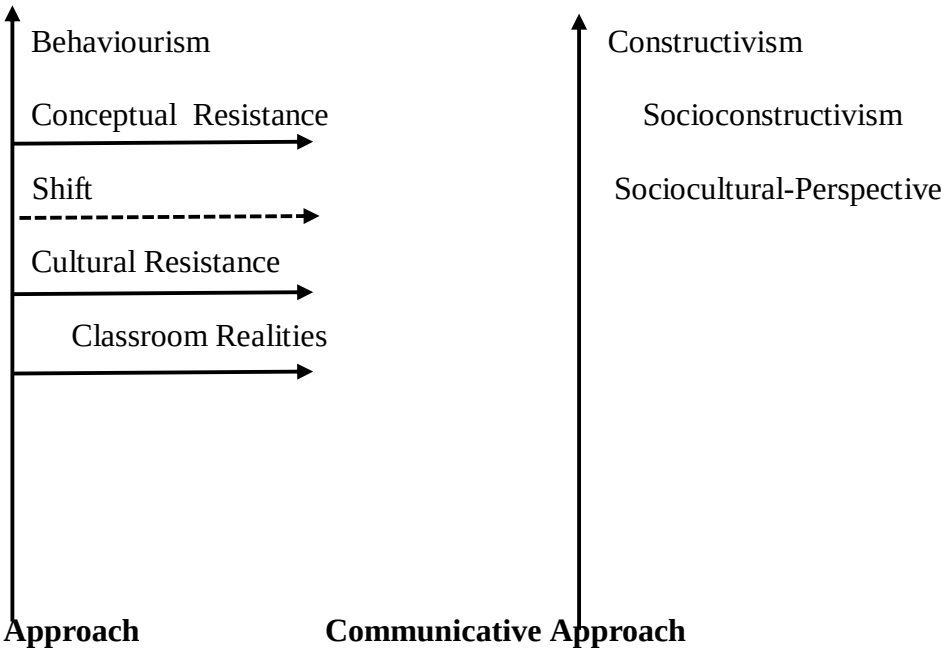

Figure Five: Theoretical foundations underpinning TA and CA

This model demonstrates two theoretical frames underpinning the TA and the CA which are behaviourism and the theoretical families of the constructivism. Before proceeding, I will briefly introduce the key components of the model. Solid lines with arrows represent variables that act as contextual resistance to the implementation of CA which include conceptual, institutional and classroom-level constraints (Bulter, 2011). These areas of resistance cause tensions in the fundamental areas.

TA or CA holds a dominant position in deciding students' learning from what to learn to how to learn. The adaption of Layder's (1997) social domain model suggests each theoretical

frame has roots in their own socio-cultural context which also determines what is to be learned and how to learn. Therefore, this model calls for a theoretical understanding of TA and CA so as to be aware what could be learnt by drawing from different theoretical positions. At the same time, it is essential to consider socio-cultural contexts from the global level to the local level, because they also determine what the learner has to learn. This model suggests that learning is not a matter of the "shift" which represents a dichotomy relationship between these two theoretical positions.

3.7 Summary of the Chapter

I explored the constructivist theoretical family and the way it underpins CA which includes constructivism, socio-constructivism and socio-cultural theories. These theories evolved over time and focused on different aspects of learning. Constructivism recognizes the cognitive dimension of learning which emphasizes reflection and thinking about learning. Socio-constructivism emphasizes the social dimension during the co-construction of knowledge in interaction. Socio-cultural theory extends the scope to examine learning in a broader social and cultural context. A group of key concepts with regard to learning have been developed underpinning the constructivist theoretical family including cooperation, collaboration, learner-centred learning and interaction. A number of studies reported the infeasibility of implementing these concepts in different contexts (Oxford, 1997; Nguyen et al,2006).

I defined the key concepts of the current study by examining social, cultural and institutional dimensions of the Chinese context. Behaviourism as a learning theory currently appears to be culturally appropriate in most Chinese contexts (Tan & Chua, 2015). This chapter has emphasized the importance of consideration of sociocultural contexts in the implementation of CA. In the next chapter, I will discuss the research methodology.

Chapter Four - Research Methodology

4.0 Introduction

In this chapter, I will demonstrate the steps that I have taken in designing and conducting the current study. This chapter will start with a re-statement of the purpose and research question of current study. Then, I will provide an overview of the research paradigm underpinning the methodology. Next, I will provide a rationale for my research approach; then, I will focus on the analysis of data arising from research. The last section presents a summary of the chapter.

The purpose of the current study is to examine English Language Teaching (ELT) practice in China; more specifically, my research question is what factors affect Chinese teachers' use of the First Language (L1) and the Target Language (TL) at tertiary level. A qualitative research methodology will be applied to address this question. Next, I will provide an overview of research paradigm which aims to show how the underpinning philosophical assumptions relate to the chosen research methodology.

4.1 Research Paradigm

As Grix (2004) warned, people who want to conduct clear and precise research need to understand the "philosophical underpinnings that inform their choice of research questions, methodology and intentions" (p.57). The understanding and acknowledgement of the philosophical underpinnings are essential and enable me to defend the research paradigm I have chosen. Therefore, I start this section by defining key terms that constitute the paradigm. The paradigm consists of two key terms which are: ontology is the study of being (Crotty, 1998, p.10). I use this term to refer to "factors" that affect teachers' language use. The other key term is epistemology which is concerned with how we know what we know (Grix, 2004); I use this term in the current study to refer to the interactions between factors and teachers' language choices.

Different research paradigms hold different ontological and epistemological assumptions which represent different definitions of "reality". Two contrasting ontological and epistemological assumptions underpin the research paradigms, "positivism" and "interpretivism". The ontological assumption underpinning positivism is one of realism (Scotland, 2012) which views the world as existing independently of our knowledge of it (Guba & Lincoln, 1998: 204). In other words, reality exists independently of the researcher

(Pring, 2000a, p.59) and it is neither mediated by our sense nor socially constructed (Marsh & Furlong, 2002:26-30). The epistemological stance of positivism is one of objectivism which perceives knowledge as objective reality (Scotland, 2012). Conducting research within positivism is a process of seeking objectivity (Marsh & Furlong, 2002: 26-30). By contrast, interpretivism holds the view that "reality" is socially and discursively constructed by human beings; "reality" differs from individual to individual (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p.110). Therefore, truth and knowledge are subjective (Flick, 2014). Interpretivism recognizes language as a mediation tool (Vygotsky, 1978) and it is believed that reality is constructed through the interaction between language and aspects of an independent world (Scotland, 2012).

Relating the discussion above to my study, literature in the field of teachers' language use suggests a wide range of factors that could affect teachers' language decisions (Borg, 2003; Kang, 2013). However, certain factors may affect some teachers' language use rather than others. The core part of this study is to investigate the transferability of CLT into China which is a different social, cultural and educational context from western countries. It involves the investigation of interaction among individuals as well as the historical and cultural contexts which people inhabit (Creswell, 2009, p. 8). "Truth" in my study is understood as culturally and historically situated. As seen in Chapter Three my conceptual framework is adapted from Layder's (1997) social domain model, and it aims to present the interrelations of key concepts arising from multiple domains. Therefore, "truth" is embedded within the interactions among these domains. Lastly, the researcher in qualitative research is the primary instrument of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2007). Me and the research are not independent entities, because the meaning constructed in this current study also resides in my understanding and interpretation (p.18)

4.2 Interpretivism Paradigm and Qualitative Research

Generally, qualitative research methodology is applied within an interpretivism paradigm (Grix, 2004); In the current study, I take a qualitative methodology. However, I need to emphasize my position. I chose this research methodology according to my research question, not the other way around. This is a good place to restate my research problem. The purpose of this current study is to understand the factors that affect Chinese teachers' use of the L1 and TL in a regional institution. The current study takes place in a regional institution in China, and there is a lack of literature regarding teachers' language use in this context which suggests a gap exists in understanding local ELT practice in China. The current research

aims to give voice to those who are under-represented by seeking a deeper understanding of English teaching and learning in the context.

Qualitative methodology fits my research purpose, but it does not mean it has no limitations. Atieno (2009) challenges the validity of qualitative research due to the inability of generalisation of the findings from a small-scale size of samples. It is acknowledged that the findings cannot be generalized to the wider population. Further, qualitative research has an inherent limitation in that the researcher may have a propensity to refer to personal opinion to support arguments instead of evidence (Grix, 2004). This can lead to the potential for bias on researcher's part, which could impact the results of the study. Bearing its limitations in mind, I will move to discussion of my research design which presents data collection methods and provides an explanation of the data collection process.

4.3 Research Design

In this section, I will present the research design which includes the selection of sampling and the steps taken in carrying out the data collection and analysis. More specifically, this section covers the details of the data collection method and the process of data analysis.

The research methods include class observations, teachers' interviews and focus groups interviews with the students. I am aware that students were not the targeted focus in this study; however, I am not able to fully understand, for example, the teachers' role without understanding students' expectations in the classrooms. Therefore, it is important to include students in my data collection. In the next section I discuss the selection of my research participants.

4.3.1 Purposive Sampling

Purposive sampling is a typical approach to sampling in qualitative research (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2013). It is used to focus on specific and unique issues or to generate theory through the gradual accumulation of data from different sources (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). In my research, purposive sampling was used to access what Ball (1990) described as "knowledgeable people" who have in-depth knowledge and experience of particular issues. Regrading my study, "knowledgeable" people are four teachers of General English (GE) courses in a regional university in China. They are the ones who are able to comment on matters of GE; I also regard students as "knowledgeable" people in terms of their roles as

students and their experience of learning GE. The research focus is on teachers' language use of the L1 and the TL in a Chinese university. In order to obtain a comprehensive understanding of ELT at tertiary level in China, two groups will be sampled: teachers and students.

- **Teacher Sample**

Four teachers from the Foreign Language Education School in Institution B were recruited, all of whom taught the College English Course. In Table Three, the demographic information of the four teacher participants is given. I named them T1, T2, T3 and T4. Table 3 shows that four teachers have taught English for over 15 years. Three of them have experience studying or visiting English-speaking countries. Three of them hold Master's degree and one was a PhD candidate at the time of the data collection. Two of the teachers did not study English as the major. The four teachers' background differed from each other. Literature suggests that students' language proficiency is an important factor that influences teacher's language choice (Turnbull, 2001; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). Therefore, I deliberately chose two teachers from the first year and another two from the second year. In China, it is only the first two years that non-English major students are required to attend College English course.

Table Three: Demographics of Teacher Participants

Teacher	Gender	Students 'Level	Teaching Experience	Qualification	Experience of studying/visiting universities in English speaking countries
T1	Female	First Year College Student	15 years.	Non-English major Master	America: 3 months
T2	Male	First Year College Student	17 years.	Non-English major Master	United Kingdom: 3 weeks.
T3	Male	Second Year College Student	24 years.	PhD Candidate in Semantics	America: 1 year
T4	Female	Second Year College Student	15 years.	English major Master	None

Before starting the data collection, I contacted the administration officer in the university, and the officer offered me a list of all the GE teachers in the university. At the beginning, I approached teachers by email. However, I found that email appeared not to be a popular means of contacting teachers, because it took over one week to receive one response. I then sent another email to the administration officer and asked for the teachers' We Chat or QQ number, which are dominant social media networks in China today. I approached the teachers and left messages through QQ, or We Chat. I introduced myself and explained my research with details such as the purpose of the research. The teachers then appeared to be

interested in my study. However, they were reluctant to allow me to observe their class for a period of the whole academic term. Only eight teachers responded positively to my request. As mentioned, four teachers were finally recruited on the basis they matched my research design criteria which are shown in Table Three. The criteria included: years of teaching experiences; educational background of English; and experiences of studying or visiting English-speaking countries.

In the process of teacher recruitment, an ethical issue arose. The administration officer provided me with teacher's personal social media (We chat or QQ) which are similar to Instagram and face book. I found that students submitted homework through QQ; and teachers utilized QQ to upload learning materials to support student's learning after the class. This gave me access to more than I expected concerning the students' background.

- **Student Sample**

Five students from each class were chosen to participate in focus-group interviews. The students' focus group interviews were arranged four weeks after the Classroom Observations. The teachers introduced me to their students at the very beginning of the class. It was good in the sense that the students then knew who I was. In T1 and T4's classes, I was asked to share my experience of learning English. To some extent, I engaged with the students by this interaction with them and it was good to establish a rapport with them (Angrosino, 2007). This led to a smooth process to recruit the student participants. I introduced my research in the class and explained the purpose and potential procedure for the students' focus-groups. I also explained that their participation was on a volunteer basis. Finally, 20 students from four classes were recruited for the students' focus-group interviews.

4.3.2 Data Collection Methods

In the current study, I used multiple methods to collect the data including Classroom Observation, teachers' interviews, students' focus-group interviews and document analysis. The purpose of multiple methods of data collection was to add rigor, breadth and depth to the study and it provided corroborative evidence of the data obtained (Denzin &Lincoln, 2005). I undertook Document Analysis before my entry into the field. Data collection in the field started with Classroom Observation, then the teachers' interviews and the students' focus group interviews.

4.3.3 Data Collection in the Field

The data collection process lasted 2 and a half months which equated to one academic term time in a Chinese university. I started to collect the data in the middle of September 2018

and ended in the middle of November 2018. Before the start of the data collection in the research site, I analysed the documents relating to China's foreign language policies including Requirements (2004/2007) and Guidelines (2015).

I started my data collection with Classroom Observations which were conducted in a successive manner. I was provided with a timetable of the classes for College English classes which is attached in Appendix Five. All teachers' and students' focus-group interviews were conducted after two to three weeks of the Classroom Observations. By that time, I had observed all the teachers' classrooms and started to become familiar with both the teachers and students. In addition, I was able to adapt some of my interview questions according to observational data.

4.3.4 Language for Data Collection

The data were collected in two different languages in the current research which were English and Mandarin Chinese. English was partly used as a "code" in College English classes and therefore it was the language of Classroom Observations. On some occasions, data collected in English was complemented with Field Notes which aimed to address confusions due to teachers' accent in English. In the teachers' interviews and students' focus-group interviews, Mandarin Chinese was used as the language to collect the data. In the next section, I introduce the process of data collection.

- **Phase I - Classroom Observation**

Observation is one of the key tools for data collection in qualitative research (Creswell & Poth, 2016). It provided me with the opportunity to collect "live" data from naturally occurring social situations (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2013). In this way, I was able to observe when and how the teacher used the L1 and the TL in their teaching practices. I took observational Field Notes (Appendix Two) instead of using an observational protocol. Observational Field Notes included both descriptive notes and reflective notes. The descriptive notes involved teachers' use of the L1 and TL (Appendix Six), the basic information of the class including date, time and the number of students and content related to the language use shown on the power point. Field Notes also recorded teachers' non-verbal behaviour, for example, writing the synonyms on the blackboard, or walking around the class to support a student at intervals. The reflective notes also involved my own perceptions about some particular occasions regarding the teachers' language use. In the data transcription process, it was helpful to revisit the notes to facilitate my reflections of the classes.

Table Four: Frequency of Teachers' Observations and Interviews

Teacher	Class Types	Observations	Interviews
T1	College English I	12	1
T2	College English I	12	1
T3	College English II	14	1
T4	College English II	15	2

Literature suggests that teachers' beliefs are an important factor that affects their language choice (Liu et al., 2004; Rubdy, 2007). However, Kagan (1992) suggested, teachers' beliefs cannot be inferred by their behaviour, because what people do may differ from what they say they do (Robson,2002). Classroom Observation can be used as a direct means to check the consistencies between teachers' behaviour and their beliefs. In the current study, observation may identify mismatches between teachers' actual use of the L1 and the TL in the classroom and their articulated language use in the follow-up interview.

In addition, Labov (1972) proposed the idea of "observer paradox", which refers to participants who might be affected by the observational circumstances. In my observation, I found teachers tried to use the TL as much as they could. For example, teachers used the L1 to explain language points of the text and then repeated themselves in TL. It was unclear what was the purpose of the use of repetition in TL. However, teachers told me in their interview that they were used to having an observer in their classes before my presence. In Institution B, there is a supervision system; that is, some retired teachers from different subjects were recruited to attend College English classes and evaluate the teachers' performance. One of the criteria was the amount of the TL use. My presence appeared to result in their increasing use of the TL. I am aware of the influences of this issue and therefore, observations in the current study were semi-structured. Semi-structured observation is defined as "an observation with an agenda of issues but gathers data to illuminate these issues in a far less predetermined or systematic manner" (Cohen, Manion &Morrison, 2013).

The observational data was the primary source for my data collection. As seen in Table Four, there were 53 Classroom Observations in total, and I used a digital voice recorder to record the data. The digital recorder powered off due to the low batteries in the middle of one class. However, I used my mobile phone as a backup recorder. After two weeks' Classroom Observation, I started teachers' interviews.

- **Phase II - Teachers' Interviews**

The interview is a fundamental data collection tool in qualitative research (Merriam, 1998). In the current study, it is used to complement the Classroom Observations. Interviews allow for greater in-depth exploration of a research phenomenon than is the case with other methods of data collection (Cohen, Manion, Morrison, 2013). More specifically, interviews allow teachers' beliefs and motives (Rubin. H.J & Rubin. I.S, 2011) regarding their language use to emerge, and allowed me to explore how teachers from the particular social-cultural context made sense of their language use.

Interviews in the current study were semi-structured and this allowed me to ask questions within a frame of reference rather than specific ones (Bryan, 2015). Therefore, I had an interview protocol (Patton, 2001) with me which listed questions to be explored. This was also important, in the sense that when teachers talked about something irrelevant to research focus once they finished, I brought the discussion back to the research focus with the help of interview protocol. The sequencing of the questions was flexible, and I started the interview with questions related to the teachers' background. As Jacobs and Furgerson (2012) suggested, starting with this type of questions is a way to warm up the interviewees and build up trust between me and teachers I interviewed. In my cases, I noticed there was no specific starting point of interviews. For example, the teachers' interviews took place after their classes, and they tended to talk to me immediately about what happened in the previous class. The immediate follow-up interviews helped me to collect additional information such as teachers' reflection on their previous teaching.

- **Phase III - Students' Focus Group Interview**

A focus group is a type of interview which places reliance on the interaction within the group and discusses the topic identified by the researcher (Morgan, 1996). In the focus groups, the participants interacted with each other, and the dynamic of interaction fostered a range of opinions and revealed more understanding of the research problem. (Denscombe, 2014). As a researcher, I played a role as a facilitator who led the discussion by asking questions and kept participants focused on the discussion.

There were four focus-group interviews, and each was convened with five student participants who studied the College English course. As mentioned above, I set no criteria to select the student participants, but the goal of focus-group interview needs to be restated. The purpose of student focus-group interview was to triangulate the findings generated from the Classroom Observations and teachers' interviews; it also aimed to ensure trustworthiness and credibility of the study by cross-checking the data gathered through different methods. The focus-group interviews took place at the end of the day, because the student participants had the whole-day studying. Each focus group interview lasted approximately 1 hour but it varied from the first-year students' interviews to the second-year students' interviews. I used the same focus-group protocol to guide the interviews, but the students' motivation and personality resulted in differences in the group interactions. For example, it was noticeable that the first-year students tended to be more flexible and open to discussing issues regarding their English learning. In the next section, I discuss some ethical issues which arose during the data collection.

4.4.4 Ethical Issues

Ethical consideration in my research process was at the heart of my study process. Ethics and personal sensitivities are two core ideas that need careful thought (Holloway & Biley, 2011). Careful consideration of ethics and personal sensitivity is helpful to establish the security of emotional and mutual trust which are particularly important in qualitative interviews.

The start pointing of the ethical considerations was completing the forms for ethical approval for the research study and the ethical requirements of the University of Glasgow's College of Social Science's ethical research policies. The preparation of these documents and their approval were pre-requisites for conducting my fieldwork. They were helpful in the way that they provided information to the participants about my research. I referred to the University of Glasgow's ethical code of practice and identified two major considerations in terms of my research, namely: informed consent and confidentiality of the information obtained.

- **Informed Consent**

According to Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2008), informed consent refers to informing the participants about the overall research purpose and key features of the design. Apart from the plain language statement, I also explained my research at the beginning of

interviews and in the first observation. However, I found that as my study progressed gaining consent became problematic (Miller &Bell, 2002). It was impossible to predict what I might need to include in the consent form (Eisner, 1991). An unexpected issue arose in a teacher's interview and a student's focus group interview, despite my awareness of the personal opinions given by the teacher and the personal issues discussed by the students. I realized that ethical considerations need to be an ongoing part of the research as they can emerge at various stages (Miller & Bell, 2002).

- **Confidentiality**

As Kvale (1996) claimed, it is important to protect the participants' privacy by changing their names when reporting the findings so as to prevent participants being identified. I used the letter T which was the initial of "Teacher" to protect teachers' anonymity and I used "S" to refer to students. Another issue regarding confidentiality emerged in the students' focus-group interviews. Focus groups do not necessarily restrict interviewees from discussing the information with others. I was aware that complete confidentiality of information cannot be guaranteed due to the lack of interviewees' awareness of research ethics. As a result, it was my responsibility to keep reminding them of the importance of confidentiality of information.

4.5 Data Analysis-Grounded Theory

In this section, I introduce the procedures of data analysis. I start with discussion of the data transcription process which included the organization of data collected from multiple methods. And then, I will introduce my use of memo writing.

- **Data Transcription**

The Classroom Observations, teachers' interviews and students' focus-group interviews were all audio recorded. I was provided with a copy of the academic calendar which showed the time and date when the College English classes took place. Accordingly, I created recording files with the date and the teachers' code initials as the filenames.

I started the data transcription with repeated listening to the audio recorder to become familiar with data collected. The current research focus is on teachers' use of the L1 and the TL and therefore, transcriptions were very detailed to capture all the features of the teachers' language use. At the initial stage, there was no reduction of data during the transcription, and I transcribed all the data I collected. However, some data was omitted in certain situations. For example, some of students had strong accents in both Chinese and English

and even with the recording I failed to capture what had been said when they responded to the teachers. I marked this in my Field Notes and repeated the recording, but I was not able to understand these utterances. In this situation, this part of data had to be omitted.

- **Memos**

Memoing is extensively used in qualitative research, and it is the foundation of the emergent coding system (Ezzy, 2013). It is an essential habit for theory development (Corbin &Strauss, 2015). In the process of data collection, I wrote memos after each class, and it worked like a field diary. The content of the field diary was a mixture of questions, ideas, reflections and some narrative about what happened in the classrooms. One of the most important purposes of memo writing was to store key points for later retrieval. I recorded my memos with the date and therefore, I was able to refer back in the analysis of same day Classroom Observation recording.

4.6 Grounded Theory

In the current research, the data analysis approach was a "Grounded Theory" approach (Glaser &Strauss, 1967). Grounded Theory method comprises a set of data collection and analysis procedures which aims to generate theory (Charmaz &Belgrave, 2007). There are two key approaches to grounded theory which are the systematic procedures approach (Corbin &Strauss, 2007) and the constructivist approach which is advocated by Charmaz (2014). In current study, I chose the systematic procedure approach. Relating it to the analysis, I will follow the analysis procedures within grounded theory which involves opening coding, axial coding and selecting coding (Strauss &Corbin, 1990).

- **Data Analysis**

I planned to start the data analysis when I was doing fieldwork. However, the College English course took place quite intensively. In the field, I wrote fieldwork diaries which I used to record my reflections on the data collected during the day. I started to analyse the data after the completion of data collection in the field. In the preparation of data analysis, I studied the transcriptions and Fieldnotes so as to become familiar with the data. All data were manually coded. The systematic data analysis included three stages, but I need to point out that the data analysis process was not rigidly separated at each stage as discussed below. Classroom Observation data analysis was carried out at the first stage as the Classroom Observation data were the primary data source in current study. Therefore, I started with the analysis of Classroom Observation data. At the same time, I analysed the data produced by

teachers' interviews to assist me in making sense of teachers' observed behaviour in the classes. In all, the data analysis involved three stages: Classroom Observation data analysis, coding and identifying themes.

Stage 1 Classroom Observation data analysis

At this stage, the objectives of data analysis of the Classroom Observations aimed to identify patterns of teachers' use of the TL and the L1. This was the "initial" coding stage (Charmaz, 2014). I printed all transcriptions and read them line by line. I highlighted the points relevant to the teachers' use of the L1 and the TL and attempted to categorize them into different functions. At the completion of each piece of Classroom Observation transcription, I wrote up a summary to synthesize the patterns identified in the transcription. This process was "initial" coding (Charmaz, 2014) when I attempted to understand teachers' use of the L1 and the TL in College English classes. I also reflected on the transcripts and made comments regarding my own analytical thoughts. The analysis at this stage aimed to identify categories of teachers' language use and potential factors that affect teachers' language use.

Stage 2 Coding

The objective of coding at this stage was to "identify the interrelationships" between the categories (Dörnyei, 2007). At this stage, I started to analyse the data collected from the teachers' interviews and the students' focus-group interviews. I did not define any units for the coding; data was coded line by line and it was also coded by words, phrases and sentences. Line-by-line coding is an important process to identify themes (Flick, 2013). I constantly compared and contrasted data generated by the teachers themselves to identify the patterns of their use of the L1 and the TL. I also compared language use among different teachers. For example, I compared two teachers who taught the same levels of College students and also with whom taught different years. By doing so, it allowed me to question whether year or level was a factor that affected teachers' language use. The constant comparative method (Creswell &Poth, 2016) was also applied to the analysis of students' interviews; I compared the data generated from four groups of students' interviews with the aim of finding about students' views regarding English learning and their teachers' language use. This stage involved the selection and interpretation of the data.

Stage 3 Themes

The Classroom Observations were transcribed, and a constant coding process was conducted which was about the "pursuit of emergent themes" (Charmaz, 2001: 677). From the previous

two stages, patterns of teachers' language use and a range of factors were identified. At this stage, I attempted to categorize the factors into different themes, and explored interrelations between these themes. As mentioned in Chapter 1, a Layered-model was developed to present the multiple dimensions of the research context. In the first stages the data was analysed at the level of classroom, and the level of teachers and students. At this stage, the analysis focused on interactions between the different levels. The aim was to understand any interactions within the broad social and cultural context.

4.7 Issues of Trustworthiness

Issues of validity and reliability are essential for research findings. Different research paradigms use different terms. Validity and reliability are terms used within a positivism research paradigm. Within an interpretivist paradigm "trustworthiness" of data is the aim to persuade audiences of study about the credibility and dependability of the data.

In the current study, certain criteria have been applied to provide trustworthiness (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Patton, 2002). Firstly, I supplemented Classroom Observations with Teacher Interviews and students' focus group Interviews. The purpose was to triangulate the findings. Secondly, I was aware of the issues of bias and assumptions generated from my learning experience in China, and I kept a reflective journal and highlighted emerging understandings and interpretations of issues.

4.8 Limitation of the Study

This is a qualitative study which aims to produce rich data contributing to an in-depth understanding of teachers' language choices. The research context was relatively unexplored and therefore, I chose Classroom Observation as the primary data collection tool which allowed me to understand teachers' language use in detail by attending actual College English classes. The interpretation of data generated by Classroom Observations was done exclusively by me which required higher research skills, a larger repertoire of knowledge of language teaching and learning and an understanding of the local sociocultural context. This was particularly important for me who acted as the researcher conducting the current study. Regarding teachers' use of the TL and L1, the research context was unexplored. I understand the research context in the sense that I attended College English classes and studied within China's educational system. In other words, I understand the context from the view of being a student, and it inevitably caused bias from me. For example, I found T1 taught students "plosive sound" with "Twinkle, Twinkle", and my interpretation is their teacher's lower TL

proficiency. However, the teacher clarified in the interview that when she was a student her teacher had taught her "plosive sound" with "Twinkle Twinkle". She had a successful experience of learning "plosive sound" by singing "Twinkle, Twinkle" and this was the reason why she taught in the same in her classes.

Further, four teachers were recruited for the current study; however, it was found that T2 used dominantly the L1 in his classes and his TL use was extremely limited to phrases, vocabularies and reading the texts. Data arising from T2 did not reveal potential factors that affect T2's language choices other than his TL proficiency. My presence in the classrooms appeared to lead to an increase of teachers' use of the TL. However, in T2's classes, the increase of TL use involved a large number of repetitions of phrases and vocabularies which were said by T2. Criteria for the teachers' recruitment were established which included teaching experiences, educational background and experience of visiting English-Speaking countries. However, these selection criteria did not ensure T2's use of both TL and L1. From the perspective of culture (losing face in Chinese culture will stop teachers from participating honestly in the study), it is detrimental to design an assessment to measure teachers' TL proficiency. Local cultural norms affected the scope of "depth" of findings of current study.

4.9 Summary of Chapter

In this chapter, I explained the philosophical underpinnings of the chosen research paradigm. I introduced the research design and the methods used for data collection and presented the procedures used for data collection and data analysis. I also acknowledged the limitations of the study.

Chapter Five – Findings

5.0 Introduction

This chapter will focus on the presentation and analysis of the data. The current study aimed to identify the factors that influence Chinese teachers' use of the L1 and TL in College English classrooms. It is necessary to make clear that "College English" in the Chinese context is different from the concept of college in the UK. In China's context, "College English" refers to English teaching and learning in Chinese universities and it is specifically associated with English teaching and learning by non-English major students who are also known as College English students.

This chapter will draw on evidence collected from document analysis (DA) Classroom Observations (CO), teachers' interviews (T-Interview), and students' focus group interviews (S-Interview). The findings will be organized into four themes, namely, functional distribution of teacher's use of the L1 and TL; the purpose of English learning; patterns of teacher-student interaction; and subject-related factors. In the presentation of the evidence, the abbreviation of each data collection method will be applied. That is, DA refers to document analysis, CO refers to Classroom Observation, T-Interview refers to Teacher Interview, and S-interview refers to students' focus group interview. This study focuses on understanding the teacher's use of the L1 and TL and in order to differentiate the data involving the TL and L1 use, teachers' and students' L1 use will be italicized in all excerpts. The research question sought to identify the factors that affect Chinese teachers' use of the TL and L1. The first theme of this chapter regards functional distribution of TL and L1 use in College English classes.

5.1 Theme One - Functional Distribution of Teachers' Use of TL and L1

Methodologically, statistically counting may provide a picture of teachers' use of the L1 and TL. Data arising from Classroom Observations indicated that Initiation-Response and Feedback (I-R-F) and oral drills were the most frequent interactional patterns involving teachers' TL use in College English classes. I-R-F was found to fulfil two functions extensively. Firstly, the teachers made attempts to develop students' communicative competence by engaging them with interactions. Secondly, I-R-F was used to check students' translation between the TL and L1. However, not all teacher-student interactions were found to be meaningful, and it proved difficult to uncover what could be considered "meaningful interaction" by quantitatively counting instances. That is, interactions initiated by teachers

like T3 and T4 with one student could be considered meaningful, whereas interactions which occurred between T1 and thirty-two students could be more often regarded as decontextualised, therefore lacking in meaning. This is because both T3 and T4 encouraged students to attempt to respond expressing their own meanings in the TL whereas the latter involved merely mechanical repetition of T1's utterances. As a result, it was difficult to quantify "meaningful interaction" in Tl's classes. However, I obtained an understanding during the data analysis that meaningful interactions regarding engaging students in class activities tended to occur at a comparatively lower frequency than interactions focusing on the checking of students' translation between the TL and L1 with regard to the teachers' practice as a whole.

Data related to functional distribution of teachers' L1, and TL use were collected mainly from Classroom Observations (Cos) and teachers' interviews (T-Interviews). It was found that L1 served an extensive range of functions whereas functional use of the TL was relatively restricted. The findings are shown in Table Five below:

Table Five: Functional Distribution of Teachers' Use of the L1 and TL.

Column A: Use of the L1	**Column B: Use of the TL**
Category 1: Classroom Management Instruction e.g. Introduction of Class Objectives	Category 1: Instructions Sub-category1: Classroom-Management Instruction. Sub-category 2: Content-related Instruction. Sub-category 3: Procedural Instruction for tasks.
Category 2: Introduction of Strategies for completion of listening tasks, translation and memorization of vocabulary.	Category 2: Translations of teachers' utterances in L1.
Category 3: Translation Sub-category 1: L1 equivalence Sub-category 2: Translation Tasks	Category 3: Greeting e.g How do you do?
Category 4: Grammar Instruction Sub-category 1: Analysis of Morphology Sub-category 2: Syntactic Analysis Sub-category 3: Prefix	Category 4: Checking Sub-category 1: Comprehension Check Questions. Sub-category 2: Checking Answers to Exercises
Category 5: Analysis of Text/ Learning Problems Sub-category 1: Textual Analysis Sub-category 2: Explanation of students' problems in homework.	

Category 6 Comprehension Check	
Category 7 Rapport Building	
Category 8 Introduction of Cultural Issues	

Before proceeding to the analysis, a clarification of categories in Table Five will be provided. Firstly, Column A represents teachers' use of the L1 and Column B represents teachers' use of the TL. Secondly, sub-categories were developed in an attempt to explore teachers' language use from as many aspects as possible within each categorization. However, there were some overlaps. For example, in Column A, both category 2 and category 3 contain "translation", but they focus on different aspects. Within Category 2, translation refers to the strategy to produce a better version of translation in and out of either the TL or L1 by emphasizing the differences between TL and L1. Translation in Category 3 refers to the translation activity which aimed to raise students' intercultural competence and understanding of how conceptual metaphors may be developed (Witte, Harden & de Oliveira Harden, 2009). In spite of "translation" being defined differently, it was found that "translation" as either a strategy or an activity was an essential part of College English classes. It was noticeable that excerpts were mainly taken from teachers' monologues rather than teacher-student interactions, because students' responses appeared not to affect the teachers' language choices. For example, T4 in her interview said, "*if I feel it is helpful, I will use that language. I am not affected by students' language use*" (iInterview). This view was shared by the other three teachers.

In Table Five, the first categories in Column A and B show that both L1 and TL were used to give classroom management instruction. A pattern of teachers' use of the L1 and TL was found - whenever TL was used to fulfil certain purposes by teachers, equivalence in L1 ensued. Excerpt One is an example which is taken from T1's class:

Excerpt One (T1-Classroom Observation):

Line	T	Utterance	L
1	T1	Now, oral practice. One partner plays the role of man, other play the role of woman.	TL
2		Practise this dialogue one. Pay attention to tone and intonation. *Lian xi di yi ge dui hua, zai lian xi yi…*	TL +L 1
3		*Jue se ban yan, yi ge yan nan ren, ling yi ge ban yan nv ren…*	L1

Excerpt One is an example of the type of language that T1 uses as she gives students instruction for a speaking task. Specifically, T1 assigns the role to students and stresses that

attention should be paid to tone and intonation (Line1,2). She starts the instruction in TL, and then switches to L1 immediately which provides students with L1 equivalence to what she said in TL previously (Line2,3). As seen in Line 2, "*lian xi di yi ge dui hua*" means "practise the dialogue one". In the Line 3, T1 repeats what she said previously (Line 1) in L1, and that is, "*Jue se ban yan, yi ge yan nan ren, ling yi ge ban yan nv ren…"*. This is L1 equivalence of *"*one partner plays the role of man, the other plays the role of woman". On this occasion, L1 seems to be used to enhance students' understanding of the instruction to make sure students know what they are going to do. Furthermore, it is noticeable that T1 did not repeat every utterance she produced in TL. For example, she gave no L1 equivalence to "Pay attention to tone and intonation" (Line 2). T1 did not provide an answer to my question in the interview regarding how she decided when the L1 equivalence is given. However, as the data analysis progressed, there was a feeling that the L1 equivalence was given to make sure that the class moved forwards. That is, students have a clear understanding of what to do immediately in the class. A similar example is found in T3's class which is shown in Excerpt Two below:

Excerpt Two (T3-Classroom Observation):

Line	**T**	**Utterance**	**L**
1	T3	Which Paragraph?	TL
2	Ss	Paragraph Five.	TL
3	T3	Yes, paragraph five, *di wu duan*. Which line? Line?	TL+L1
4	Ss	Four.	TL
5	T3	Line four. Line four? Tomorrow, *what on earth* tomorrow *is* ? Line 4, *di si hang.*	Tl+L1

Excerpt Two is an example taken from text analysis of T3's language in the classroom. T3 asks students to locate key information in the paragraph (Line 1). T3 then repeats students' responses in the TL, followed immediately by L1 equivalence (Line3, 5). L1 use appears to be confirmation of a student's response which implies that the answer is correct and the repetition of the L1 may allow other students to locate the information.

In the teachers' interviews, T3 and T4 justified their L1 use saying, for example, "*L1 use is to make sure students understand what I said quickly, and what we are going to do*." (Interview). In other words, L1 seems to be used to enhance students' understanding on the one hand, and to sustain the flow of the class on the other hand. From the teachers' side, they tend to feel secure using the L1 equivalence in giving instructions. As seen in the excerpts above, the content of the instruction was not complex, and L1 fulfilled basic function as

enhancing student's comprehension. What is more, teacher's L1 use is followed immediately with teacher's TL use. L1 tends to be used seemingly unconsciously, and teachers may be not aware of functions that the L1 may serve. L1 appears to be used as a habit with teachers assuming that as soon as L1 is used, students' understanding could be ensured.

In terms of students' comprehension checks, both TL and L1 are found to be extensively used which can be seen in in Table 5 in Column A Category 6 and Column B Category 4. Two examples are presented accordingly in Excerpts Three and Excerpt Four below:

Excerpt Three (T1-Classroom Observation):

Line	**T**	**Utterance**	L
1	T1	How do you say surf online in Chinese?	TL
2	S	*Wang shang chong lang* (On-line surfing).	L1

In Excerpt Three, T1 used the TL to check whether students know the phrase "surf online", and accordingly a L1 equivalence was given by students. Unlike T1, it was found that T3 in Excerpt Four used L1 to check whether students knew about the vocabulary.

Excerpt Four (T3-Classroom Observation):

Line	**T**	**Utterance**	**L**
1	T3	*How do we say* "ambitious" *in Chinese*?	L1
2	S	*Xiong xin zhuang zhi* (Aim to achieve high aspirations)	L1
3	T3	How about another meaning?	TL
4	S	You ye xin de (Having strong desire)	L1
5	T3	Right, you ye xin de (Having strong desire).	TL+L1

Before proceeding to the analysis, it should be noted that the text in italics is translated from the Chinese in order to make it comprehensible to the reader. Similar to the Excerpt Three, T3 checked students' understanding of the vocabulary, but the difference was the L1 use by T3 aimed to raise students' awareness of multiple meanings of "ambitious". From T3's perspective, English learning is partially about knowing multiple meanings of the vocabulary, and this has been emphasized and repeated by T3 in the class. These actions will be further discussed in Chapter 6. That is to say, L1 is not only used as a means of comprehension checking but to raise students' attention that it is essential to understand multiple meanings in learning vocabulary. Pedagogically, "ambitious" is more complicated than "surf online" in that "surf online" may have only one meaning that students need to know. By contrast, "ambitious" has multiple meanings to be mastered, because it is one of the key vocabularies listed in the Guidance of CET4 which is a handbook of vocabulary featuring mostly tested words in CET4. "*Teacher participants use the* Guidance of CET4 *to prepare the exam all*

the time" (T2-Interview), That is to say, teachers are aware of the key vocabularies which may be tested in the CET4. L1 use in this occasion tends to send a message that students should know about these vocabularies and their multiple meanings should be focused on during learning.

Rather than the overlapping of functions that L1 and TL fulfilled, Table Five also indicates varieties of both languages' use which are shown in three different ways. Firstly, L1 served a wider range of functions than that of TL, and particularly, these functions suggested a "genuine" use of the L1. "Genuine" use of the L1 is comparative to the teachers' TL use, and describes instances when teachers formulated sentences for themselves which naturally followed conversation-type language. It does not include teacher's repetition of language or expressions from the textbook. In contrast, the use of the TL involved translations of L1 utterances, reading the passage in the text or the questions of the listening tasks and multiple choices. TL use tended to be less complicated than that of the L1 use which might not necessarily have fulfilled the function intended, for example, scaffolding College English students in the interactions. In order to support this claim, as noted above, I initially attempted to count teacher-student interactions in the TL which occurred during the Integrated Course and Listening and Speaking Course to show that teachers' genuine TL use was significantly limited in frequency and complexity. However, there were several constraints in counting the occurrences of teacher-student interactions in TL. For example, English classes took place twice a week, one for the Integrated Course and the other for Listening and Speaking. Teachers sometimes mixed both in one class which did not allow me to accurately quantify teacher-student interactions on a subject basis. Further, the I-R-F (Initiation-Response-Feedback) was found to be extensively used in teacher-student interactions but turns within each interaction varied in the number of turns and the format (see Table Six). I decided to provide an in-text presentation of part of teacher-student interactions and intended to give readers a sense of why TL use was perceived as being simple in contrast to the L1 use.

Table Six: Teacher-Student Interactions in TL

T1	T2	T3	T4
T1: You learn English more than 10 years? How many years? Have you learnt English? (I) S1: 10 years. (R1)	T2: What does the writer want to tell us? Or show us something about the feeling? How about S5. （I）	T3: In what kind of order is the passage organized, time order or space order, or both?	T4: Ok, now the first, who can tell me how to fill in the blank? E.g., I was very…. (I) S: Impressed. (R)

S2: 11 years. (R2) T1: Ok, why do you learn English? What is the purpose of learning English? One by one. (I) S3: Improve myself. (R2) T1: Good job, improve yourself. Thanks. Next. (F) S4: No response. (R4) T1: Why do you learn English? (I) S5: Interests. (R5) T1: Interests, just for fun. How about you? (F+I) S6: Make friend. (R6)	S5: *The teacher was strange.* (R5) T2: A kind of strange. Why? (F) S5: "His head jerks wildly from side to side" … 'he takes a sip of coffee and looks thunderstruck". (R) T2: *What does this mean?*	Time order, space order, or both? (I) S: Both. (R) T3: Because, so last time, I mentioned three places or spaces. Do you still remember these three places? (F) S: School. (R) T3: Firstly, campus, right? That is from the 1st paragraph to which paragraph? (F)+ (I) S: Two. (R) T3: The first two paragraphs is actually a description of what happens on the campus (F)	T: Yes, very good. Impressed. (F).

(Note: S refers to the students of the whole class; numbered S refers to an individual).

As shown in Table Six above, I-R-F appeared to be extensively used in teacher-student interaction in College English classes. I-R-F was manifested in different ways by the four teacher participants. For example, T4 strictly applied the I-R-F where she herself took two turns to initiate the question and give students the feedback whereas students took one turn to respond T4's question. By contrast, the "F" turn seemed to be missing in the other three teachers' I-R-F and the "I" turn tended to be used for more than one student. For example, T1 started his turn with one question, but it served for two different students. In T3's and T4's classes, interactions tended to occur between them and the whole class, that is, one "I" and multiple "Rs". Interestingly, the "F" turn appeared to be not routinized from T3's and T4's classes which seemed to be provided at random. All these features of teacher-student interaction made it difficult to define the beginning and the end of one complete round of teacher-student interaction. Furthermore, subject classes tended to have an impact on the teachers' TL use. Teachers appeared to use TL more frequently in the Listening and Speaking Course compared to the Integrated Course (Table Seven). Teachers' TL use tended to be associated with pedagogical purposes. For example, T1's TL use in teacher-student interaction was found to be rarely related to text analysis which is an essential component in College English class. By contrast, her TL use was mainly related to "communicative

activities", and it can be seen from Table Six and Appendix Four (which lists all examples of teacher-student interactions in TL observed in College English classes). A full picture of TL use in interactions may be obtained by looking at all the examples in Appendix Four. In this chapter my aim is to give readers a sense of how much TL was used in interactions with students in College English classes. Therefore, I chose one class from the Integrated Course and one from the Listening and Speaking from all four teachers and counted occurrences of teacher-student interactions in TL. The results are presented in Table Seven below:

Table Seven: Occurrences of Teacher-Student TL Interaction in One Class.

	Integrated Course	**Listening and speaking**
T1	5	8
T2	2	1
T3	3	4
T4	7	7

In Table Seven, the numbers indicate occurrences of teacher-student interactions in the TL. It seems that most of the teacher participants used TL more frequently in the Speaking and Listening course. For example, there were five interactions in TL between T1 and her students in the Integrated Course whereas there were eight in the course of Listening and Speaking. By contrast, T3 and T4 tended to use TL at almost the same frequency. Table Seven shows the frequency of TL interactions in College English classes and Table Eight below shows examples of the interactions in the TL. Before proceeding to further analysis, it may be helpful to clarify that from a methodological point the challenge is that these results provide a snapshot in both cases. However, I did not reply on counting interactions as I found it not to provide a trustworthy reflection of the classes. In this, as in other examples of utterances, text in italics is translated from the teachers' and students' L1 utterances.

Table Eight: Examples of Teacher-Student Interactions in TL

	Column A	**Column B**	**Column C**	**Column D**
	T1	**T2**	**T3**	**T4**
Integrated Course	T1: That's it, you got it? I have told you this passage written in time order. So you know what is the first day in western country? S: Sunday. T1: Yes, Sunday. The week begins with Sunday	T2: I will ask someone to say something, S1. S1: No response. T2: How about your opinion on your dormitory? S1: It is on the first floor. It is equipped with air conditioner and wardrobe. In our dormitory, we cannot see view. One of the reasons I like the room, it has, have coin machine. T1: Ok, sit down, please	T3: Libraries which were once empty after five 'o clock. Have you found the place? S: Yes. T3: Have a quick glance of the long sentence here. "Libraries which were once empty after five	T4: Just like to look at it, the list of the new words, or something like important words you should know. You still remember some of them? S: No response. T4: Ambitious. That is what we had last time. There are two different meanings of ambitious.
Listening and Speaking	T1: are you finished? S: Yes. T1: Good job. Let's check answer. Maggie ___? S: Likes. T1: Yes, likes. She___? S: doesn't care for. T1: doesn't care for. She___?	T2: S1, could you say something about the first one? What do you think the question may be? S1: No response. T2: *What is question about?*	T3: So, theoretically speaking, what our parents need is what? No? How about you? S: No responsive. T3: Your parents need most from you is what? S: Company.	T4: Do you know bad weather? S: *Bad weather.* T : Bad weather. So, out of your mind means what? S: Crazy. T: Yes, crazy, to be crazy. *Bad weather.*

Table Eight shows examples of teachers' TL use in interactions with their students; TL was extensively used to fulfil the function of checking. For example, TL was used to check students' progress in completing the task in T1's class (Column A, Listening and Speaking class); T4 used TL to check whether students remembered vocabularies they learnt before (Column D, Integrated Course class) T3 used TL to check students' understanding of text-related knowledge (Column, C, Listening and Speaking class). Table Eight seems to indicate

that TL use merely served a function of checking in teacher-student interactions. In particular, I-R-F was found as a popular pattern of teacher-student interaction, and TL tended to be significantly used by teachers to initiate the interaction with questioning. Table Eight shows the frequency and the functions of TL use found in College English classes (Also see Appendix Four). In contrast, L1 was extensively used to fulfil a wider range of functions as seen in Tables Five, Six, and Seven. In addition, the extensive use of the I-R-F framework meant that students spent most of class time responding to teacher's questioning and rarely initiating their own speech. The next section explores the factors that potentially led to this situation. It begins by exploring the purpose of English learning and teaching.

5.2 Theme Two - Purpose of English Learning and teaching

An understanding of the goals of learning and teaching is essential to make sense of teacher's language use, and theme two focuses on the purpose of English learning and teaching at tertiary level. China adopted a top-down approach in development of the China's Foreign Language Education Policy (FLEP) (Hu, 2007), however the goals established may not have equally reached all institutions across China. As mentioned in Chapter One, there is serious regional disparities and various socioeconomic status in China (Bolton,2002; Crystal, 2008). And the FLEP plays a role of guidance which provides a framework for English teaching and learning at tertiary level across China. The "Framework" is developed with an acknowledgement of the diversities of regional socio-economic development and universities across China. This framework includes three levels of teaching requirements which are: Basic requirements; Intermediate requirements; and Higher requirements. Universities are relatively decentralized, and they are able to choose the level to guide ELT practice in accordance with their own realities. The purposes of English teaching and learning have been localized, and they should be acknowledged locally. Therefore, the local teachers' recognitions and interpretations of the FLEPs have become an important dimension to be considered. In the current study, Institution B applied the Basic requirements of ELT, and an understanding of the purpose of College English teaching and learning is important to make sense of teachers' language choice. Therefore, this theme will mainly draw on data arising from document analysis (DA), Classroom Observations (CO) and Teacher Interviews (T-Interviews) to demonstrate the impact that the purpose of English learning and teaching may have had on teachers' language choices. First, I start with a brief analysis of China's Foreign Language Education Policy (FLEP) along with the focus on developing students' communicative competence.

Three key documents issued regarding ELT in Higher Education are *College English Curriculum Requirement* 2004 (Trial), *College English Curriculum Requirement* (2007) and the most recently updated, Guidelines on College English Teaching (2015). The analysis will mainly refer to the *College English Curriculum Requirement* 2004 (Trial), *College English Curriculum Requirement* (2007) while the most recent Guidelines (2015) is available. These are the key national documents issued regarding ELT at tertiary level, and I intend to make a comparison of prescribed objectives in old versions of documents and the most recent one which could reflect how China's understanding of ELT evolved over the time and particularly the inclusion of developing students 'communicative competence' which nationally provided the rationale for the implementation of CLT in College English classes. Furthermore, it was found that the Speaking and Listening textbook was designed under the Requirement (2004/2007) whereas the Integrated Course textbook was designed under the Guideline (2015). Therefore, both old versions and the most recent one will be analysed.

College English Curriculum Requirement 2004 was a trial version of the one issued in 2007 and therefore, they were consistent regarding the objectives of English education which was illustrated in Excerpt Five:

Excerpt Five (Document Analysis, 2004/2007 Requirements):

Line	Statements
1	"*The objective of College English is to develop students' comprehensive ability to use English*
2	*in a well-rounded way. In particular, more attention needs to be paid to the development of*
3	*students' listening and speaking so as to enable them to communicate effectively in their future*
4	*studies, career and social life. At the same time, it is essential to develop students' capability*
5	*of self-learning and improve their comprehensive cultural competence so as to meet the needs*
6	*of China's social development and international communication*".

As seen in the Excerpt Five, the FLEP（2004/2007）explicitly stated that the development of students' speaking and listening proficiency was part of the goal of English education (Line 3). The development of Speaking was officially announced as the goal of ELT for the first time in *College English Curriculum Requirement* (2004/2007). Accordingly, teaching of Speaking was officially introduced with other five language skills, listening, reading, writing, translation and vocabulary (Appendix Five**).** As mentioned above, Institution B applied the Basic requirements guiding ELT practice. The teaching requirements of Speaking at basic level is demonstrated in Excerpt Six below:

Excerpt Six (Document Analysis, 2004/2007 Requirements):

Line	Statements
1	"Speaking: students should be able to communicate in English in the course of learning to
2	conduct discussion on a given theme, and to talk about everyday topics in English. They should
3	be able to give after some preparation, short talks on familiar topics with clear articulation and
4	basically, correct pronunciation and intonation. They are expected to be able to use basic
5	conversational strategies in dialogue".

According to the Excerpt Six, the teaching of Speaking aimed to develop students' capability in at least four aspects: discussion of certain themes in TL, talking about everyday topics, production of short talks with accurate pronunciation, and the use of basic strategic competence in dialogues. In Guidelines (2015), the concepts of "Communicative Competence" and "intercultural awareness" were explicitly raised as a part of the objectives of ELT and learning (Excerpt Seven):

Excerpt Seven (Document analyses, 2015 Guidance) :

Line	Statements
1	"*The objective of College English is to develop students' ability to use English and enhance*
2	*students' 'intercultural awareness and communicative competence. At the same time, it is*
3	*essential to……competence so as to enable students to use English effectively in their study,*
4	*life, social interaction and career and ultimately meet the needs of China, society, university*
5	*as well as students' own needs".*

The inclusion of the development of students' intercultural awareness as a part of the most recent objective aimed to enrich ELT in College English classes by moving from merely teaching linguistic competence to including the teaching of the culture of the TL. The development of intercultural awareness tends to be recognized as a means which expands ways for students to understand the world (Sellami, 2000), which enables students ultimately 'to meet the needs of China, society, university as well as students' own needs (Line4-5). To some extent, the inclusion of intercultural awareness in ELT is a sign that teachers should be ready to prepare College students for communication in the TL, because the pragmatic goal of developing students' intercultural awareness is to help students to use cultural components to communicate successfully with other speakers in TL (Byram, 1997; Fenner,

2008). In Guidelines (2015), the development of students' intercultural awareness and communicative competence are required at all levels of College English teaching. That is to say, Institution B should be in pursuit of the same goal as prescribed in FLEPs, thus the College English teachers should teach as required. However, the data collected from Institution B appeared to be less consistent with FLEPs regarding the objectives of developing students' speaking proficiency. For example, Excerpt Eight was an example taken from T3's introductory session of College English course. Once again, the use of italics denotes translation from Chinese.

Excerpt Eight (T3-Classroom Observation):

Line	T	Statement
1	T3	*The expression points and grammar from the text are the focus. This is true for all these*
2		*five units. This is true for all these five units. That is to say, whenever we finish a passage.*
3		*Whenever we finish the passage, you should have ability to notice some important points.*
4		*I mean language points or grammatical points. Point out some of these points for your*
5		*future use, for your future use. Especially when you write...So this is very important, you*
6		*are required to write a composition and do translation".*

As seen in the Excerpt Eight, T3 clarified that the focus of College English course included expression points and grammar (Line 1). This is consistent with teaching requirements prescribed in the *Requirements* (2004/2007) and the *Guidelines* (2015) (See Appendix Five). Furthermore, he stressed that the learning of expression and grammar was to prepare them for future use in writing and translation (Line 5-6). Similarly, the other three teachers expressed the same opinions, none of them associating grammar and expression with speaking and listening. What was more, none of teacher participants made it clear what the goal of the Speaking and Listening course was. The only occasion that listening and speaking were mentioned was in T4's interview. As she stated, "*Listening is important, because students needed more input so as to promote their output"* (T4-Interview).

T4 linked the speaking to listening which was the source of the input; she argued that it will ultimately help students with their speaking. She clarified the interrelation between the listening and speaking, but she did not make it clear how grammar and vocabulary learning which were the focus in the class observed would support the development of students' speaking and listening. In the College English class, five skills of language: reading, writing, speaking, listening and translation were designed to be taught separately. Integrated English stressed the development of students 'comprehension in reading, writing and translation

through the learning of texts; listening and speaking were taught separately. Grammatical competence tended to be associated with enhancements of skills such as reading, writing and translation. Listening and Speaking was an individual subject but speaking appeared to be marginalized. As observed, speaking sessions which appeared in the textbook were found not to be regularly practised, and the Listening and Speaking subject was condensed into the development of students' listening skills. Figure Six shows the interrelations of five skills in College English classes.

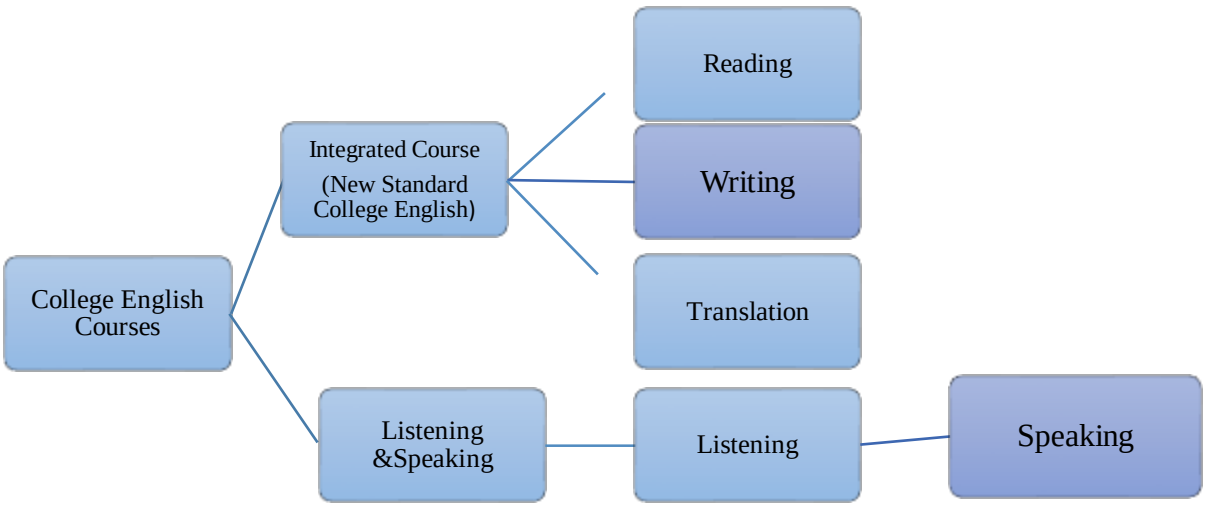

Figure Six Interrelation of Five Skills in College English Course.

A question needs to be asked why Speaking is marginalized when it has been officially prescribed as other language skills. This may an appropriate place to bring in the Layered Model developed in Chapter One (Figure One). I will draw on the Layered Model to identify potential factors that caused inconsistencies between the FLEPs and the local ELT practice in Institution B. That is, ELT practice in Institution B tended to pay least attention to develop students' speaking proficiency in College English classes even though it was officially a part of FLEPs.

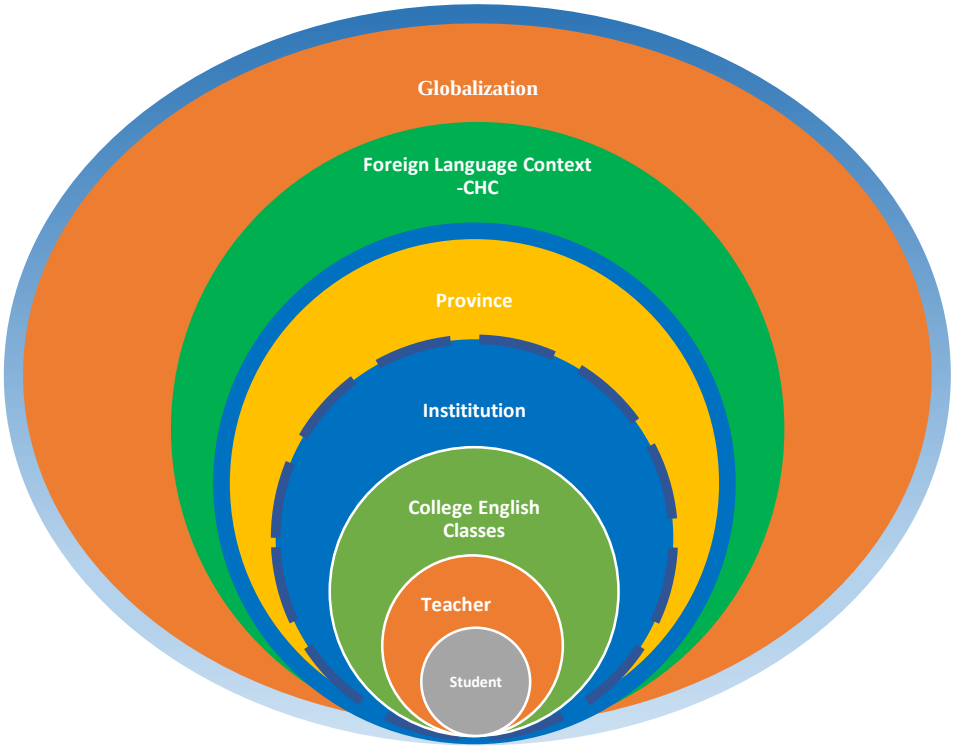

Figure Seven: Layered-Model of the Research Context
(Note: Wide and thick blue line referred to the gap exiting between layers.)

Table Nine: Summary of Layered-Model

Layer	Summary of Each Layer
Globalization	"Globalization has changed the conditions under which foreign language are taught, learned and used" (Kramsch, 2014).
CHC + Foreign Language Context	China is rooted in CHC which represents characteristics of "expectations, attitudes, values and beliefs about teaching and learning"; meanwhile, English is taught and learnt as a FL in China.
Provincial Level	Institution B is located in a particular province which has its own social, cultural, economic and educational features of development.
Institutional Level	Higher Education is generally divided into State-owned or government owned HEIs, including regular HEIs, Independent Institutions, and Higher Vocational Colleges. Institutions are also categorized by other criteria such as ranking, source of funding and so on. Each institution has its own character and strengths even if they are in the same province and these have led to substantial differences in ELT.
College English Classes	This layer was to distinguish participants as non-English major students from English-major students. It is related to classroom-level factors such as class size, resource availability and so on.
Teacher Level	The teacher plays a dominant role in College English classes; this layer is about teachers-related factors.
Student Level	This layer is student-related factors; it includes two aspects, and the first is related to the diversity of each individual student regarding their TL proficiency. It is also about the commonality of college students in Institution B in relation to their motivation and needs of English learning.

A brief summary of each layer was provided in Table Nine above; details of each layer have been given in Chapter One. Table Nine is to remind the readers of the scope of each layer. In accordance with the findings illustrated previously, I argued that FLEPs appear to not have influenced ELT practice in Institution B in terms of the development of students' speaking proficiency. Three layers were found to be more influential in shaping ELT practice than FLEPS which are the Institution Level, Teacher Level and Student Level.

The institutional layer describes the status of Institution B in China, and the understanding of the Institutional layer is essential in that the rankings of the university have shaped educational infrastructure which has led to varieties of universities across China. Ultimately, it led to differences in distribution of educational resources for ELT including funding, teaching facilities, teaching forces and students' academic ability. Furthermore, regional disparities constitute another important influence on the role of English on graduates' prospects. The growing demand for English proficiency from economically developed areas is likely to foster the development of local College students' communicative competence in contrast to that in underdeveloped areas. Therefore, the objective of English teaching and learning may vary among universities. It has been acknowledged by the MOE, and Guidelines (2015) classified the objectives of ELT in HE into three levels, details of which are demonstrated in Excerpt Nine:

Excerpt Nine :(Document Analysis, 2015 Guidance)

Line	Statement
1	"*China is a vast territory with imbalanced regional development. Universities vary*
2	*significantly from each other in terms of educational resources, students' academic ability and*
3	*institutional goal of education. Institutions in Higher Education should follow the principles of*
4	*providing classification guidance, teaching in accordance with students 'aptitudes and*
5	*showing the institutional unique features……Objectives of English education have been*
6	*classified into basic, intermediate and higher requirements. University is able to decide*
7	*objectives of English teaching according to their current situations".*

As mentioned previously, Institution B chose the Basic objective of ELT; this was specified in the syllabus of Institution B (Appendix Six). As required in the Guidelines (2015), the university chose the objective in accordance with the reality (Line 4-5). Institution B is a key comprehensive university which is co-administered by the MOE and local provincial government which implies that students have enrolled in Institution B with a relatively

competitive total score. However, no minimum score of English subjects is required, in other words, the total score of the student may not necessarily show the student's English proficiency. The Basic objective of ELT chosen by Institution B seems to imply that a sound ranking of the university and competitive enrolment score are not the only factors considered when the university chooses the level of the objective of ELT, and some other contextual factors tend to be more influential in determining the level of the objective of ELT.

For example, Institution B is located in Province A which plays a distinctive role in China's Higher Education (HE). It has established a particularly competitive HE context, and as a criterion to evaluate an institution's academic performance, the pass rate of College English Tests has become a strong motive behind ELT in Institution B. As a result, the teaching of CET4 tended to be taken as a priority. This tendency was inevitably enhanced when it was in line with students' needs. Furthermore, Institution B claims it is well-known for its traditional strengths in engineering and sciences that are integrated with contemporary popular disciplines such as medicine, economics, management, humanities, art, law and philosophy. However, English, has been taught and learned as a compulsory subject and the impact of English learning on graduates' prospects in the future appear not to be recognized by Institution B. Excerpt Ten is from an interview with T3 who acted in a dual role: a college English teacher and an administration officer in the English department. His statements, to some extent, reflect the position of the Institution B:

Excerpt Ten (T3- Interview):

Line	T	Statement
1	T3	"*English has… taught as an integral part of general Higher Education. University is*
2		*not able to decide how our students would use English in the future and students have*
3		*various purposes of English learning..provide a platform for them to learn English".*

From the perspective of Institution B, English has been perceived as a compulsory subject, and Institution B has to fulfil its responsibility to teach the subject (Line1-3). Students 'future use of English appeared to be not considered as a continuum of ELT at tertiary level, because the university was not able to meet all students' future needs of English learning (Line 2). Rather, English is taught as a subject and helping students to pass the College English tests appear to be the only thing Institution B promotes at this stage. A vision of equipping College students with communicative competence in English which allow them to engage in global competition was not found as part of the institutions' objectives of ELT. This may now be a good place to look at the Teacher's Layer regarding how they perceived the objectives of English teaching and learning.

Excerpt Eleven (T1-Classroom Observation):

Line	T/S	Utterance
1	T1	why do you learn English? …You learn English more than 10 years? How many years have you learnt English?
2	S1	10 years.
3	S2	11 years.
4	T1	Ok, why do you learn English? What is the purpose of learning English? One by one.
5	S3	Improve myself.
6	T1	Good job, improve yourself. Thanks. Next.
7	T1	Why do you learn English?
8	S4	Interests.
9	T1	Interests, just for fun. How about you?
10	S5	Make friend.
11	T1	Make friends, especially girlfriends.
12	S6	I want to speak to foreigners.
13	T1	..speak to foreigners and understand their language and ideas.. communication. Good answer.
14	S7	Postgraduate.
15	T1	Ok, good boy. You are think of postgraduate. How about you?
16	S8	Develop myself.
17	T1	Develop yourself and you?
18	S9	Improve yourself.
19	T1	Next one.
20	S10	Make more friends.
21	T1	Ok, thank you and next one.
22	S11	Go abroad.
23	T1	Go abroad. Right? Go to another country to study or to play?
24	S11	Study.
25	T1	To study. So, you see we learn English for various purposes and that is true. If you learn
26		English well, there are a lot of opportunities for you to make choice. Whether to go further
27		study or find good job. For me, I think, English is a window, is a bridge. A window for the
28		outside world, right? Language is a window, right? When you know another language, you
29		seem to open another window. You see a new world; you see completely different world.
30		… enjoy this world, to see different people, ..open your eyes…expand your eyes.
31		Empower college students, empower yourself, empower me of course. ……
32		English is not to let you know the new world, to improve yourself to find a
33		good job, this is how I understand why we need to learn English. English empowers your

34		life, give you power, to empower your life (End).

In Excerpt Eleven, it may be worth noting at the beginning that there were several errors in T1 and students' utterances in TL which were identified in transcriptions. No corrections were given, because these errors reflected the quality of TL use in the class. Excerpt Eleven is long but deserves in-text space in that it showed multiple purposes of English learning from both the teacher's and the students' perspectives. From T1's perspective, English learning opens a window to empower students to communicate with different people and learn about the world outside (Line 28-30). Similarly, students expected to communicate in TL to make friends and go abroad (Line 10, 12, 22). In this extract, English learning is related to students' needs for communication in real life. What is more, T1 associated English with opportunities and employment (Line 32-33) in the sense that students' English proficiency adds strength in obtaining good employment. In T1's follow-up interview, T1 clarified that "*students who can speak English well are likely to have more opportunities than those who is not capable of communicating in English*" (T1-Interview). That is to say, students' communicative competence is related to students' needs with a focus on employment. Excerpt Eleven implies the interrelation between students' communicative competence and their needs for either communication or employment in the future. However, what T1 said (Line 32-33) could have had another interpretation in China's context. That is, CET4 and CET6 determine students' employment in two aspects. Firstly, the score of CET4 and CET6 is seen as a proof of students' English proficiency, and a higher score may turn out to be the prerequisite for students to access further education to the Postgraduate section or obtain employment. This is the reason a majority of students chose to learn English from the Textbook I despite being eligible to start with Textbook II due to a higher score in the Placement Test. By doing so, they "*expected to obtain a higher score in the CETs which is important in further study and employment*" (Student-Interview). Secondly, CET4 used to be a requirement for the graduation, and students had to pass at least the CET4 so as to obtain a Bachelor's degree. At the time of data collection, the situation had changed and CET4 was no longer compulsory for students' graduation. The problem was the consequence of not passing CET4 remained unclear, and both teachers and students tend to not take risks. As a result, CET4 still tended to take priority in learning and teaching in Institution B. In addition, CET4 was still essential from the institutional perspective in that pass rate of CET4 was an indicator of quality of English education in Institution B. Excerpt Twelve has been taken from T2's interview which showsT2's stance was consistent with that of Institution B.

Excerpt Twelve (T2-Interview):

Line	T2	Utterance
1		"*Students' examination performance was an important criterion to measure students'*
2		*language proficiency… passing rate of CET4 and CET6 was an indicator of quality*
3		*of English education of the university".*

From Excerpt Twelve, it can be seen that T2 perceived CETs as means to assess students' TL proficiency (Line 1-2) and as an indicator of the quality of ELT in the university which ultimately had impacts on the rankings of the Institution B (Line2-3). It seems that not all teachers agreed with each other regarding the purposes of English learning; and they were not consistent with the institutional position. However, it may be clear that the development of student's communicative competence should be a part of the objective of learning even though the purposes of English learning and teaching appeared to be shaped principally by the exams and Institution B itself. In particular, as mentioned in Chapter One, Institution B had its strengths in the field of engineering which tended to determine the area of students' employment as well as how their English might be used in the future. As found in the students' interviews, the purpose of College English learning was to "*recognize the English vocabulary carved in components of the machine*" (Student -Interview). In this scenario, English appeared to be functionally used at a level of vocabulary which tended to be the view prescribed by Institution B.

The Excerpts above indicate that stakeholders as the Institution B, teachers and students had different views regarding the purposes of English learning. However, CETs appeared to be prioritized for all purposes as identified previously. The significance of students' communicative competence has been recognized, and it has also been officially confirmed as part of the goal of English teaching and learning at tertiary level. However, it turned out to be less important than CETs which was the common goal of all stakeholders. Pedagogically, the development of communicative competence was not shown as an objective in the College English classes observed. T3's response to a question about the way Institution B implemented national policy, can be in Excerpt Thirteen:

Excerpt Thirteen (T3-Interview)

Line	T3	Utterance
1		*Textbooks are in compliance with national language policy. We teach the textbooks,..*
2		"*this is how we implement the policy*".

In response to the question about the implementation of FLEPs, T3 clarified that the use of the textbook is to implement FLEPs. In order to help readers to make sense of how the use

of textbooks could ensure the realization of national objectives of English learning in research context, it is necessary to refer back to Chapter One which provided background information regarding the selection of College English textbooks. In China, publishing agencies and institutions are commissioned to develop new textbook series for the use in different parts across China. For example, textbooks used in my research site were produced by two different Presses: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press and Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.

New Standard College English is produced by Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press and Listening and Speaking is produced by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press. The objectives of these books were consistent with FLEPs in the sense that they were developed under the guidance of FLEPs. From the perspective of teaching and learning, textbooks provide teachers with guidance and activities; their use ensures consistency and progression in TL learning. In the case of the Institution B, Listening and Speaking was designed under the guidance of Requirement (2004/2007) whereas New Standard College English was produced under the guidance of Guideline (2015). As T3 stated, "new editions are often not about significant improvements to the content, but a reflection of the FLEPs" (T3-Interview). As noted above the Speaking and Listening textbook was designed under the Requirement (2004/2007) whose objectives were different from the objectives of Listening and Speaking prescribed in the Guideline (2015). It remains unclear how the time lag makes a difference in teaching Listening and Speaking, because teachers did not seem to be aware of the lag or the differences. As T3 said, the implementation of the FLEPs is to practise ELT according to textbooks commissioned by the MOE. There appeared to be inadequate reflection on FLEPs and its implementation in the Institution B.

Next, I will move to the analysis of discourse in the College English classroom. This section will start with Teacher Talk (TT), and specific attention will be given to teacher-student interaction. The reasons are three-fold. Firstly, classroom interaction is central to FL teaching and learning in the sense that it provides a means to closely understand interrelations between the EFL classroom and the local context. Secondly, the research question is to investigate factors influencing Chinese College English teachers' language use, and classroom interaction can be said to lie at the heart of addressing the research question. Thirdly, it may be a good place to explore in the purpose of ELT has and the goals of classroom discourse, defining what is meant by "English learning" in College English class.

5.3 Theme Two - Teacher- Student Interaction

Teacher-student interaction lies at the heart of English teaching and learning in the current study, because the College English class is perceived as a micro-context which is demonstrated as an individual layer in the Layer Model (Figure Seven) and is jointly constructed by teachers and students through their interactions. An understanding of teacher-student interactions is tied to the understanding of College English classes, and specifically, the effects of teacher's use of the L1 and TL on learning which can be realized through teacher-student interactions, and ultimately shape individual students' TL learning. In addition, patterns of teacher-student interaction reflect norms related to teacher-student relationships, and their roles and expectations accordingly in the class. It may be considered reasonable to assume that teachers draw upon cultural norms to organize classroom activities. Therefore, the examination of teacher-student interaction may bring insights into norms held in College English class and how it may influence teacher's use of the L1 and TL.

5.3.1 Initiation-Response-Feedback (I-R-F)

Initiation-Response-Feedback (I-R-F) is taken as the starting point to take a closer look at teacher-student interactions in College English classes, because the findings of the current study were consistent with the literature in the field of classroom interactions in EFL contexts (Nassaji and Wells 2000; Nikula 2007), which implies the frequent use of the I-R-F in classroom interactions. However, the data also revealed changes to the standard I-R-F pattern. In the standard I-R-F model, teachers always take two moves whereas learners take one. That is, the teacher initiates the interaction normally by posing a question, and the learner responds in a brief manner. Lastly, the teacher provides an evaluation or feedback to student's response (Hall &Walsh, 2002).

In the current study, I-R-F was found to be adapted by teachers to fulfil various pedagogical purposes. In particular, the "I" move was typified as questions which normally served at least two or more students' R moves.

5.3.2. Teacher Questioning

Findings generated from Classroom Observations indicate that discourse in College English classrooms is dominated by routines of teachers' questioning and students' answers. In

particular, the display question is found to serve a wide range of functions such as eliciting students' responses, checking students' comprehension and promoting participation.

5.3.2.1 One "I" and Several Rs

Excerpt Fourteen (T3-Classroom Observation):

Line	T	Utterance	Move
1	T3	... Merger *is he bin* (L1 equivalence). *How to translate into Chinese?*	I
2	Ss	No response.	R1
3	T3	*Anyone?* Acceptance of the offer is the first step to merger. Merger *means he bin* (L1 equivalence).	I
4	S1	*Acceptance is the first step to merger.*	R2
5	T3	*Accept what? (I2)*	I
6	S2	*Acceptance the "supply" is the first step to merger.*	R3
7	T3	*I asked someone else to translate it.* Offer *is a secondary school word. You don't know this word? Yes?*	F
8	S3	No response.	R4
9	T3	Be seated. Anyone?	I
10	S4	*Acceptance of agreement is the first step to merger.*	R5

The Excerpt Fourteen showed a translation activity where T3 sought L1 equivalence of an English sentence. As with other excerpts, the text in italics is translated from the teachers' and students' L1. Five responses were received (Line2, 4,6,8,10), and students' 'no response' appeared to be perceived as a type of response which implied a problem in translating the sentence (Line 2, Line 8). In particular, students' no response seemed to be a trigger for T3 to switch to L1 (Line 3). The switch to L1 implied an assumption that students had no idea of the meaning of "Merger" which caused difficulties in translation (Line 3). T3's L1 use tended to be a turning point in engaging students in the task-based interaction. Furthermore, T3's repetition of S1's answer (Line5) seems to imply that the objective is missing in the translation. This became a cue for S2 who managed to highlight the translation of "acceptance" in his answer (Line 6). Meanwhile, a few students were found to whisper in a lower voice, and T3's L1 use seemed to successfully elicit more students' participation into the task.

Except for the I-move, T3's task-relevant utterances were all in L1 (Line3, 5,7); in contrast, TL was used to give administrative instruction (Line 9). This was consistent with what was found previously in Table Five. Excerpt Fourteen revealed a pattern of T3's "I" move as a question was broken down into several small moves (Line 3, 5) in accordance with students' responses. Consequently, it served to elicit multiple responses from students. It was interesting to find that the "I" move tended to take the position of the "F| move. That is, after students' responses, T3 did not give them feedback and instead, he turned to other students.

This seems to imply his dissatisfaction of students' translations. In addition, it might be argued that L1 use prompted students' response. A similar pattern of I-R-F was found in T1's class and it is presented in Excerpt Fifteen below:

Excerpt Fifteen (T1-Classroom Observation):

Line	T	Utterance	Move
1	T1	Is ..Santa Claus in the world? My answer is No, because …or my answer is Yes, because... one by one, ready?	I move
2	S1	I will say, there is no Santa Claus.	R1
3	T1	There is or there isn't?	F
4	S1	There isn't.	R1
5	T1	There isn't S……	F
6	T1	(repeat the same question): Trust, belief, he is always with us. Good idea. The last one, S31.	I
……	S	….	R…
7	S31	I think there is a Santa Claus. Because we always have dreams of him when we are young.	R31
8	T1	In short.	T1
9	S32	There is Santa Claus.	S32R

Excerpt Fifteen was a communicative activity; T1 seeks students' opinion about Santa Claus. The interaction started with an open question in the TL within which the format of student's answer is predetermined by T1 (Line1). Then, it was followed by 32 students' responses in TL, but only one piece of feedback was given by T1 (Line 6). It could be argued that this was understandable in that 31 students responded only with yes or no and made no effort to provide feedback regarding their opinions. S31 justified himself (Line 7), however, he was interrupted by T1 and no feedback was given (Line 8). Excerpt Fifteen can be said to be similar to Excerpt Fourteen in that one "I" move served multiple students' "R" moves which seemed to provide equal opportunities for students' learning. The third turn of the teacher's feedback or evaluation appeared to be ignored. T1 had to control the length of students' responses (Line 8) so as to make sure all 32 students were able to practise speaking in TL. In this case, the examination of teacher talk will narrow down to the focus on the teacher's "I" move and particularly, the types of teachers questioning which were display questions and referential questions Teacher's Display Question.

As found previously, the "I" move in the current study was found to involve questions, and specifically questions seek for L1 equivalence appeared to be dominant. This type of "I

"move was found to lead to teachers 'extensive analytical L1 use which can be seen in italics in Excerpt Sixteen below:

Excerpt Sixteen (T4-Classroom Observation):

Line	T/S	Utterance	Move
1	T4	*How to understand this?* Better spare at the brim ..spare, what does it mean? Spare?	I
2	S	Kong xian (L1 equivalence)	R
3	T4	*Kong xian. How to use this word? Our kong xian shi jian is* spare time. Spare in this example is an adjective.	I+F

Excerpt Sixteen was a vocabulary-based exercise and the teacher asked for L1 equivalence. T4 started the conversation by using L1 to check students' knowledge of "spare", and then followed on using repetition in the TL (Line 1). Students responded straightforwardly (Line2), and T4 accepted the students' answer by repeating it and moving to the next task to analyse the property of "spare" as an adjective (Line 3). Two questions from T4's "I" moves were both display questions (Line 1, 3). The first question looked for the meaning of 'spare' (Line1), and the second question sought examples of the usage of the word. The L1 in questioning appeared to show that knowing the meaning of "spare" was important and was to attract students' attention. Previously, it was found that L1 use involved more complicated grammatical content than that in the TL. Considering the students' TL proficiency, it was also possible that T4 was aware of the complexities involved in the responses to her questions, and L1 in the questioning was used as a cue to students that they were allowed to respond in L1. A similar example is also found in T3's class, seen in Excerpt Seventeen, where all the dialogue took place in Chinese and is translated below:

Excerpt Seventeen (T3-Classroom Observation):

Segment	T/S	Utterance	Move
1	T3	*How to translate this part into Chinese?* "The passage is a story of, in Chinese?"	I
2	S	*In Chinese, the passage means.*	R
3	T3	*it is not the way how Chinese people speak. Just translated... English is good at the use of noun and preposition. How about Chinese?*	F
4	S	*Verb.*	R
5	T3	*Verb. You remember this but you are not able to use it. If you are constrained by the passage itself, it would affect your reading. "This passage is about", this translation is easy but it reflects the differences between Chinese and English. For example, you must encounter this structure in your reading. ...is home to….. Home here is a noun. It is home to could be organizing some events in Chinese language. It can have different translations according to the contexts. So from English to Chinese, you need to change the noun into a verb in Chinese language so as to meet the habit of Chinese language.*	F

Excerpt Seventeen was a translation exercise, and conversation started with L1 which asked students to translate a phrase (Segment 1). Excerpt Seventeen is similar to the Excerpt Sixteen in that both two teachers asked for L1 equivalence and started conversations with display questions in the L1. Searching for L1 equivalence seems to be an important means to check students' understanding in College English classrooms. T3's question in the L1 tended to raise students' attention to the difference between TL and L1 (Segment3), and specifically the way English often uses nouns and prepositions, whereas Chinese uses verbs to express the same meaning (Segment3, Segment5). By doing so, T3 appears to aim to stress that students should be aware of these differences in TL-L1 translation. It is also similar to Except Sixteen that both questions led to teachers' analytical language use in their turns for feedback. In Excerpt Sixteen, T4's feedback analysed the usage and property of "spare"; in this excerpt, T3's feedback was to highlight the point that English uses nouns and prepositions whereas Chinese uses verbs (Segment 5). In sum, if the teachers' "I" move came with the display question looking for L1 equivalence, it functioned as a trigger which elicited students' response, so as to check their knowledge of vocabulary and grammatical structure. The L1 use in questioning tended to focus students' attention on the knowledge tested by the question. Subsequently, it was likely to lead to further analysis in teachers' turn of feedback. At this point, L1 use implied the complexities of the analysis. The "complexities" do not only rely on the content of the analysis, but a wide variety of linguistic forms in L1 to express the meanings the teacher wished to convey.

As seen in the Excerpt Sixteen and Seventeen, this type of display question seemed to constrain not only students 'language choices but their responses which were only a few words. This pattern only allowed teachers to make basic evaluations of whether the students were considered as being right or wrong, and there appeared to be no space for teachers to make further evaluative comments. Instead, the teacher's feedback was an extensive analysis of the question, which seemed to deprive the exchange of information but instead resulted in a stereotypical type of interaction. The next section will look at referential questions.

5.3.2.2 Teacher's Referential Question

Excerpt Eighteen (T3-Classroom Observation)

Line	T/S	Utterance	Move
1	T3	you are shaking your heads means you don't agree with this. What is your argument?	I
2	S1	I think I don't think the difference is not…(hesitation)	R1
3	T3	You don't think the difference can't be avoidable. It can be avoided.	F

4	S1	*Differences could be avoided.*	R 2
5	T3	What is your opinion, just let me know? No. How about you?	I
6	S2	I think it is unavoidable.	R 3
7	T3	It is avoidable.	F
8	S2	unavoidable.	R 4
9	T3	Unavoidable. unavoidable implies that the differences will necessarily exist in a family.	F
10	S3	….	R 4
11	T3	*Be seated, please. I have another question. In this question, what does it mean by difference?* Do you think the difference between husband and wife are unavoidable. This difference means what? Yes?	I
12	S4	Character.	R 5
13	T3	Character? *What is reasonable meaning of* difference.. *in this context, give me an example with concrete* content	I
14	S4	S5: Different lifestyles.	R 6
15	T3	T3: Different lifestyles. Ok, good. Good, this answer is acceptable.	F

Excerpt Eighteen was an analysis of the text which was about the differences between couples. Once again, the L1 is highlighted by the use of italics. Before the conversation illustrated in the excerpt, T3 read opinions given in the textbook, which are not shown in this excerpt. The conversation started with a referential question in the TL which was asked for students' opinions (Line1). S1 hesitated to give a full response and he seemed to have difficulty to express the idea of "avoid" (Line2), then T3 provided scaffolding for S1 with the noun and adjective forms of the word (Line 3). The meaning seemed to be immediately apparent to S1 and he successfully expressed his opinion although he switched to L1 (line4). T3 seemed to be satisfied with S1's response and moved to S2 (Line 5). S2 responded to the question with a brief answer (Line 6). The purpose of the conversation appeared to focus more on fluency than meaning of communication, and T3's feedback merely entailed repetition and clarification of students' responses (Line 3, 9). It seemed to be clear that the referential question served its purpose to elicit S1's and S2's opinions about the topic. In response to either display questions or referential questions, students' responses were simple and brief.

T3 further moved to extend S2's response and the reformulation of his question marked a new phase of the interaction (Line 9, Line 11, Line 13) aiming to provoke students' thinking and leading to a deeper involvement in the interaction on the part of students (Line 12, Line 14). However, T3 seemed not to be satisfied with S4's answer (Line 12), as he switched to L1 to elaborate his question (Line13). T3's elaboration could be perceived as a successful move which allowed S4 to give a concrete example (Line 14), but it could also be argued that this implied that T3 was in control of S4's response even though he asked a referential question. T3 paraphrased his question in L1 rather than asking for S4's clarification of

"character" in the TL. To some extent, it could be argued that S4's response indicated a sense of testing, which was to try out whether his own ideas met T3's expectations.

It seemed that the referential questioning extended T3's turns to get his meaning through by either reformulating the question or elaborating it in L1. This may have been to allow more students to get involved in the interaction, which is conducive to language learning (Mackey, 2006). However, the referential question was not able to elicit fuller and more complex responses from students. As seen in the excerpt, the time and freedom needed to produce a more complex response was not given to students. T3 left no waiting time for students to make a plan of how to answer the question and verbalize the answer. Furthermore, S4 attempted to respond according to his understanding of the text, but T3 gave further prompts to direct S4's response (Line 13).

In addition, it appeared as if T3 had the assumption that S4 failed to provide a desirable answer due to his misunderstanding of the question. The decision to use L1 to elaborate his question tended to be made on the basis of his assumption instead of S4's response. A similar example was also found in T4's classroom.

Excerpt Nineteen (T4-Classroom Observation):

Segment	T/S	Utterance	Move
1	T4	Question 4, why do you love and respect your parents? Why? How do you answer this question? what would you say about that? Do you think we should love and respect our parents?	I
2	S1	Yes	R
3	T4	Yes, and why? *We can answer this question from different perspectives*. First, what is your relationship with your parents? How did you come to the world? How did you come to the world? Do you remember your birthday? Yes, so first, we can say, parents give our lives. They give birth to us, and then, how did you grow up? How did you grow up? You grow up by yourself (Laughing).	F
4	S1	Take care.	R
5	T4	yeah, taken care by your parents. So that is to say, *they yang yu wo men zen me shuo (L1 equivalence to bring up)?* They?	F
6	S	Bring up.	R
7	T4	yeah, very good, bring up or raise. *Raise is ok which is similar to bring up.* Bring up, they give us the life; they bring us up, they raise us. And also, how about anything more? When you go to school? Do you need money to go to school? Do you need food? Do you need food to support your life? So we can say, they support us. …	F

Excerpt Nineteen was an analysis of the text whose topic was about the love and respect to parents. Translation of the L1 can be seen in italics. The conversation started with a referential question in TL (Segment 1), followed by a series of relevant questions. This process appeared not only to establish a context for the questions, but also gave more time to students to formulate their responses. T4's turn ended up with a shift from the referential question to a display one (Segment 1) which consequently minimized students' response

(Segment 2). Similarly, T4 broken the question down into several sub-questions which were relevant to the main idea in her next turn (Segment 3). These sub-questions seemed to reduce potential complexities and provide a framework for the students' response. This was consistent with T4's instruction in L1 which encouraged students to answer the questions from different perspectives (Segment 3). T4 highlighted the different perspectives of the answers in the first instance, offering guidance in the form of de-composed questions and finally guiding the students to the answers. Meaning was negotiated even though it was only at the word level on the students' parts (Segment 2, 4, 6). In this interaction, T4's TL use was based on the topic whereas the L1 was used to give instruction to guide students' thinking from different perspectives. In addition, this excerpt implies that the referential questioning in the TL came with repetition of the teacher's utterance (Segment 3, 7). T4 took up students' space in the interaction causing an unbalanced contribution as seen in this excerpt. However, from T4's perspective, if she did not repeat, "*students would not understand the question in TL and know how to answer them*" (T4-Interview). Similar results were also found in T3's class and his utterances involved a large number of repetitions in both TL and L1. His response was similar to that of T4, which was, that referential questions were difficult for students, and repetition and reformulation of the referential questions aimed to aid students' comprehension.

5.3.3 Teacher's Feedback

Another key component of the I-R-F structure is teacher's feedback. In previous analysis of teacher questioning, it was found that the teacher's feedback turn appeared to be ignored in situations where one question served multiple responses. When communication had broken down, teachers' feedback was given to feed students with a missing word or phrase to sustain the flow of communication. More than has been reported in the excerpts so far, teacher's feedback was found to involve praise, content feedback and form-focused feedback. An example was given in Excerpt Twenty below, where the teacher's use of L1 is in italics and translated into English

Excerpt Twenty (T4-Classroom Observation):

Line	T/S	Utterance	Move
1	T4	…you to give me the standard.. what is your standard in choosing your future wife?	I
2	S1	Character is the most important.	R
3	T4	Character? What kind of character do you think is good for your ideal wife?	F+I
4	S1	……	R
5	T4	the language focus..*look at page 29, 23there are plenty of adjectives describing one's characters.. human's characters*	F+I

6	S2	Firstly, I think, at first, we must love and I think…have problems in *what* ? his tem, temper….	R
7	T4	Temperament, *temperament, do you want to say this word?*	F
8	S2	*Yes.*	R
9	T4	You mean some shortcoming or weakness in temperament.	F
10	S2	Yes.	R
11	T4	So can you give several words to describe the character?	I
12	S3	Outgoing.	R
13	T4	Yes, outgoing. Any other words?	F+I
14	S3	Warm-hearted.	R
15	T4	Yes, very good. Thank you… We need a lot of words to describe people'……	F

Excerpt Twenty was a pre-task of discussion in the textbook which aimed to help students to get familiar with the topic of the text. T4's feedback started with seeking S1's elaboration (Line 3). S1 seemed to have difficulties in responding, but T4 did not provide the vocabularies directly. Instead, she took her turn to suggest where S1 could find the reference (Line 5). T4 worked hard to help S2 to express his ideas by feeding him with the vocabularies (Line 7) and clarifying his response (Line 9). It seemed that the teacher's feedback involved a sort of support to enable the student's response. Excerpt Twenty-One provides an example of how appropriateness is defined.

Excerpt Twenty-One (T1-Classroom Observation).

Line	**T/S**	**Utterance**
1	T1	We meet for the first time, what we say?
2	S1	How do you do?
3	T1	Good. How do you do? What is your response? How do you react? How do you do?
4	S2	Pretty good.
5	T1	Pretty good. How do you do?
6	S3	Good and thank you.
7	T1	Good. How do you do?
8	S4	Pretty good.
9	T1	How do you do?
10	S5	not bad.
11	T1	You forget what you learnt in high school. *You forget what you learnt in high school.* How do you?
12	Ss	How do you do!
13	T1	How do you do! Nice to meet you!

Excerpt Twenty-One was a communicative activity aiming to practise fluency of students' spoken English. At the beginning of the class, T1 introduced the focus of the class which was to practise students' spoken English, more specifically, the topic of "greeting" each other. However, T1's use of the language may be not appropriate to communicative pedagogy at College level. Particularly, she tended to limit students' responses to "how do you do" (Line5, Line 11), which became a stereotyped exchange with phatic value. Despite T1 expressing her concerns that students in the class had relatively low TL proficiency, they appeared to be capable of managing the greeting in TL as they are College students who have studied English over 10 years. What is more, T1 tended to confine students' responses

to “how do you do” (Line 11, 12), and her control of students’ responses led to a situation where students repeatedly addressed different classmates by using the same prescriptive TL expression Excerpt Twenty-One showed a form-focused interaction in communicative disguise, which helped students practise drills in a simple situation with a focus on greeting. The teacher’s control of students’ responses interrupted the natural flow of the communication.

Teachers’ feedback is central to learning in the sense that it shapes students’ contributions, and the findings imply that teachers’ feedback is more frequently given in the form of paraphrasing or summarizing students’ responses or simply accepting them without comment. Furthermore, teachers’ feedback tended to imply teachers are in control of the interaction which imposed restrictions on the students’ response. As a result, interactional space for students turns were limited. In addition, the interaction space was narrowed down in the sense that insufficient time was given to students to allow them to think and formulate a fuller and more complex response. Lastly, teachers expected to give all students opportunities to engage in interaction, with the result that a majority of students might take only one turn of response in the interaction. It seems that an extended turn is essential to sustain the process of negotiating the meaning, because students’ responses were simple.

5.3.4 Subject-Related Interaction

In this section, the interaction related to the teaching of listening is presented, and this section emerges due to its unique interactional features which entail large amounts of teacher monologues in L1 and an absence of students’ response. Further, it was also found the different modes were used in instructions of listening.

As illustrated in the textbook, the purpose of the listening course is to develop students’ listening comprehension and particularly the ability to identify key information in the passage. Specifically, the pedagogic goal of listening includes the development of students’ strategies in coping with listening tasks and this has become a standard feature of most modern listening courses (Renandya & Farrell, 2011). In China’s context, listening is an essential component of CET4 and CET6, and teaching of listening strategies is seen as essential in the sense that listening comprehension involves a complex and active process within which students are required to discriminate between sounds, understand vocabularies and grammatical structures (Vandergrift, 1999). Co-ordinating all of this involves a high level of difficulty in cognitive terms (Ridgway, 2000), and the teaching of listening strategies has become an essential part of the College English class. It was found that teachers tended

to deliver a monologue in the L1 to set up the listening task at the beginning of the lessons. Examples are presented in Excerpt Twenty-Two and Twenty-Three below, with the translated L1 in italics:

Excerpt Twenty-Two (T4-Classroom Observation):

Line	T4	Utterance
1		now, are you ready? *In listening, you can take some notes about what you heard. Taking*
2		*note while you were listening to recording was a good way to practise listening. Remember*
3		*this point and note-taking in listening process was important.*

Excerpt Twenty-Three (T4-Classroom Observation):

Line	T4	Utterance
1		… a topic sentences. *When we did Listening Comprehension, we should identify the topic*
2		*sentence. (For example) there were* quite few things. *When you heard* quite few things,
3		*you should be aware that there would be a list of things.*

Excerpt Twenty-Four (T4-Classroom Observation):

Line	T4/S	Utterance
1	**T4**	But real life is not___? It is not what? Recording played
2	**S**	Fairy tale.
3	**T4**	It is not romantic fairy tale. (Recording played) Fairy tale, what does it mean? *童话故事*, not a romantic fairy tale. Next.
4	**T4**	How could the marriage be happy and healthy? If the couple? (Recording Played)
5	**T4**	If they could what____?
6	**S**	Resolve the disagreement.

The interaction in Excerpt Twenty-Four involved a listening task. As seen in the excerpt, the interaction follows an I-R-F mode, but it is different from the I-R-F identified previously in terms of interactional features. For example, the teacher's turn functions as both feedback to the students' response and initiation of the next (Line3). Students' contributions are made in response to the listening task (Line2, Line 4). The interactional space seems to be limited, because the interaction is organized exclusively around the task, and neither the teacher not the students talk beyond the topic. From a pedagogical perspective, this interaction could be perceived as providing phrases to fill in the blanks (Line1, Line 3). Key phrases are elicited,

confirmed and displayed by the teacher's echo. The students' contribution is bounded by the task.

5.4 Summary of the Chapter

In this Chapter, it was found that L1 use served a wide range of purposes in College English class. By contrast, TL use was constrained, and few occasions of a teacher's genuine TL use, that is in a meaningful conversation-type mode, were evident. Broadly, the teachers' language tended to be associated with the purpose of English teaching and learning in the College English class which is principally for preparing students for the CET4 and CET6. Nonetheless, the functional use of English and importance of developing students' communicative competence have been acknowledged by stakeholders such as the MOE, teachers, students and Institution B. The development of students' speaking proficiency appeared to be minimised at the expense of the development of other four language skills. The importance of speaking proficiency had been undermined, because it was not foreseeable how speaking proficiency could make a difference in real life if it was not academically assessed**.** Consequently, a traditional teaching mode was found in the class. For example, I-R-F was found to be extensively used in teacher-student interaction. More specifically, display questions were used more frequently than referential ones, which were mainly to test students 'grammatical knowledge. Referential questioning was also found in the College English class, but it was either broken down into several display questions or reformulated by teachers in the students' L1 to ensure students' comprehension and participation. From the teachers' perspectives, they had to make their language simple and clear for students to understand what they have to learn and what they do. Only in this way, according to the teachers, are students likely to participate in classroom interactions and activities. According to students' responses found in the data, it seems to make sense for teachers to do so. However, it remains unclear how learning actually occurs, because teachers' feedback appeared not to be given on many occasions. If the purpose of L1 and simplification of TT was to elicit students' responses or give them opportunities to "open their mouth" to speak English, it is perhaps appropriate to do so. As seen, one question served to elicit multiple students' responses; teachers' simplification and L1 use appeared to aid students' comprehension and successfully elicit students' response. But it could be argued that College English learning is far more complicated than this. In particular, TT in the current study was found to be repetitive, monotonous, less 'genuine' and the I-R-F sequence was followed which gave teachers more turns and talk. Limited opportunities for successful genuine communication were created and the teacher was in control of the learning, teaching

and the whole College English class. Their decisions were found to be made not only based on moment-by-moment interactions, but assumptions regarding teaching, learning and their students, the accepted norms of teacher-student relationships, familiarity and stability in the classroom life. The next theme that emerges is the need to look at findings relevant to teachers' beliefs.

6.0 Introduction

My research question aims to explore factors that affect Chinese teachers' use of the L1 and TL in College English classrooms. The findings discussed in the previous chapter suggest that teacher's decisions regarding the use of L1 and TL are not always on moment-by-moment basis. Teachers' beliefs appear to be influential in determining their language use, particularly, beliefs about teaching and learning. The findings suggest that College English students and the institution are found to be considered first by teachers when they make a language choice. These findings align with Graham (2011) and Levine (2003) who suggest that teachers' beliefs are mainly derived from and influenced by sources including the institution, teachers' past experiences of English learning. All the teachers in my study said during the interviews that they have positive attitudes towards the exclusive use of the TL. However, their views regarding the feasibility of exclusive TL use in College English classes tend to always come with a "but" afterwards, which reveals a gap between teachers' beliefs and the reality of College English classes. Therefore, the scope of teacher's beliefs in current study is found not only to relate FL teaching and learning, the use of the TL and L1, but their beliefs in terms of local contextual factors which may inhibit or facilitate their use of TL.

Four themes will be explored in this chapter including teachers' beliefs regarding FL teaching and learning, students' TL proficiency and the teacher's role, norms of English teaching, and local context. In the first section of the chapter the theme of teachers' beliefs is to be discussed. In this chapter, the key sources of data were derived from Classroom Observation (CO), and teachers' interviews (T-Interview). I will use abbreviations shown in the brackets to present the source of data (NB. all excerpts are numbered in a continuous manner).

6.1 Theme One - Teacher' Beliefs

I will explore the teachers' beliefs, particularly the functions of teachers' beliefs about FL learning, their roles as teachers and their students' roles and proficiency, and the institution they work in. Therefore, two sub-categories will be developed under the theme of Teachers' Beliefs, which are teacher's beliefs about language learning, and teacher's beliefs about student's TL proficiency.

6.1.1 Sub-theme One - Teacher's beliefs about Language Learning

The first sub-theme to emerge is the teachers' beliefs regarding how language should be learned. In the analysis of extracts from Classroom Observations, a similar response about learning is found was made by three teacher participants - that is, "Practice Makes the Perfect" (T1, T3, T4-Classroom Observation). This quotation is particularly used when giving advice to students regarding how to learn English. This sub-theme will focus on identifying responses to the following questions: What does "Practice Makes the Perfect" actually refer to when stated by teacher participants? How does this belief impact on their pedagogical decisions? And how might it influence students learning? Responses to these questions will provide an insight into College English teachers beliefs in terms of language learning and how they influence their teaching practice. To explore the meaning of "Practice Makes the Perfect", I draw on an example taken from T1's class which is shown in Excerpt Twenty-Seven below:

Excerpt Twenty-Seven (T1- Classroom Observation):

Segment	T/S	Utterance
1	T1	T1: Detecting, detecting incomplete plosion. Plosion is *bao po. Plosion is what we known as aspiration, right?* B-p-d-g. What does it mean by incomplete plosion? *What does it mean by incomplete plosion?* In connecting speech, the classic consonant like b-p-d-g is followed by another consonant, it is not fully pronounced. This is incomplete plosion. What does it mean?
2	S1	*Incomplete plosion.*
3	T1	What does it mean?
4	S1	*Incomplete plosion is incomplete plosion.*
5	T1	Why does it call incomplete plosion?
6	S1	*It is light, no air through. Complete plosion is stronger*
7	T1	*Ok, good idea. Thanks, the boy get the point. It is the point. It is no air. It is because b,p,d,g were produced by releasing the air. If we constantly released the air, we would not have any left. What should we do? We should weaken the sound previous. Weaken the sound. Sometimes, he looked like producing the sound, but he did not, because he had no air left, no air left.* Let's get an example. First one, top student, top student, top student. *I said,* top, "p", *then* "s", student. *Two aspirations, what should we do*? Top student, *when you pronounce the* "p" *sound, your mouth shape should be like this.* Top student, top student. Ok, read after me, top student.
8	S	Top student.
9	T1	Top student.
10	S	Top student
11	T1	Second, great one. The sound "t" is not fully pronounced.
12	S	Great one.
13	T1	Great one.
14	S	Great one.

(Italics refer to teacher's and student's L1 use, and non-italic text refers to teacher's and student's TL use)

Excerpt Twenty-Seven is an example of T1's introduction of incomplete plosives. Both L1 and TL were used in the interaction between T1 and students. Therefore, as shown in the excerpt, both T1's and students' utterances in L1 are italicised so as to distinguish from their

use of the TL. Excerpt Twenty-Seven starts with a definition of incomplete plosion and rule of articulation (Segment1, Segment 7 in italics (L1). Then, the target sound segment is taught through drills of isolated phrases (Segment 7 to Segment 10, Segment12 to Segment 14). T1's instruction mainly involves the descriptions of what incomplete plosive sounds like and how to produce the plosive sound (Segment 7). T1 spent a lot of time explaining the incomplete plosive sound (Segements,1,3,5,7), and it seems to prepare students with an understanding of the place of articulation (bilabial, alveolar, velar), and the manner (voiced, voiceless) in preparation for the following practice of repetition drills.

If the purpose of Excerpt Twenty-Seven is to teach how to pronounce incomplete plosive, T1's definition appears to be insufficient (Segment 1). Firstly, it only includes four of six plosive sounds - t, and k are missing from the stated b p d g (Segment 1). The problem is these two missing sounds have contrastive value regarding the manner of articulation as t-d and k-g. They are distinguished from each other according to place of articulation (alveolar, velar), and their manner of articulation (voiceless, voiced) which is also missing. Secondly, T1 describes "b-p-d-g" as consonants (Segment 1) rather than plosive consonants, and apparently, these two terms refer to two different concepts. Specifically, a plosive consonant is one type of consonant. Thirdly, T1 attempted to explain what the incomplete plosion is by making reference to its literal meaning (Segments 3,5,7), which seems to be too abstract to learn about articulation of the plosive sound. T1's explanation (Segment 7) appears to show she has inadequate knowledge of incomplete plosion in terms of its definition and articulation. At least, what T1 said was not sufficient for the students to produce the incomplete plosive sound. In my field note, I described the students' responses in the following way - "they hesitated, and not many students murmured" (T1-Field Note). As a result, T1 had to model the sound for the students' imitation and drills (Segments 8 to10, 10 to12). T1's L1 use in this excerpt is consistent with the literature which indicates that L1 is used in explaining language rules (Copland & Neokleous, 2011). However, T1's modelling appears to be a compromise solution to her explanation. In order to find out the reason why T1 shifted from explanation of the incomplete plosive sound in L1 to the modelling (Segment 7), I posed a question about "reading after me" in T1's interview. The interview excerpt is shown in Excerpt Twenty-Eight:

Twenty-Eight (T1-Interview):

Segment	R/T	Utterance
1	R	*I noticed the "read after me" activity in your classes and do you have any considerations in applying this activity*?

2	T1	*"Read after me", if not, how do students "open their mouth" [practice speaking English]. It is firstly a traditional way of teaching. I do not realize it if you do not ask about it. This is a really particular traditional teaching technique. Like our Chinese people, we learn Chinese, and we learn Three Character Classic*.
3	R	*Read after the teacher. Teacher read one sentence and we followed.*
4	T1	*Yes. Read after the teacher. Now, I am learning Russian, and I do the same thing. If we do not have target language environment, we do not have choices but imitation, imitation is the best way to learn. If you are in TL environment, you imitate people around and you also produce output.*
5	R	*So, you mean, "read after me" is a compensation for the lack of exposure to the TL and it is a stimulus for students' output. Is this what you mean*?
6	T1	*Yes, I believe so*.

(R refers to the researcher)

As seen in Excerpt Twenty-Eight, the rationale behind the repetition drills is in the hope of providing students with opportunities to practise oral English (Segment 2). From T1's view, modelling is a traditional teaching technique and seems to be applied without a need to justify herself regarding how it may help with learning these sounds. T1 explains that it is because this is a way how Chinese and Russian language are learnt (Segments 2 and 4). It seems that T1's personal learning experience had an impact on the use of repetition drills in her class (Segment 4). Further, she believes that imitation is the best way to learn foreign languages (Segment 4). In particular, she stresses that imitation, to some extent, is a compensation for the lack of exposure to the TL environment (Segment 6). In addition, the approach seems to be popular among the students. During my observation of the class, I noted in my Field Notes that the students actively participated in the repetition of drills, and at that moment, it appeared that "students are so well motivated and follow T1 with enthusiasm" (Field Notes). Combined with the evidence shown in Excerpt Twenty-Eight, it is reasonable to argue that the extensive use of repetition drills in T1's class is a result of T1's personal experience of learning and students' preference of repetition drills. Its implementation may not necessarily involve consideration of the effectiveness of this approach in developing students' oral English.

The activity "read after me" sets up a model for students' learning; "Practice Makes Perfect" in this context could be interpreted as students' repetitions of teacher's modelling in TL. However, repetition of drills tends to be demanding on teachers, because it puts significant stress on the correctness and accuracy of the teacher's TL. If the teacher's modelling is inaccurate, the follow-up repetitions of drills could render the method being used as inadequate and even lead to counter-productive negative effects on the students' learning. One of consequences could be that students do not learn from teacher's modelling even

though there appears to some by-product effect emerging such as students' enjoyment of repetitions of drills, which are not necessarily a sign of their learning.

In summary, Excerpt Twenty-Eight suggests that the teacher's personal learning experience is a factor shaping her beliefs in terms of language learning. Further, repetition of drills seems to meet the students' expectation of how language should be learnt, and it evokes their active participation. It may be a taken-for-granted assumption that modelling with correctness and accuracy is essential in drills which makes learning possible and appearing to meet perfect via practice beliefs. However, T1 only referred to the efficacy of repetition drills from her point of view as a learner rather than as a teacher. Consequently, a key point is missing. Successful student learning via repetition drills is principally determined by her subject knowledge of phonetics, and her modelling of accurate incomplete plosive sound. As seen in the excerpt above, T1's knowledge of the plosive sound appears to be inadequate as the definition and articulation of the sound remain unclear. This led me to argue that repetition drills will not effectively facilitate students' learning when the accuracy of teacher's modelling is not guaranteed. In other words, "Practice Makes Perfect" comes into question if the modelling is not accurate.

However, what has been discussed above does not mean that use of the authentic material which provides students with accurate pronunciation will necessarily guarantee successful learning. In my data collection, I found that the only occasion involving authentic TL was the Listening Course which entailed audio recordings of listening tasks following the textbook. Excerpt Twenty-Nine is an example taken from T4's listening class:

Excerpt Twenty- Nine (T4 Classroom Observation):

Line	T/S	Utterance
1	T4	(Recording was played) second time, *pay attention to the latter half.* W (Recording was played) Would be? Would be ...rather than?
2	S	Exception.
3	T4	Yes, exception, rather than?
4	S	Rule.
5	T4	Rather than the rules. Rule. (Recording was played)
6	T4	Most happen? (Recording was played) : Most happen?
7	S	By accident only.
8	T4	Yes, most happens by accident only.

Excerpt Twenty-Nine demonstrates a listening task which requires students to fill the gaps in sentences. The full sentence is "I believe in most such cases, cause and effect relationship would be (an exception) rather than a (rule). It mostly happens (by accident only)". As seen in the excerpt, the sentence is decomposed into smaller fractions which only require students to fill the blank with an individual word or phrase (Line2, Line 4, Line 7). The recordings were repeated a few times until the students could automatically match the sound and the spelling to fill in the blanks. This is another form of the repetition drills, but they are combined with the decomposition of the listening material.

In dealing with the task 'filling-the-gap', there may be different strategies. Excerpt Twenty-Nine reflects T4's structural view of language in that students' responses are pyramidally structured from the vocabularies to phrases and finish with the level of a full sentence (as in Line 2, 4 and 7). The rationale underpinning is a view of structuralism which perceives language as a system of structurally related components including phonological units, grammatical units, grammatical operations and lexical items (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). A similar view was found in T3's class which is illustrated in Excerpt Thirty:

Excerpt Thirty (T3 Classroom Observation):

Line	T3	Utterance
1		Whenever they meet something that is useful for the writing, they will take it down. They
2		will note it down for future use, for future use. So, I suggest everyone should cultivate such
3		habit in your English learning, Day by day, you will become an excellent writer. You will
4		become an excellent writer. Keep on doing this, your writing will improve.

Excerpt Thirty is taken from the observation of T3's class in the Integrated English Course. The topic was about writing, and T3 attempted to give advice to the students by sharing writing habits of successful writers (Lines 1-2). As seen in the excerpt, "they" (Line 1) refers to successful writers, and "something" (Line 1) refers to grammatical points, vocabularies and phrases. T3 does not clarify what he meant by "something" in the excerpt. However, students seemed to share a common understanding with T3 and realized that "something" referred to grammatical points, vocabularies and phrases. As shown in my Field Notes, this was not the first time T3 advised that students should accumulate grammatical points, vocabularies and phrases for their future use. This approach was noted twice in the Field Notes taken during the previous observations of T3's classroom. In one of T3's interviews, he indirectly touched upon this point by claiming that "*writing will not be improved*

immediately, and it requires students to accumulate day by day" (T3-Interview). In a previous interview, T3 emphasized the accumulation "for future use" and "day by day" which is consistent with the view of education from a Confucius cultural perspective within which education is traditionally perceived as a process of knowledge accumulation (Hu, 2002).

The quotation of "Practice Makes Perfect" has been realized through the extensive use of teacher's modelling and follow-up repetition drills in English teaching. In spite of several concerns regarding its efficacy in learning, it seems to be pedagogically and culturally appropriate in College English context. From a pedagogical perspective, the teaching approach dominantly used by teachers is The Audiolingual Teaching Approach which reflects behaviourist learning theory as it mainly entails a pattern of teacher's stimulus and student's responses. This pattern underpins various pedagogical tasks observed from the learning of phonetics, fulfilling the listening task, to analysis of grammar. Learning underpinned by behaviourism tends to be taken-for-granted, because a mixture of lecturing, modelling and demonstration, and choral repetition are predominantly used in College English classes. From a cultural perspective, learning has been traditionally perceived as a process of 'accumulating knowledge' (Hu, 2002: 97). In particular, the basics are essential in this process, and that is, "being creative or artistic can only happen later after precise mastery of basic form" (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006). In English learning, the basics refer to smaller units such as vocabulary and phrase. The mastery of vocabulary and phase is viewed as the premise of successful learning of language. Further, teachers' modelling role inherently exists in Chinese culture which perceives the teacher as a model of moral behaviour and an expert who has knowledge and skills (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006). Teacher modelling role is seen as crucial in that students have to learn from them, and they are the source of learning. Teachers' modelling appears to be not only a teaching technique but understood as morality in teaching profession. In spite of a teacher's personal experience, the culture of learning and pedagogical appropriacy having an impact on teachers' beliefs of learning and their teaching practice in College English class, students' TL proficiency was also found to be a factor influencing the teachers' pedagogic decisions. The evidence of this claim is discussed in the next section.

6.1.2 Sub-theme Two - Teachers' beliefs regarding Students' TL Language Proficiency

In the teachers' interviews, all the teachers expressed their concerns about students' TL proficiency, which they suggested is an important factor affecting their pedagogical decision-making. As T4 stated in her interview, "*I am not able to use too much English, because they [*students*] do not understand and then, lose interests to listen to me. I have to switch back to L1 to make sure they understand what I said and sustain their interests*" (T4-Interview). Like T4, the other three teachers tended to perceive students' TL proficiency at a lower level in spite of having no idea about the students' English scores in either the National College Entrance Examination (NCEE), or the Placement Test organized by the Institution B.

The teachers' evaluations of the students' TL proficiency seem to not rely on the students' academic record. As a matter of fact, in Institution B, the students' results on the Placement Test are accessible by teachers. However, none of them in the current study referred to academic record of students' English performance, because "*it is not compulsory to refer to it. Teachers make their own decisions whether to check students' results*" (T2-Interview). This raises the question how English can be taught without an understanding of students' academic record which, to some extent, represents students' English proficiency. China's educational system, the reality in the Institution B, and the students' immediate responses in class are attributed to shaping the teachers' perceptions of their TL proficiency. Firstly, the total score of enrolment is prescribed by the university ranking in China, that is, students in the Institution B share a similar total score in the NCEE. In spite of this no score is prescribed specifically for the subject of English for non-English major students - "students*' TL proficiency will not be too much lower, because the total enrol score is fixed*" (T4, interview). Any subject in the NCEE needs to reach a certain score in order to meet the total enrolment score requirement. From the teachers' perspective, the total score in the NCEE tends to be accepted as an indicator of students' overall academic performance as well as students' English level. Secondly, the purpose of learning about an individual student's academic record in English would raise the teachers' awareness of the student diversity in the College English class, and particularly provide an understanding of the diversities of the students' linguistic background and should contribute to enhancing the effectiveness of teachers' pedagogic decisions. However, the size of the College English class and the limited instruction hours for the English subject appear to be challenges in dealing with students' diversities. Each class has at least 30 students, with three teaching hours of English per week

which *"makes it impossible for teachers to teach with reference to the test results of at least 30 students in the class*" (T3-Interview). Lastly, it appears that teachers tend to draw upon the students' immediate responses in the class to make pedagogical decisions. Chapter Five which focused on the analysis of teacher-student interactions in the class indicates that students' responses in the TL are fairly short and simple (see Table Six, p.123). It gives me a sense that the teachers' perceptions in terms of the students' TL proficiency are that they are consistent with student's actual English performances. This is not the only factor that led to the teachers' assumptions about students' TL proficiency. Student's rural background was also found to be a factor. Excerpt Thirty-One is taken from T1's interview which shows T1's opinions about differences between students from rural and urban areas.

Excerpt Thirty-One (T1 -Teacher Interview):

Segment	R/T	Utterance
1	R	*How about your students? They appeared to come from rural areas, are they?*
2	T1	*That is the reason why you do not see many excellent students.*
3	R	*No, no, I mean they came from XX province but out of the capital city.*
4	T1	*They came from rural areas.*
5	R	*Any differences?*
6	T1	*Yes.*
7	R	*In what way?*
8	T1	*If you see someone who is outstanding, he or she must come from the capital city. This student must come from a good secondary school and can speak good English. I even told one of my students that he did not have to come, because his speaking was really good. There are several ways to show the differences. Firstly, students from the capital city have a sense of superiority. They may not feel by themselves, but I can see that. Secondly, they are more confident. They are able to express their opinions in front of others.*
9	R	*This is important in learning English?*
10	T1	*Yes, this is very important in learning English. English learning is all about expressing oneself. The more you do it, the better you would be. The more mistakes you made, the faster progression you would make. If you are quiet and saying nothing so as to avoid the mistakes. You will never make any progression. This is what I tell them…..*

The interview demonstrated in Excerpt Thirty-One is a continuation of my exploration of student's diversity. The purpose is to understand why student's diversity appears to be ignored in the teaching of the College English class. Hence my questions to T1 to try to find out more about the impact of a student's geographical background. It is interesting that T1 immediately associated my questions with the students' English proficiency when I asked about the students' background (Segment 1). She seemed to assume my question was a sign that I thought the students' English is not excellent (Segment 2).

T1 differentiated students from the rural and the urban areas regarding their English proficiency. In her view, students from the rural area were less proficient in English than students from the urban areas (Segment 6, Segment 8). This is because in her view students from urban areas can speak English more fluently (Segment, 8). She pointed out that students' TL proficiency, confidence to express themselves and motivation for learning varied from students who came from urban areas compared to the students from rural areas (Segment 8, Segment 10). From T1's perspective, it makes a difference in the way English can be learned (Segment 10). Specifically, in her view, students from urban areas are able to learn by expressing themselves and taking risks in making mistakes. She seemed to imply that students from urban areas are more communicative in TL in comparison to the students from rural areas.

In the Chapter One, it was explained that Institution B has a good reputation in several key subjects. "*The majority of students who study these subjects are from remote rural areas whose socioeconomics is under development*" (T1, T4 - Interviews). However, no official documents were found to explain why these major subjects have a strong connection with the rural students. According to my Classroom Observations, few students came from urban areas. In my Field Notes, I noted that a majority of students had a strong accent in speaking Mandarin and English. This tends to be consistent with T1's claims which implied that the majority of her students come from the rural areas (Segment 2). Students' background appears to be a factor influencing T1's judgement about their TL proficiency. Specifically, the different characteristics of students from rural areas and urban areas, which are attributed to either facilitating or hindering the implementation of the CLT approach. In the Excerpt Thirty-One, T1 explicitly claimed how urban students' background may facilitate their English learning (Line 8). She also refers to her personal experience to show the barriers that the rural students may have in learning English in a communicative way. This is illustrated in her interview (Excerpt Thirty-Two):

Excerpt Thirty-Two (T1-Interview):

Segment	T1	Utterance
1	T1	*…. I felt my English was not as good as my classmates who came from the capital city. They could understand teachers' TL use and they could interact with the teacher. They felt so good despite that they made some mistakes*
2	R	*Do you think it matters about where you come from?*
3	T1	*Yes. It is a normal situation. We came from rural areas and we started to learn English in junior high school. In our English test, we did not have the section of listening. We never attended any listening test and the version of National College Entrance Examination we attended had no listening. So, we did not understand teacher talk in English. But requirements were different from now.*

(R refers to researcher)

As seen in the Excerpt Thirty-Two, rural students start English learning at the stage of senior high school (Segment 3) whereas the urban students start to learn English in primary school. This background information about China's educational system was provided in the Chapter One. Further, listening was excluded from NCEE in the region where T1 came from. The exclusion of listening from the NCEE (Segment 3) means that rural students may not learn about listening skills at any stages prior to College English learning. This can cause barriers for teachers to teach in a communicative way.

In spite of this situation changing as T1 suggested in her interview – the "*requirement is different from now*" (T1-Interview), which means rural students are now engaging in listening in the English subject, it cannot be denied that T1's experience of being an English learner from rural areas led to her preconception in terms of the College rural students' English proficiency. That is, students from rural areas are likely to have lower English proficiency. Further, T1's perceives her classmates' capability to communicate in the TL with the teacher as a sign of better English (Segment 3). In her definition, higher level of English language proficiency includes capability of communicating in TL. This may explain why T1's class was involved in more communicative activities in contrast to other College English classes. T1's learning experience appeared to have an impact on her judgement of students' TL proficiency, as well as how she understands the concept "communicate in TL". That is, it seems that communication in TL equates to spoken English.

In contrast to T1's views, T2 and T4 tended to interpret students' TL proficiency at the institutional level. Institution B requires a minimum enrolment score in the NCEE, and the requirement, to some extent, guarantees students' English proficiency which particularly refers to students' grammatical knowledge. In their interviews T2 and T4stated, "*few students have problems with grammar*" (T2, T4 -Interviews), and this seems to establish a common ground for teachers to teach without contextualizing students' diversities of TL proficiency. It appears that as an outcome of China's university enrolment system, students' diversity in TL proficiency tends to inherently exist in College English classes. From the teachers' perspectives, they have to teach with diversities of students' TL proficiency. Consequently, they tend to refer to factors regarding making pedagogical decisions such as, students' immediate responses in the class. Excerpt Thirty-Three is taken from T2's interview which implies the attitudes teachers hold regarding the diversities of students' TL proficiency. T2's standpoint may not necessarily imply other teachers hold the same attitudes, but T2 is in the position of administering access to students 'academic record, and he is aware of whether teachers know about their students' academic record.

Excerpt Thirty-Three (T2- Interview):

Line	R/S	Utterance
1	R	*Do teachers know the mean scores of their English subject in College Entrance Exam?*
2	T2	*It depends. It is not compulsory*
3	R	*So, it may be helpful for pedagogical decisions.*
4	T2	*Could be. It actually depends on students' immediate response to what I said.*

(R refers to researcher)

Excerpt Thirty-Three is an interview with T2, and his attitudes towards the students' diversity in the TL seems to be ambiguous (Line 2, Line 4). Diversities in the students' TL proficiency seems not to be principally considered in his decision-making. If this is the case, the question then arises how do teachers differentiate their instructional strategies to maximize students' English learning if students' diversity of TL proficiency is not considered? An answer seems to be given in T4's interview, which is illustrated in Excerpt Thirty-Four below:

Excerpt Thirty-Four (T4- Interview):

Segment	R/T	Utterance
1	R	*Is it essential for you to study the Foreign Language Policies?*
2	T4	*Not really. These policies are about students instead of teachers. It specified the objectives of teaching and if it was achieved at university level, it would be fine. However, our students would not reach the level described in the Guidance. There were some, very few of them may achieve after two years study of College English and a majority would not. At least, their oral English would not reach that level. Students had abilities in reading, writing and translation. Not in oral English. You can see in listening class, it progressed so slowly. How they could speak?*

(R refers to researcher)

In the Excerpt Thirty-Four, T4 's concerns with the Foreign Language English Policies (FLEP) seems to principally focus on the teaching objectives instead of meeting the requirements of students as prescribed in the FLEPs (Segment 2). From T4's perspective, achievement in ELT at the level of the institution seems to be the only thing considered. In practice it means focusing on the results of final exam and particularly the College English tests, CET4 and CET6. The College English test is a measurement of College students' academic performance in English, and its passing rate is an indicator of university's ranking. The higher the passing rate, the higher the ranking is likely to be. To some extent, the goals of English teaching and learning are consistent in the sense that they both aim to pass the tests. Broadly, university level, teacher level and student level are consistent in achieving this aim.

From T4's perspectives, the requirements prescribed in the FLEPs seem to be unachievable for the majority of students in the Institution B (Line 2). In particular, T4 makes it clear that there is a gap between the development of students' oral English and their other language skills. This seems to be consistent with the findings discussed in the previous chapter which

suggest that speaking as a language skill is playing a peripheral role in comparison with other four language skills. However, it is inspiring to find that both T1 and T4 raise issues about developing students' spoken English. Specifically, T1 perceives speaking as a sign of good English whereas T4 is concerned with the gap existing between the learning objectives prescribed in FLEPs and students' actual capability. This seems to be a good sign that the importance of speaking English has been recognized.

T3 shares a similar view as T2 and T4 in judging students' TL proficiency by focusing on their grammatical knowledge. But T3 stresses the application of grammar in dealing with L1-TL translation. An example of this is presented in Excerpt Thirty-Five:

Excerpt Thirty-Five (T3-Classroom Observation):

Line	T/S	Utterance
1	T3	……. *English is good at the use of noun and prepositions. Chinese is good at the use of?*
2	S	*Verbs.*
3	T3	*Verbs. You know it, but you are not able to use this rule.*

T3 is dealing with a TL-L1 translation task. As observed in previous classes of T3. He stresses the differences between English and Chinese in his teaching. That is, English uses nouns and prepositions in producing sentences whereas Chinese mainly relies on verbs. In this task, his purpose is to raise the students' awareness that words in English which function as nouns or preposition should be translated as a verb in Chinese translation so as to make sense of the meaning in Chinese language. T3 tends to define this difference as a rule to be used in coping with Chinese - English in translation tasks. Therefore, "use this rule" (Line 3) is likely to mean the application of the rule in translation rather than in communication. T3 appears to evaluate students' TL proficiency according to their grammatical competence and in particular their application of rules in dealing with tasks such as translation and writing.

This theme suggests that teachers hold a perception that their students' TL proficiency is at a low level. Their evaluation seems not to be based on the actual scores of College students in their academic record in English, such as test results. The teachers have developed their own evaluations from different perspectives. Their evaluations are likely to be influenced by their learning experience, observations of students' immediate responses in class and on evaluation of the students' capability in the accomplishment of certain tasks.

6.2 Theme Two - Norms Regarding English Learning

This theme present findings in terms of norms regarding English learning, specifically uncovering how contextualisation of English Native Speaker (NS) norms is constructed in College English classes. In particular, it reveals how the contextualisation positions teachers and then the type of learning opportunities that can be created in College English class. Therefore, this theme focuses on English Native Speaker (NS) norms in the research context. The key sources of data are: teachers' Classroom Observations (CO); teachers' interviews (T-Interview); students' interviews (SI); and Document analysis (DA). Very limited evidence is drawn from the students' interviews. This decision is made on the basis of previous findings. In spite of teachers referring to students' immediate responses in making pedagogical decisions, its impacts seem to be weaker than the impact of the teachers' beliefs. As T4 claimed, "*we tend to do what we believe to be right and are not affected by students*" (T4, Interview). This reflects what is happening in College English class. Teachers play a dominant role whereas students appear to be passive. This chapter focuses on the broader social and cultural context which aims to understand the norms of English native speakers, and the teachers' role as prescribed in the research context. Two sub-themes are developed: norms of English native speakers and the role the teacher plays in social contexts and learning with reference to the norms of English native speakers.

6.2.1 Sub-theme One - Norms of English Native Speakers (NSs)

The research context is a FL context, and this means limited exposure to TL outside the class (Savignon,2018). The teachers tend to perceive it as a contextual constraint to developing the students' listening and speaking. This is because the students have restricted opportunities to interact with English native speakers or use English as a means of communication with others in or out of the academic setting. This was also acknowledged by the students themselves. In the students' interview, it was found that a few of them attended English speaking courses in private English training centres with the hope of speaking fluent English (S-Interview). As they stated, "*teachers are English native speakers in the private schools, and this is the most important reason to attend the English course there*" (S-Interview). The students' attitudes principally imply their preference towards the norms of English native speakers, and their acknowledgement that they may not be able to develop their speaking within an institutional setting where English NS teachers are not available to College English courses. This raises a question about what type of norms about College English are held in Institution B, and how they are sustained in the context of English being used as a lingual franca.

As the literature implies, the NS standards of British English and American English are found to be preferred by all stakeholders of ELT in China (Kirkpatrick &Xu, 2002; Young &Walsh, 2010). This standpoint is echoed by all teacher and student participants in the current study. However, raises a challenge when the NS norm is attached to goal of English teaching and learning which is not attainable for students in FL contexts (Kirkpatrick, 2006). To some extent, the NS norms attached to the goal of English learning have become a hinderance for teachers to make further attempts in developing students' communicative competence. Specifically, the teachers in the current study tended to stress the importance of a TL context for the development of students' 'NS-like' communicative competence. In their opinion, students will not acquire 'NS-like' language proficiency without being immersed in a TL context. Excerpt Thirty-Six is an example to show the relationship between the teachers' beliefs in a TL context and the development of 'NS-like' communicative competence.

Excerpt Thirty-Six (T3-Classroom Observation):

Segment	T/S	Utterance
1	S1	*In communication with the foreigners, they used different intonations and tones. There were liaisons and plosion and I cannot understand what they are talking about.*
2	T3	*Ok, sit down, please. If we* communicate with native speakers of English, we may have difficulty understanding their pronunciation, intonation and something else. For instance, liaison, *the problem is we do not have context, we do not have context to experience them. We practise listening through a tape-recorder.*

Excerpt Thirty-Six is an introduction session of T3's class. T3 asks the students to tell him their difficulties in English learning. A majority of students express the idea that they have difficulties in speaking and listening by claiming, "*My speaking and listening was very poor"* (Student-Interview). This tends to be the consequence of receiving limited training in listening and speaking in contrast to the skills of reading, writing and translation which are essential components of the examination. It is a surprise that students have higher expectations of developing their speaking and listening. As noted during the observation the majority of the students' questions were about how to improve their speaking and listening. Speaking and listening play different roles in ELT in that listening is a compulsory component of the examinations, and development of students' listening is part of the curriculum. However, as seen in the Excerpt Thirty-Six, students are aware of differences between "listening" in an academic setting and "listening" to foreigners in real communication. Listening in the academic setting is different in the sense that the goal of the Listening Course is to practise students' listening skills. From the analysis of the

Listening and Speaking textbook, it was found that listening skills are practised via multiple listening tasks, such as compound dictation and multiple choices. In dealing with listening tasks, teachers create a situation that will never happen in real communications. For example, it was found in all listening classes that listening recordings are highly repeated at a slower speed; and listening materials are decomposed into basic units as words or phrases rather than a full sentence. This type of "listening" may not necessarily happen during genuine communication in the real world. Further, "genuineness" of communication in the TL seemed to be associated with English NS norms by students. "Foreigners" mentioned in the excerpt refer to English native speakers (S, Interviews), and students' questions implied their recognition of the differences in listening in the class and listening in genuine authentic communication within which multiple speech phenomena occur.

In addressing the students' questions, T3 repeats himself that the lack of a TL environment is an essential barrier to students' understanding of these speech phenomena. T3's response suggests the development of proficiency of listening and speaking tends to be associated with the TL environment. A TL environment implies association with English Native speakers who are defined as authentic users of TL. This may explain what I observed in the classes that all teachers played foreign films and music in the class or during the break. The purpose appears to be to surround the students with authentic TL so as to help them learn about 'native-like' pronunciation. Adherence to English NS norms is revealed in the teacher's beliefs and specifically, English NS's pronunciation is perceived as the norm for students to imitate. This is consistent with the findings in students' interviews. They claimed that listening to and imitating Voice of America (VOA) and BBC was the morning routine (S-Interview). The perceived value of English NS norm has been identified in College English classrooms, but how it influences ELT practice remains unclear. Teachers tend to have an assumption that students' communicative competence will be developed naturally as soon as they expose themselves to a TL environment. Similar to T3's views, T1 makes a direct connection between the development of communicative competence and a TL environment, presented in Excerpt Thirty-Seven:

Excerpt Thirty-Seven (T1- Interview):

Segment	T	Utterance
1	T1	*I encouraged my students with an example of my younger brother. He went to a foreign country and he was not able to speak the language, even one word. After a few years, he could speak the language fluently. I told them what they need is a TL context. If they are in that context, their English will be fluent.*

As seen in the Excerpt Thirty-Seven, T1 uses the example of his brother's language learning experience in a TL context. According to T1, after a few years exposure to the TL environment, his brother's fluency in a FL significantly improved. This seems to reinforce her belief of the importance of a TL context in learning a FL. However, she mentioned, "*after a few years, he* (her brother) *could speak language fluently*". This emphasises the time of the exposure may be the prerequisite for TL learning. By contrast, the students only learn English for two years in Institution B, with the total of 192 teaching hours, and each teaching hour is 45 minutes. Exposure to the TL is not attainable for the College English students, and the overall timescale of learning is limited. How a belief in terms of the exposure to the TL is conceptualized in the College English classroom is a question that requires further consideration. The teachers' mediating role between English NSs and students emerges in the findings, specifically, the teacher is the primary source available of the TL in FL class (Turnbull &Arnett, 2002). The students spend most of their time with the teacher for TL learning in the class. The teacher appears to be the one who is likely to create a TL environment. However, this raises challenges when the TL is required to be English 'NS-like'. In Chapter Five, the teachers' TL proficiency was discussed as the findings showed it to be limited in some cases. Further, it has been officially acknowledged in China's FLEPs that the rise of English as an international language has led to the majority of international communications taking place among people from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Jenkins, 2007; Ke & Cahyani, 2014). This may release students from the strains of developing English NS-like proficiency in speaking and listening, if it is not an ultimate goal for students of English as a global language (Jenkins, 1998). It will also be beneficial for teachers to establish an accessible pedagogical goal for students in terms of the development of communicative competence. Consequently, teachers may no longer have the lack of the TL environment as a reason for their neglect in developing students' communicative competence. In particular, this will be the case for speaking and listening. As T3 stated "*if it(pronunciation) does not affect the communication, the pronunciation is not a problem*" (T3-Classroom Observation). The norms attached to the concept of communicative competence is important in that less rigid adherence to the English Ns norm will enable teachers to be more confident to take further steps to address the development of students' communicative competence rather than avoid it. The findings in this study imply that the NS norms are widely applied in teaching various aspects of English, and Excerpt Thirty-Eight below is an example of teacher's references to NS norms in teaching grammar and vocabulary. It leads me to argue that the extensive reference to English NS norms as "Standard" English partially led to the teachers' adherence to the NS norm. Excerpt Thirty-Eight is an example where T3 stresses the importance of reading authentic material in TL.

Excerpt Thirty-Eight (T3-Classroom Observation):

Segment	T	Utterance
1	T3	The following points, however, can be used for reference. *We must read extensively so as to enable us to understand vocabulary and grammatical structures the same way as native speakers do. Without reading, we are unlikely to cultivate our linguistic awareness.*

From T3's perspective, reading authentic material will help students develop an understanding of vocabularies and grammar which is close to NSs' understanding. T3 tends to evaluate students' learning on how closely they approximate to English NSs in the usage of grammar and vocabulary. Excerpt Thirty-Eight T3's view that English NS norms are also related to the learning of grammar and vocabulary. NSs' norms were a dominant reference in these classes which involved various areas of English learning from pronunciation to grammar and vocabulary. However, the findings discussed above in this section only suggested teachers' conformity to NS norms, but the data did not show how their conformity to NS norms were contextualized in their teaching practice. In particular, the teachers' adherence to NS norms appeared to be a barrier to developing their students' communicative competence. This suggests that the choice of NS norms to be taught in the classrooms may not be the teachers' real choice but a result of a lack of alternatives (Rubdy & Saraceni, 2006). As acknowledged in Chapter One, English today has become an international language, and English is used as a lingua franca in multi-lingual contexts. Learners are immersed in communications not only with English NSs but increasingly with non-native speakers of English. In such a situation, the maintenance of NS norms in ELT has been questioned (Kachru, 2005; Jenkins, 2007). However, the Layered Model which has been introduced in Chapter One (p.18) indicates that ELT in Institution B appears not to be influenced by globalization as a broad context. Consequently, the shift of learning from NS norms of English to using English as a lingual franca is not recognized. This leads to no changes in terms of the teachers' perceptions of the purposes of English teaching and learning in the Institution B. Further, Standard English which is mainly used in the Inner Circle (Kachru, 1985) has been extensively employed in academic settings (Quirk, 1990). In particular, it appears that British English and American English are preferred by teachers and students in EFL contexts (Choe, 2007). Consequently, English native speaker norms are equally employed in speaking and listening. This adds a new thread for me to understand the research context within which the adherence to NS norms continues. In the next section, I take a close look at research context.

6.3 Theme Three – Context

"Context" is a core concept in the current study; and the Layered Model developed in the previous chapter is based on the concept of context. It uncovers various features from multiple levels of the research context which are found to have impacted on the teachers' use of the TL and the L1. Each layer can exist as a context in its own right, and some layers are found to be more influential than the others. In particular, the layers relevant to the immediate teaching environment seem to have direct impacts on the teachers' pedagogical instructions. More specifically, these layers include: Institutions; College English classes; Teachers; and Students. In the previous sections, the analysis of Institution B and classroom interactions have been discussed. The analysis of the College English class with a focus on the actual classroom environment and the teacher-student relationships will be the core part of this theme. Two sub-themes emerged which are Class Size and Classroom Arrangement and Teachers' Roles in College English Classrooms. The former demonstrates a physical classroom environment while the latter concerns the classroom atmosphere. In discussing this theme, the key sources of data that will be drawn on are Classroom Observations, Field Notes, teachers' interviews, and students' interviews.

6.3.1 Sub-Theme One - Class size and Classroom Arrangement

At the time of the data collection, a Placement Test was launched in the Institution B, which allows students to choose a College English class according to their own time and location of accommodation. This is known as the new selection system of College English course, and it has direct impact on the College English class sizes. More specifically, it has led to a reduction of the classroom size, and the maximum of each College English class is now 40 students.

In the classes involved in this research, the student lists show that the average number of students is between 35 to 40 students, but this is not consistent with actual students' attendances. I counted the number of students at the beginning of each class I observed and found that the smallest class contained only 22 students whereas the largest contained 35 students. Teachers are aware of students' absence, and the Student List is used as an important tool to check students' attendance. Student's attendance rate is included as part of their final grade. Doing so aims to ensure an average level of students' attendance. However, the change of class size appears not to affect the teachers' pedagogical instructions. T3's class is one of the most extreme cases regarding the size of the class. As observed, there

were about 20 students at the beginning of the term when the observation started, and it increased to 32 students by the end of the term. For second-year students, it was a time that their final examination and the CET4 was approaching. The increasing student attendance appears to be the result of the exams.

As mentioned previously, the Placement Test and the selection system of the College English course were launched almost at the same time. The launch of these two systems not only led to the change of the class size but increased the distance among students. The teachers' interviews showed that students' "distance" had been a concern for teachers in organizing group or pair learning (T2**.** T4 Interviews-Excerpt Thirty-Nine). "Distance" in this occasion means that students in the same English class did not know each other prior to the College English class, and consequently, they felt reluctant to communicate with each other in the class. Before the Placement Test and Selection of the College English course system, the students studying the same major were placed into one class which was named as the "administrative class" or "natural class". Students in the same "administrative class" studied together for four years, and they were normally taught by the same College English teacher. There appeared to be benefits of English teaching and learning in the "administrative class". As T4 stated, "*Teachers were likely to know more about students themselves and their progression in English learning*". Potentially, it created opportunities for teachers to explore students' diversities. In addition, it was also more likely that a closer teacher-student, and student-student relationship could be established which could contribute to creating a good learning atmosphere. This is seen in T4's interview (Excerpt Thirty-Nine). T4 claims several advantages of learning English in the previous "administrative class".

Excerpt Thirty-Nine (T4- Interview):

Segment	R/T	Utterance
1	R	*From your view, what is the goal of English learning for your students?*
2	T4	*……How I could shift to student-centred teaching? I am not confident to do that. If I give too much time to students to answer my questions, other students will lose patience. If I asked too many questions, students are likely to be quiet. I ask them to discuss with each other, but they will not do that. Before the "teaching class", it was a larger size of class, and students were familiar with each other. I asked them to discuss, and they actively engaged in discussions. If I asked them to answer the questions, some of students were not confident, but they wrote the answer down and then answered the questions. It was really a good atmosphere for learning…… but now, students refuse to interact with each other, and some student does not take textbooks to the class, and I ask him to share the book with another student next to him and he refuse to do so……..*

(R refers to researcher)

Before proceeding to the analysis of the Excerpt Thirty-Nine, some points mentioned in the excerpt by T4 need to be explained. Specifically, during the interviews I realized that the

teacher participants tended to assume I understood what they meant without providing any background knowledge. In my interpretation of the teachers' utterances, I drew upon my own experience of learning and teaching in a similar context to assist me. The teachers' interviews took place in the middle of the data collection period, and by that time, I had become familiar with the Institution B and the teacher and student participants. This helped me in capturing the meaning of the responses that the teachers made in their interviews. Reflecting on the process of how I attempted to understand the teacher participants' utterances led me to understand the importance of contexts in which the teachers' responses were made. The unspoken details of the context are needed to remove potential barriers to reader's understanding.

For example, "Before the teaching class" (Segment 2 of Excerpt Thirty-nine), refers to the "administrative class". As mentioned previously, students in the "administrative class" attended College English classes together for two years and were taught normally by the same English teacher. A rapport between the teacher and student was likely to be established and it seemed to motivate students to make an effort. As T4 stated, some students were not confident, but they wrote answers down and then answered T4's question by reading what they had written (Segment 2). Also, the students tended to be more actively engaged in learning and trying their own way in order to respond to T4 's questions.

T4 appeared to be emotional when she talked about her current students' performances in the class. "But now" is a sign of comparison, and T4, particularly points out that students refuse to interact with each other. After the launch of the Placement Test and the Selection of College English course system, the "teaching class" replaces the "administrative class". This change allows students to choose the College English class on a term-by-term basis, and the students who choose the same English class will study English together for at least one term. Comparatively, it potentially causes further challenges to teachers in implementing a communicative pedagogical approach. The students in one "teaching class" are from various disciplines, and they are new to each other as well as their teachers. As described by T4 in the interview (Excerpt Thirty-Nine), students appear to be resistant to interact with each other (Segment 2). Student's resistance makes it more difficult for teachers to organize group or pair study in the class, and consequently, it leaves teacher-centred pedagogy as the only option in the class. The Classroom Observation findings show that T1's class tended to involve more communicative activities than others. The communicative activities mainly included role play and T1-whole class dialogue in the TL. The key feature of these types of activities is engaging a larger group of students. On the one hand, it allows more students to practise spoken English, and on the other hand, it seems to avoid the resistance of students

to work in pairs. As T1 stated in her interview pair study may work conditionally but she has to give her students plenty of time to practise in pairs and then ask them to perform in front of the whole class. In a situation of reduced teaching hours, pair work tends to be less feasible for the College English teachers. Similarly, it was found from T2's Classroom Observation that teacher-centred interaction is dominant. T2 practises students 'oral English by asking them to read passages in the textbook aloud. No student-student interactions were observed in his classes.

T3 seems to be aware of this issue regarding students' reluctance to work with others; and in dealing with oral practice, T3 asked individual students to give a presentation in front of the class rather than organizing students into pairs or groups to communicate with each other. In observations of T3s' classes, few attempts were found of organizing students to work in pairs or groups. Unlike T4, T3 was not willing to openly talk about this issue in his interview. It is not certain whether that might be attributed to T3's administrative role in the School of College English. However, it seemed that the launch of the Selection System of the English course and the Placement Test led to barriers to implementing a more communicative pedagogy.

The organisation of the classes appears rather chaotic, without a great deal of coherence. The Placement Test appears to reduce students' diversities in terms of their English level by grouping students with similar test results into the same class and controlling the size of College English class. However, the outcomes of the new system appear to be less desirable than expected. For example, the students are required to take part in the Placement Test at entry to Institutional B. Students obtaining a higher score in the test will be eligible to start the College English course by study of Textbook Two instead of Textbook One. However, a majority of the student participants chose to start with Textbook One in spite of obtaining a higher score in the Placement Test (S-Interview). The students appeared not to mind studying the textbook from the beginning, as they wanted to "*make sure that they will obtain a good score in final exam and CET4*" (S-Interview). In addition, the College English class for those who obtained higher scores in the Placement Test was not available by the time of the data collection. This is because few students choose to study Textbook Two, so no College English class will operate for them (T1 -Interview). As a result, this situation appears to leave these students with no choice but start with the Textbook One.

The key issue of this theme is class size which is an outcome of the Placement Test and Selection System of English class. It seems that there are more than the factor of class size

having an impact on the teachers' pedagogical decisions in College English class. Specifically, the Placement Test and Selection System of the English Courses appear to lead to a situation that the students not knowing one another prior to the College English Course reduces the potential to build relationships between the students and between the students and the teacher. This appears to impact on interactions between the students and between the students and the teacher. It minimizes opportunities for teachers to organize pair work and group work which aims to "*open students' mouth*" to speak English (T1-Interview). In a class with at least 30 students, pair or group work is an important way to maximize students' participation. Further, it is found that teachers attempt to find alternatives to pair or group work in the College English classes. The alternatives include role play dialogue, teacher-whole class dialogue in the TL, reading textbooks aloud and giving solo presentations which are less communicative activities. Lastly, data from both Classroom Observations and teacher's interviews (T2, T4- Interviews) imply that teachers feel they are struggling in questioning, because it is difficult to ask students to respond to teacher's question properly in the TL. The teachers say that the students need more time to think, and this "*extremely slows down the pace of teaching*" (T4-Interview). As a result, not all the students had equal opportunities in the class to use the TL to communicate with the teacher. What is more concerning is, it caused what T4 described in her interview as "*other students lost patience and interests and started to play with mobile phone. The whole class hardly moved forward*" (T4-Interview).

6.3.2 Sub-Theme Two - Teacher's Roles in College English Classrooms

Findings discussed in the previous chapters indicate that College English classes tend to be dominated by teacher-centred pedagogy. The teacher plays a determining role in the students' English learning. Therefore, the theme discussed in this section focuses on the teacher's role and starts with a definition of the teacher that is extensively accepted in Chinese context (Zhao &Huang,2008).

The teacher's role in EFL classroom is an important tenet to be explored, because the teacher plays different roles within communicative approaches and traditional teaching approaches. A teacher within the communicative approaches plays multiple roles as facilitator, organizer, prompter, source and instructor (Harmer, 2001), whereas a teacher in the traditional approach acts as the role model whose responsibility is to transmit knowledge. Of particular importance is defining the teacher's role in the context of China, which is a unique sociocultural context. The teacher's role is culturally and socially prescribed as an authority

in the subject matter and the best learning is assumed to be realised by listening and talking to the teacher (Rao, 1996). Given the influences from the local sociocultural context on teacher's role, there are at least two dimensions to be considered: The Sociocultural basis and the Knowledge Basis. In current study, it was found that the Sociocultural-based role and Knowledge-based role were interchangeably enacted by teacher participants. Therefore, the in the next section the teacher's sociocultural role in the context of China which defines the teacher as a role model is discussed

6.3.2.1 Teachers as Role Models

It was evident from the Classroom Observations that all the teacher participants shared their experience of English learning with their students. The purpose for doing so appeared to vary between teachers, but it seems that all the teachers learnt English through the traditional approach. Excerpt Forty is an example taken from T3's experience of his English learning.

Excerpt Forty (T3-Classroom Observation):

Line	T	Utterance
1	T3	*When I learned English, I made efforts to understand all different meanings of every single*
2		*word or phrase I encountered. I always questioned about them. We had to learn English in this*
3		*way. Otherwise, we would not know, what we were not able to fully acquire English. We did*
4		*not have enough time to do so. However, you should learn in this way when you learn English*
5		*on your own.*

(Note: Italicized utterance in the excerpts mean the utterance is in L1 and non-italic utterance means the utterance is in TL).

As mentioned above, the teacher participants shared their experience of learning for different reasons. In this case, T3 shared his experience with the purpose of giving advice to students regarding how to learn English effectively. In T3's opinion, learning English is about understanding multiple meanings of vocabularies and phrases. T3 made a strong claim that "*we had to learn this way…otherwise…fully acquire English*" (Line 2), which in his view is the way to enhance students' TL learning with the focus on vocabulary and phrase. This is an essential component of traditional learning. That is, students do not only learn from T3's class if they explore vocabularies and phrases as priority of teaching in his class but they also learn from the advice given by T3. the students said in their interviews for example that "*I prefer to memorize the vocabularies in the morning rather than practise speaking*" (Student-Interview). It appears that T3 established his role model approach by telling students what to learn and how to learn. The following excerpt provides an example of T1's approach.

Excerpt Forty-One (T1-Classroom Observation):

Line	T/S	Utterance
1	T1	We meet for the first time, what we say?
2	S1	How do you do?
3	T1	Thank you very much. Good. How do you do? What is your response? How do you react? How do you do?
4	S2	Pretty good.
5	T1	Pretty good. How do you do?
6	S3	Good and thank you.
7	T1	Good. How do you do?
8	S4	Pretty good.
9	T1	How do you do?
10	S5	not bad.
11	T1	You forget what you learnt in high school. *You forget what you learnt in high school.* How do you?
12	s	How do you do! (Students said "How do you do together and laughed)
13	T1	How do you do! Nice to meet you!

(Note: Italicized utterance in the excerpts mean the utterance is in L1 and non-italic utterance means the utterance is in TL).

Excerpt Forty-One is an activity to practise greetings when meeting each other for the first time in English, and interestingly, one student's response as "how do you do" seems to draw T1's interests (Line2, Line3). The rest of the interaction is centred around the response to "how do you do". T1 tends to constrain students' responses to "how do you do" (Line 11). T1's control of the student's response, to some extent, implies her authoritative role in the class. Interestingly, the current study investigated teacher's language use at tertiary level, and the "appropriateness" of "how you do" is not even questioned by students as to whether it is appropriate for college students to greet with each other in this way. In particular, "appropriateness" is an important tenet of communicative competence. The development of students' communicative competence is not only about teaching them what to say, but how to say it in certain situations. T1's TL use appeared to be quite simple, and a similar example is also found in the class when T1 referred to "Twinkle, Twinkle" to help them produce liaisons. T1 explained in her interview that "*using Twinkle, Twinkle to teach liaisons is a tradition within which she was taught*" (T1-Interview).

"How do you do" and "Twinkle, Twinkle" are rather simplistic for college students. However, none of students questioned the "appropriateness" of them. Rather, students tended to follow what T1 said. To some extent, T4's interview in Excerpt Forty-Two may provide an answer why the "appropriateness" is not questioned.

Excerpt Forty-Two (T4- Interview):

Segment	T	Utterance
1	T4	*Students expected teachers to tell them what to do and then they would follow the instruction. It was not possible for them to develop their own ideas…… It was hard to change them and consequently, it was hard for me to change what we did in the classes. They might change, but it could take really long time. I tried, I used to teach in a flexible way. I did not use the textbook appointed by the university. I did not have to follow the teaching calendar if I could …complete the task. The*

		task was communicative and easy, and I hoped to stimulate students' interests. I did not organize my teaching with passages in textbooks. I used other materials which helped students to learn. But this was not different from normal language classes.
2	R	Will the *University stop you?*
3	T4	*No. University is concerned about the final examinations. But students reported it and it was said they did* 11*not know what I was teaching.*
4	R	*Reported by students?*
5	T4	*Yes. So many students did so. I encouraged students to learn with different ways of teaching. Some of students may see the benefits whereas a majority of students expected I focused on textbooks. They did not accept something they did not try before. The problem was English education was about teaching textbooks 16for so many years. We used to have flipped? classes, I was not sure whether it continues or not.*

(R refers to researcher)

As seen in Excerpt Forty-Two, students tend to rely on their teachers telling them what to do. Referring to the Excerpt Forty, "what to do" may mean what to learn and how to learn English. Particularly, this formulates part of students' expectations. More specifically, students seem to be instructed in certain ways. As T4 stated, students reported to the university when she developed other teaching material out with the College English textbooks (Segment 1, 3). It seems that students perceive English teaching as teaching and learning from textbooks, and anything new may cause resistance which may result in them reporting the teacher to the university (Segment 3). To some extent, the students' reliance tended to empower teachers to take control of the class, and their students' expectations shaped the teacher's role as authority. In order to understand the students' expectations, I added a question in students' interviews which is illustrated in Excerpt Forty-Three (Added question in Bold text). Along with previous the excerpts which suggest that students' expectations to some degree shaped the teachers' role and affected their behaviour accordingly, it is important to understand students' expectations. Only by doing so, I would be able to fully uncover the teachers' actual role in College English class.

Excerpt Forty-Three (Student- Interview):

Segment	**R/S**	**Utterance**
1	S4	*I need to pass the examination. I do not think oral English matters for now*
2	S2	*I agree, examination is the most important.*
3	R	*Do you have expectations from the teachers in helping you to practise speaking English or using more TL than L1 in instruction?*
4	S4	*It does not matter. All I concern is examination.*
5	S3	*It makes no difference from how we learn English in high school.*
6	S2	*We need to pass the examination, and this is the requirement. We are not confident.*
7	S3	*Speaking English is not urgent. Thinking like native speaker is very important.*
8	R	*What do you want to learn from College English courses?*

9	S 1	*I want to learn oral English.*
10	S 2	*Listening and Speaking.*
11	S 3	*I want to pass the CET 4 and CET6.*
12	S 4	*I want to learn English speaking and translation.*
12	R	*Do you think you have already learned what you expected from the classes?*
13	S 1	*Learn English with the textbook and focus on the examination. I will be fine. I also want to study interpretation, but I do not think I could learn it from the classes. So I could find other opportunities to study interpretation.*
14	S 2	*We need to address the problems in reality which is to pass the exam. I hope teacher can teach more grammar and use L1 to explain it. It is easier to understand.*

(R refers to researcher)

Excerpt Forty-Three, shows that the majority of the students' said the purpose of English learning is to pass the examinations (Segment,4,6,11). This partly explained why they expected to study the College English textbooks (Segment13,14). This purpose of learning tended to shape the students' expectations in the class, and it included their expectations of the teacher. From the students' perceptions, the teachers are perceived as the ones who have the best knowledge about the examination. This is different from knowledge of the content, TL or teaching approach, it is about knowledge of what will be tested in CETs. In addition, some of students also raised the point about learning oral English (E17, 10.11.13); but as one of students said, speaking appears to be less urgent in contrast to passing the CET 4 and CET 6 at the stage of College English. To some extent, this finding echoes what was found in the Chapter 5 that speaking is marginalized in contrast with the other four language skills (Figure Six). Further, from the institutional stance, T3 stated that *"English is an integral part… University is not able to decide how students use of English in the future and students have multiple purposes…. We provide a platform for them to learn English*". (Cited from the Excerpt Eleven). In my understanding, "use of English in the future" is the purpose of learning, and this includes students' communicative competence. Institution B provided a platform of learning, but it appears to be a distortion of English teaching and learning. That is, students learn English for multiple purposes, but no matter what their purposes are, Institution B is responsible for teaching English as an integral part of Higher Education. Put it simply, it is a compulsory subject which is assessed by the exam. In such a situation, there appears to be no way for teachers to have other roles prescribed within communicative approach. Rather, the teacher's role is predetermined by the role of English in Higher Education and the educational system.

If a teacher's authoritative role is being predetermined, the teacher's TL proficiency is a matter of concern, because the teacher's TL proficiency is an important qualification for successful TL learning. In particular, teachers have to be adequately prepared to teach with

exclusive use of the TL if they hold the belief that a TL environment is necessary and that exclusive use of the TL more beneficial to college students' learning. It was found that the teacher's authority role is derived from a social and institutional position rather than their expertise in TL. However, it is acknowledged that the teachers' TL proficiency was not formally measured as part of the current study. It remains unclear whether teacher's TL proficiency is sufficient to teach College English with exclusive TL use. It would have been a challenge if I had made a request to test the teachers' TL proficiency at the start of my study. It is unlikely that such a request would have been accepted in a Confucius Heritage Culture (CHC) context where the teacher as a role model is culturally prescribed. Nevertheless, the frequency and quality of TL use examined in the Chapter 5 seem to show that the teachers' level of TL is limited in the skill of speaking. For example, T1's TL use was simplistic, and T3 and T4 used more L1 than TL. T2 appears to be an extreme case in terms of the quantity and quality of TL use. In the analysis of T2's Classroom Observations, it was found that his TL use significantly involved repetitions of simple utterances and the content of textbooks. His own TL use was based on the level of single words and phrases, and his genuine use of TL in a full sentence was rarely found. His fragmented use of the TL did not allow me to make sense of the rationale underpinning his limited switches between L1 and TL. This is the reason why fewer examples are taken from T2'a Classroom Observations in the analysis and use of excerpts in comparison to the other three teachers.

In sum, there appears to be a gap between teacher participants' TL proficiency and the minimum level needed to teach in the TL at tertiary level. As T3 described, "*We teach English in the way we always teach for many years*" (T3-Interview). In other words, teachers are not questioned regarding their TL proficiency if they teach in way they always do, and it appears not to have an impact on their role as a teacher. Teachers', students' and the Institutional stance appear to be consistent in limiting the development of students' communicative competence. The teachers' authoritative role tends to be secured by the role of English in the context of China, and the local educational system. In other words, whether teachers are qualified to manage a communicative approach and use the TL exclusively may not influence their roles. The last theme to be examined is the "culture" in College English classes from the cultural dimension which is seen to be woven through the previous findings.

6.4 Theme Four - Understanding Cultures in College English Classes

"Culture" in this theme refers to the target language (TL) culture, and the focus of the theme is on presenting the findings related to the teaching and learning of the TL culture. China's FLEPs defines teaching of the TL culture as an indispensable part of ELT at tertiary level. Learning of TL culture is particularly important to enhance students' intercultural competence (DA, Guidelines, 2017) so as to "allow students to manage communications with speakers from different cultures" (DA, Textbooks). The key source of cultural information in College English classrooms is the textbooks which are "Real Communication-An Integrated Course I and III". The first-year students use book "I" and the second-year students use the book "III". There is a section in each unit of the textbook, which is named "Reading across Cultures". This section contains a separate passage which focuses on various aspects of cultural life across the world. However, data from the Classroom Observations showed that this section was not systematically taught, and the teaching of the culture appeared to be subjective. The "subjectiveness" is shown in two dimensions. The first is teachers attached varying degrees of importance to the teaching of the TL culture, and the second is the TL "culture" is defined and interpreted by teachers themselves.

In contrast to T1 and T3, T2 and T4 mainly focused on cultural information introduced in the textbook. For example, one task in the textbook asks students to identify the country by recognition of featured types of house. In this case, the UK is represented by a semi-detached house. T4 had no idea what a semi-detached house was. T4 asked the students to match the country with the type of house and then checked the students' answers with the teaching material. T4 appeared not to be confident in talking about FL cultures as she had uncertainties herself. T2 presented the TL culture by playing movie excerpts attached to the textbook during the class or class break. However, he simply asked the students to pay attention to western countries' culture in the movie excerpts, but he did not clarify what the western culture was in the movie. Unlike T2 and T4, T1 and T3 introduced the "culture" of western countries by telling stories. However, the western cultural components were unclear, and they appeared not to be updated. An example is taken from T3's class which is shown in Excerpt Forty-Four:

Excerpt Forty-Four (T3-Classroom Observation):

Segment	T	Utterance
1	T3	Some years ago, I taught a story to my formal students about 20 year ago. The title of the passage was "the Present". The story went this way, an old lady, she was going to celebrate her 80 years old birthday. 80 years. She received a cheque from her daughter. *She received a cheque from her daughter*. A cheque, can you tell me what her feeling was? What her feeling was? She received a cheque from her daughter as a birthday gift. She was happy? No, she just torn it into pieces (repeat) and threw it into the bin. Why? Why? *This is a piece of cultural information. This is a story of the*

		American. The aged people in the USA have no problem with food and clothing. At the time, if Chinese parents received 5,000RMB cheque as a gift, even just hundreds of RMB, the purchasing power was high. Chinese parents would be more than please to receive a cheque. But in the US, it is quite a different pair of shoes. It is a different pair of shoes, and what they want is accompany.

In the Excerpt Forty-Four, T3 refers to a passage he taught 20 years ago and attempts to show that '*the elder American took priority of children accompany to their gifts*.' The story is about an elderly American lady who received a cheque as her birthday gift from her daughter, and she tore it into pieces. This is because she values her daughter's company more than receiving money. T3 defines the lady's behaviour in the story as cultural information which implied that '*children accompany is more important than money'*. The only evidence associated to the American context was a story that occurred in the USA 20 years ago. T3 did not explain why he defined the lady's behaviour as cultural information, and he made no comparison between the American lady's attitude towards the cheque with Chinese parents. This turned out to be his interpretation of the lady's behaviour, but the story itself seemed not to be necessarily embedded with western cultural components. Any aged person in any country may prefer their children's company to receiving money. This is not particularly the case for American people. This raised awareness that the authenticity of cultural issues is particularly important for the students in a FL context if the teacher is the source, transmitter and interpreter of other cultures.

6.5 Summary of the Chapter

I will summarize the findings in this chapter by synthesizing the themes that emerged in this chapter into Figure Eight which shows the interrelations between the themes which emerged (**Figure Eight**)

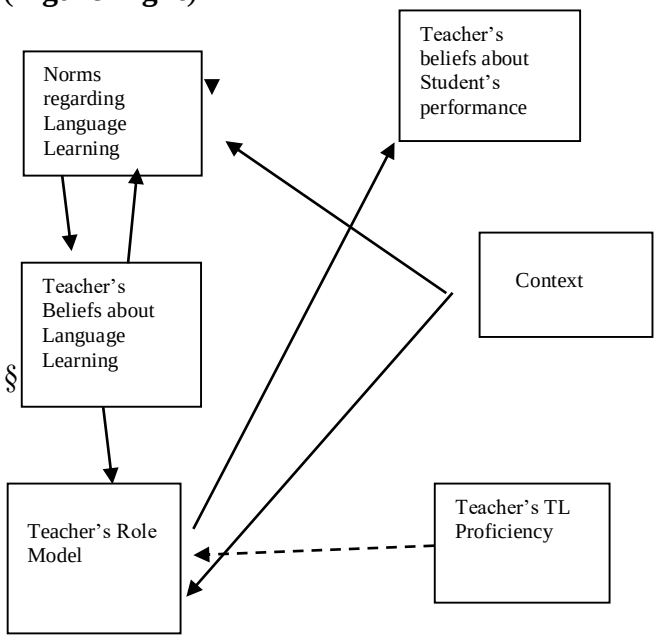

Figure Eight: Interrelations among Factors identified in findings

Due to the stark and persistent phenomenon of regional disparities in China, I narrowed down the current research context into a regional institution named as Institution B which is located in XX province in China. In previous analysis, it is found that ELT in Institution B appears not to be consistent with China's FLEPs regarding the purpose of English teaching and learning. FLEPs perceives English as a global language and the goals prescribed in FLEPs and the rationales underpinning the reforms for College English Tests (CETs) emphasize the development of students' communicative competence (Fang, 2010). However, adherence to English NS norms is found within the layer of the institution, teacher and student. The conformity to NS norms appears as a barrier for them to recognize English's status as a global language.

Conformity to NS norms and the teachers' beliefs about language learning appear to be two important factors that influence the teacher's pedagogical decisions. They mutually influence each other. On the one hand, the teachers perceive English NS proficiency as the goal of English learning, which is not attainable for students in a foreign language context; on the other hand, teachers tend to use English NSs' norm to judge the students' TL proficiency and they conclude that students' TL proficiency is at a low level.

The teachers tend to overemphasize the importance of the TL environment in the development of students' NS-like communicative competence. This raises tensions between an unattainable goal of English teaching and learning and the reality in College English classrooms where the TL environment is not accessible. It is challenging for teachers to develop a communication-based pedagogy in the current College English classes. Students are aware that the possibilities of learning oral English in the class are limited, and they may attend private English training schools to improve their English speaking. It appears to be clear that the students' purpose to attend College English classes is to pass the exam.

Data arising from the Classroom Observations show that repetition drills are extensively used in teaching listening and speaking. TL learning in the College English classes involve significant reinforcement of teachers' modelling which is supposed to enable students to respond quickly and accurately in communication in TL. The teachers' interviews suggest that all the teachers acted as role models for students' English learning. However, the findings showed that teachers appeared to be incapable of providing a model for students, as in a FL context a native speaker standard is not attainable by the students nor teachers. Despite three of the teachers having experience of staying in English -speaking countries, the length of stay appears not to have helped them with their TL proficiency. Rather, teachers' limited capability in the TL constrained opportunities for students' learning. This is the

reason why I use a dash line in Figure Eight (p.184) to demonstrate the relationship between the teacher's role as a model for their students and their TL proficiency. That is, teachers' TL proficiency is not compatible with teachers as role models in the current research context. The findings in this chapter raise several issues which will be further discussed in the next chapter. The next chapter is discussion chapter.

Chapter Seven – Discussion

7.0 Introduction

In the previous two chapters, patterns of the teachers' language use and a range of factors affecting teachers' language choices have been identified. In this chapter, I will discuss the findings with reference to the literature review. It is important to ascertain whether these factors are evident at various levels such as global, national and cultural levels, as well as the more specific regional, institutional and College English classes, the focus of this study. These levels are interrelated, and as found in the previous chapters, some factors such as teacher's beliefs and the institution appear to be more influential in contrast to other factors regarding teacher's use of the TL and L1. However, the teachers' language choice is not merely determined by any individual factor; rather a wide range of factors exert joint influences on the teachers' language choices. Therefore, I will continue to draw upon the Layer Model introduced in Chapter One to organize this chapter.

This chapter begins with a discussion of teachers' language choices, and then, I will draw on the Layer Model introduced in Chapter One to identify the key themes to be discussed. I will focus specifically on the interactions between adjacent layers which are found to exert influences on teachers' language choices to different extents. Therefore, the seven layers in the model will be categorized into four themes which include globalization related, province, institution-related factors, teacher-related factors and student-related factors. I will start with the first theme-Teachers' Language Use.

7.1 Theme One - Teachers' Language Use

In this theme, two sub-themes will be developed including teachers' use of the TL and teachers' use of the L1. In the analysis of the data, it was found that the use of the TL fulfilled relatively limited pedagogical functions in contrast with that of L1 use. The claim regarding College English teachers' TL proficiency was made based on a few pieces of evidence taken from the teachers' classroom observations. Although teacher's TL proficiency was not measured in the current study, there was evidence showing that College English teacher's TL proficiency appeared relatively restricted which seemed not to allow them to use TL to fulfil pedagogical goals. Furthermore, simplicity was a feature found in the teachers' TL use. The teaching approaches and the teachers' TL proficiency turned out to be key factors constraining TL use. Specifically, GTM was found to be extensively used in College English

classes even though it has been continually criticized for failing to develop students' communicative competence (Jin & Cortazzi, 2011).

7.1.1 Teachers' Use of the TL

The development of student's communicative competence stresses the importance of learning the TL through using it, and particularly, the teachers' TL use is of great importance in developing College students' communicative competence. As found in Chapter Five, the teachers' TL use was found mainly in four areas which are: classroom instructions; translations of their own utterances in L1; greeting students; checking for students' understanding and checking answers to their questions. This section will focus on discussions of teacher's TL use in these areas.

Before proceeding any further, it is important to provide details of three subcategories under the Category of Instructions which are: classroom management instruction, content-related instruction and procedural instruction for tasks (See Table Five, p.177). It may be helpful to point out that the definition of classroom management in FL classrooms needs to go beyond simple references to definitions given in studies on classroom management from a general education perspective. The classroom management in the FL classroom needs to be defined with consideration of distinctive characteristics with reference to local FL classrooms which have an immediate impact on the classroom management. Therefore, the definition will be given with reference to the findings of the current study which are related to features of College English classes. Furthermore, the current study is qualitative in nature and aimed to analyse and interpret what naturally occurred in the College English class. The teachers' TL use in classroom management emerged in the data analysis unexpectedly. Accordingly, a decision was made that the definition of the classroom management instructions would not be provided in the Literature Review Chapters, but in the discussion chapter.

Classroom Management Instruction

As was observed in Table Five (p.177), one of the key functions that the TL fulfilled was to give classroom instructions which mainly involved the establishment of clear rules in the class, directions to guide the learning, or explaining activities (Nation, 2003; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). TL is used as a medium for classroom instructions which is a unique feature of FL classrooms (Borg, 2006). However, it was found that TL use in classroom management tended to be highly overlapping with the function fulfilled by the L1. That is, teachers' TL

use was followed immediately by L1 equivalents, and both TL and L1 were used to open the lesson with the introduction of teaching objectives for the class by all four teachers. One example is provided from T4's class below, where the L1 instructions have been translated from the Chinese in italics:

Excerpt Forty-Five (T4-Classroom Observation):

Line	T4	Utterance	
1		we are continuing to deal with some language points. That is some phrases	TL
2		and the words. I fwe have more time, we will deal with one of the exercises. And next part of	TL
3		the class,we will begin the second passage of the unit one.	TL
4		*Wo men jin tian de ren wu, jiu gang cai suo shuo de, wo men di yi jie ke ba di yi dan yuan mei jiang*	L1-equivalence
5		*wan de duan yu he dan ci gei da jia guo yi bian, you shi jian jiu you yi g eke hou lian xi. Di er jie ke, wo*	L1-equivalence
6		*Men kai shi jiang* B *pian.*	L1-equivalence

Excerpt Forty- Five was a class opening given by T4, and it can be seen that T4 started with TL which was then followed immediately by the L1. By doing so, she intended to "*make sure they know about what they are going to learn and get themselves ready for learning"* (T4-Interview). On this occasion, what the teacher valued most was the clarification of learning objectives and tasks rather than the use of the TL (Batesman, 2008, p,19). Otherwise, she maintained, students may feel get lost, and consequently, would be likely to lose interest in learning (Kang, 2008). Further, as seen in the excerpt (Line1, 2,3), T4's opening involved long sentences. TL use followed by immediate L1 could render the inputs salient and make them easier to comprehend for learners (Turnbull &Arnett, 2002). Similarly, this pattern was also found in the delivery of procedural instructions and examples (Appendix Three). TL use seemed to be irrespective of whether teachers believed in its actual effectiveness as a source of input of TL learning. Rather, L1 was used as a compensatory strategy to avoid comprehension problems of the instruction in TL. What interested me was the pattern that the teachers' TL use followed by L1 was not found in content-related instructions, that is, where TL was exclusively used by teachers in giving content-related instructions.

Content-related instruction

Stoller (2002) defined "content" as "a resource for learning and improving language". In the current study, the "content" in College English class is mainly associated to the textbook and the task which was key source of the analysis and exercise. Specifically, the teachers' content-relevant instruction predominantly involved teacher questioning which can be defined as an important way to direct, guide, inspire and control students' participation in the learning process (Harmer, 2007). Students were being asked text-related and task-related comprehension questions which are routine teaching questions in the language classroom

(Spada & Lightbown ,1993). Questioning in content-relevant instruction emerged as an important feature in the current study. One example was demonstrated in Excerpt Forty-Six below which was taken from T1's class:

Excerpt Forty-Six (T1-Classroom Observation):

Line	T/S	Utterance	
1	T1	According to the passage, does he like the tutor?	TL
2	S	No	TL
3	T1	Not at all, "without waiting for the answer and moves. He takes a sip of coffee".	TL

Excerpt Forty-Six is an example of text analysis in T1's class. In accordance with the findings of Chapter Five, the textbook content appeared predominantly to occupy the majority of the lesson time. As seen in the excerpt above, T1 posed a question in the TL to check students' comprehension of the detail of the text (Line 1); subsequently she gave positive feedback to the student's response (Line 3). However, it could be argued that her feedback in the TL was not genuinely produced by herself but repeated using language from the passage. It can be seen in the excerpt above, students' immediate responses to T1' s question (Line 2) suggested that they understood the question and no L1 was needed to aid their comprehension. T1's feedback with a repetition of the text (Line 3) implied a positive confirmation of the student's response. Furthermore, previous findings imply that class discourse in College English class was predominantly confined to I-R-F, and teacher questioning was a significant feature of the pattern. To some extent, this finding coincides with what was found previously, that is, the teachers' content-relevant instruction in the TL significantly involved questioning. The TL was used in dealing with the content-relevant instruction seemed not to be spontaneously produced but confined to language of the text.

According to what has been found in relation to the teachers' TL use in giving instructions, there did not appear to be great linguistic demands made on the teachers. On one hand, teachers used the TL followed immediately by L1for the delivery of classroom management instructions; on the other hand, instructions were provided in a way which conformed to the I-R-F pattern with a particular focus on questioning. The teachers' TL use in this area revealed that College English classes were predominantly focused on the textbooks and language tasks prescribed in them.

Fulfilment of managerial purpose is a key function of TL and its use is inspiring as it prepares learners with opportunities for "natural" communication (Kim &Elder,2005) by incorporating TL use into classroom routines with which students are familiar. Nation (2003) described TL use in classroom management as an effective opportunity for learning through meaning focused input (P.2). However, the way teachers used the TL seemed not necessarily to take advantages of these opportunities. As seen in the excerpts above, teachers used TL

and L1 interchangeably to avoid comprehension issues. Alternatively, teacher's TL was text-based which also may not have caused any difficulties for students' comprehension. There seemed to be few opportunities offered to students to learn from the TL input. On the one hand, teachers attempted to facilitate students' comprehension by providing L1 equivalence and students would have less opportunities to hear and learn from the TL; on other hand, students seemed to have little incentives to negotiate the meaning of language that was not comprehended before.

Teachers' concerns regarding exclusive TL use and students' reactions emerged in the data analysis, and as T4 said in her interview, "*they (students) are quiet, if they do not understand what I am saying...they feel boring and play with the mobile phone*" (T4-Interview). This, it could be argued, indirectly touched upon an issue which is seen as one of the many challenges that tend to be exclusive to the FL classrooms. That is, students' unwillingness to communicate in the target language or who respond inaudibly (Wadden and McGovern,1991). As described by T4 in the interview a short extract of which is mentioned above, students tended to be quiet when they felt the class was having difficulty to catch up (Lai, 1994). This is consistent with what I found in the students' interviews, and I quote one student's response which was in agreement with other students. As he explained, "*I do know what to respond if I do not understand what the teacher said. L1 equivalence is helpful, and I do not want to make it wrong*" (Student-Interview). The literature defines student's choice to remain silent as "Unwillingness to communicate" (UWTC) (Burgoon, 1976; Liu & Jackson, 2008; MacIntyre &Legatto, 2011). A number of factors have been identified that lead to student's silence in the FL classroom (Cao, 2011; MacIntyre &Legatoo, 2011). One factor is student's TL proficiency or their perception of their proficiency (MacIntyre et al.,1998; Freiermuth & Jarrel, 2006). As seen from the quotation of the student's interview mentioned above, difficulties occurring in understanding the teacher's utterance in the TL would affect student's willingness to communicate. Consequently, students may feel bored (Cao, 2011). Further, as noted in previous chapters, student's responses to teacher's questions tended to be brief and simple. To some extent, this could imply that students' capability to express themselves in the TL is inadequate which impedes their production of the TL. It may be reasonable to argue that student's TL proficiency in College English class predominantly hinder their comprehension and production in classroom interaction. It has caused student's unwillingness to communicate in the class.

Cao (2011) warned that students' lower level of willingness to communicate is the result of a combination of factors related to the particular classroom context. Another factor is

classroom interactional pattern. In College English class, the classroom interactional pattern mainly involved teacher-fronted activities, specifically involving the teacher asking a question to the whole class. The student's response in the interview seems to imply that they worry about losing face when giving incorrect answers in front of their classmates. In other words, the teacher-student interactional pattern in the class may provoke students' anxiety as a result of peer pressure. Therefore, students chose to be silent to avoid "losing face" in front of the whole class. As a result of the students' TL proficiency and classroom interactional patterns, students may be less willing to take part in communication and remain silent (Liu & Jackson, 2008).

In spite of extensive demand for TL use to manage all the aspects in FL classrooms, L1 seemed to be inseparable from teacher participants' TL use. As demonstrated above, teacher participants still tended to use the L1 to enhance the effectiveness of their instruction in classroom management, and to ensure better control of the learning environment in reducing ambiguity and saving time (Macaro, 2001). Furthermore, as noted in Chapter Five, the second category of teachers' TL use is about the translation of their utterances in L1. That is, teacher participants use L1 and then TL equivalence ensued. This category echoed the functional use of the L1 in the category of the Translation which is illustrated in Table Five. Translations involving TL use are found to be relevant to translation exercises of sentences, proverbs and TL equivalence to vocabulary. Unlike the pattern identified previously where a teacher's use of the TL was followed by the L1 equivalence whose purpose was to aid students' comprehension of the instruction, TL equivalence seemed to be provided at random by the teacher participants as an option to maximise the use of TL so as to establish an input-rich environment which is believed to be desirable (Rolin-Ianziti &Varshney, 2008) in the FL classroom. However, an input-rich environment should entail optimal opportunities for meaningful use of the TL (Kim &Elder, 2008) rather than the teacher's unplanned and inconsistent use of the TL. In instructional processes, the teacher's TL is not only a source of comprehensible input but a facilitator of meaningful interaction (Kim &Elder, 2008) which seemed in this study to be unrecognized in teacher-student interactions.

Although this theme is about teacher's TL use, their L1 played a role in teacher's TL use in classroom management and translation. It either followed the teacher's TL use or the teachers provided TL equivalences to their utterances in L1. The rationale underlying their actions may be different but L1 appeared to be inseparably used with the teachers' TL. It is evident that there is more than one way for teachers to aid students' comprehension such as interactional modification of TL (Long, 1996; Pica, 2000) in interaction with students. L1

use was found to be predominantly used to address perceived issues regarding students' comprehension, and it consequently casts doubt over the teachers' pedagogical knowledge of FL teaching. As the literature suggests, experienced teachers may at least have four to five years of teaching experience (Binnie-Smith, 1996; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000). All teacher participants have taught TL over 10 years which enables them to be defined as experienced teachers. Gatbonton (2008) perceived teacher development as a continuum and experienced teachers are situated in the later stages in contrast to novice teachers. Thus, it is assumed that the experienced teacher's pedagogical knowledge entails more stable elements. That is, the stability arises when teacher participants deal with recurring issues regularly (Gatbonton, 2008) like compensating for students' lack of comprehension in the TL. As a result, they are likely to retain what they believe works for the students. In the College English class, there were certain variables among the teachers' TL use but L1 equivalence seemed to be retained by all four teacher participants as an effective means to address perceived students' lack of comprehension. In spite that Bereiter & Scardamalia (1993) warned, teacher's experience should not be immediately considered equal to their expertise, students' responses seemed to indicate that the teachers' use of TL and L1 together works with College English students. As students claimed in the interview: "*L1 equivalence is helpful*" (Student -Interview). This pattern seemed to imply that teacher's teaching experience have impacts on their use of the TL and L1.

Furthermore, teachers' TL use involved the translation of teachers' utterances which are seen as typical clusters of practices in the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) (Richard & Rodgers, 2014). GTM appeared to not only result in a fixed pattern of TL use followed by L1, but it also brought implications and consequences for aspects as interaction patterns, and the teachers' role. For example, the dominance of I-R-F classroom interaction and the teacher's domination of questioning have been identified in the current study. The findings discussed in the previous chapter also imply that the extensive use of GTM is positively associated with socio-cultural elements such as the culture of learning and local appropriateness.

In the theme of teacher's TL use, it is found that teachers either referred to TL in the textbook or resorted to L1 use as an efficient shortcut in addressing student's possible incomprehension. Teachers' TL use mainly involved classroom management which can potentially create a "foreign language atmosphere by using it to perform the normal business" of the classroom (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009.p.31). However, the GTM appeared to be a barrier to exclusive teacher TL use. This is not to suggest that there is an insurmountable divide between the teachers' use of the GTM and the development of student's communicative competence. Nor is it a call to abandon the GTM as it is recognised that the

exam remains the principal goal for college students at this stage. However, an appropriate balance of the GTM and other communicative approaches is crucial if the development of students' communicative proficiency is still deemed to be part of the teaching and learning. Otherwise, it is likely that students' exposure to TL is insufficient for the development of their communicative competence. Examples of the teachers used L1 when encountered comprehension issue implied that teachers seem to lack strategies to rephrase or modify their speech.

7.1.2 Teachers' Use of the L1

In the previous chapter, L1 was found to be extensively used in College English classes. The key areas of L1 use are in classroom management instruction; instruction regarding strategies for completion of listening tasks; translation and memorization of vocabulary; translation, grammar instruction; analysis of learning problems; comprehension checking; rapport-building; and instruction of cultural issues. These functions fulfilled by the L1 have been acknowledged in studies conducted in various contexts (Cook, 2001; Levine, 2011; Nikula, 2007; Van der Meij & Zhao, 2010), For example, Cook (2001) provides details of specific situations in which he believed the L1 could be used, such as to check meanings of words, explain grammar, organize tasks and give directions, maintain discipline, administer tests, and carry out classroom group activities. Copland and Neokleous (2012) reported eleven functions of L1 used by teachers including translation and explaining language systems and skills. Teachers also used the L1 for medium-oriented goals to explain the meaning of new words (Kim &Elder, 2005, 2008). Mitchell & Liu (2004) found that teachers used L1 as the most common reason for explaining difficult grammar. In the current study, L1 was found to fulfil the functions demonstrated in the literature aforementioned. However, teachers like T1, T2 and T4 tended to use the L1 as a normal part of the English language class, because they were not able to justify their L1 use in interviews.

If the pedagogic function of L1 in TL teaching and learning has not been fully acknowledged by teacher participants, they may not be able to capture the opportunities within which L1 may support students in the interaction. Excerpt Forty- Seven is an example showing that the teacher seemed to fail to recognize the cognitive function fulfilled by L1, and opportunities to support students' cognition in TL were missed.

Excerpt Forty-Seven (T4-Classroom Observation):

Line	T/S	Utterance
1	T4	Question 4 why do you love and respect your parents? Why? How do you answer this question? If this

2		Question 4 is given to you, what would you say about that? Do you think we should love and respect …?
3	S1	Yes.
4	T4	Yes, and why? *We can answer this question from different perspectives*. First, what is your relationship
5		with your parents? How did you come to the world? How did you come to the world? Do you remember
6		your birthday? Yes, so first, we can say, parents give our lives. They give birth to us, and then, how did
7		you grow up? How did you grow up? You grow up by yourself (Laughing).
8	S1	Take care.
9	T4	yeah, taken care by your parents. So that is to say, how we say *they yang yu wo men (L1 equivalence to bring up)?*
10	S	Bring up.
11	T4	yeah, very good, bring up or raise. Raise is ok *which is similar to bring up*. Bring up, they bring us up.

Excerpt Forty-Seven is taken from T4's class which shows examples from a communicative activity. The topic was "love and respect of parents". T4 started the conversation with a series of questions (Line 1-2) moving from referential questions to display ones. It seems to be reasonable to assume that students in the class should have their own opinions regarding love and respect for their parents. However, it is seen that students' responses to questions eliciting their opinions were fairly short (Line 3, 8). It is noticeable that T4's questioning started with referential questions but ended with display ones (Line 1-2). Consequently, students had to respond with a "yes" (Line 3) which implied the meaning of the topic was gradually negotiated by T4 and students (Line 4-8). However, further turns of T4 seemed to deviate from the purpose of the communication in TL (Line9-11) but were used to check students' comprehension of the vocabulary.

"Love and respect of parents" is a topic that students know about and familiarity with the topic has been found to positively associate with the amount of meaning negotiation (Rahimpour & Hazar, 2018). In the situation arising in Excerpt Forty-Seven, L1 could possibly have been used to scaffold students to develop deeper thinking and organize their ideas (Anton & DiCamilla,1998) regarding the topic they have familiarity with so as to extend the length of their response and enhance the quality of their oral expression (Turnbull &Arnett, 2002). T4 appeared not to realize that L1 might play a cognitive role to facilitate communication in TL. In the follow-up interview, T4 explained that "raise *and* bring up *are two keys in CET4 and I just wanted to raise students' attention to them. Some of students did so and then wrote the answer down. Not all of students did so*" (T4-Interview). Before proceeding to further analysis, it may be helpful to explain what T4 meant by "did so" in the interview. "Did so" means some students translated their thoughts from L1 to TL before responding to teachers' questions which implies the cognitive role that L1 perhaps played in the students' production of language, but T4 seemed not to recognize the potential cognitive

benefits of L1 in the interaction with students. Instead, she shifted to questions about TL equivalence (Line 9-10) which could be said to lead to inconsistency regarding the purpose of communicative activity. The reason she sought TL equivalence was to raise students' attention to key vocabularies. A similar pattern was found in T3's class.

Translation was a frequent exercise in all four teachers' classes as translation is a key component of CETs and the final examination. Translation in College English classes has been perceived as a the "fifth" skill (Malmkjær,1998) besides reading, writing, listening and speaking that College students need to acquire. An example is taken from T3's class which is presented in Excerpt Forty-Eight:

Excerpt Forty-Eight (T3-Classroom Observation):

Line	T	Utterance
1	T3	Making good use of some expressions and grammar. The expression points and grammar from the text. This is.
2		true for all these five units. This is true for all these five units. That is to say, whenever we finish a passage
3		……you should have ability to make use of some important points. I mean language points
4		or grammatical points. Point out some of these points for your future use, for your future use. Especially
5		when you write and doing translation tasks. otherwise, many of you, many of you
6		often complain that I have good ideas. yet I have great difficulty expressing my ideas.

Excerpt Forty-Eight was an example of text analysis in T3's class. Unlike what T3 highlighted previously that translation as a means of TL learning in the current study raised students' language awareness through making comparisons between TL and L1. In the Excerpt Forty-Eight, it is suggested that translation will enhance students' input of TL by drawing their attention to the specific features of TL and ultimately facilitating the uptake of grammatical rules (Cummins, 2007). In Excerpt Forty-Eight, T3 explicitly underlined that part of the goal of learning was to accumulate grammatical points for future use in writing and translation tasks (Line 3-5) which are compulsory for the examinations. In the current study, translation seemed to play a dual role. It is the goal of learning on one hand, and a means of learning to enhance students' awareness of differences between the L1 and TL. However, not all the translation activities could be said to facilitate students' TL learning. One example is given in Excerpt Forty-Seven, and T4 used translation as a means to elicit the equivalence of TL (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009). Translation seemed to be used as the stimulus aiming to check students' knowledge of "bring up".

L1 was also extensively used to explain grammar points which is seen as the core of English learning at all stages of English education in China. In Chapter One, China's educational

system is outlined (Figure Three). Chinese students generally start to learn English in primary school; the length of primary school is six years from Grade one to Grade six. Usually, Chinese students start to learn English at Grade three, although the starting year of English learning can vary within different regions. Students in the current study started at Grade three, and which indicates that students may have obtained a relatively wide repertoire of grammatical knowledge before their attendance at College English classes. In T4's interview, she claimed that "*students are better at grammar than other aspects of English"*. Grammar learning seems to be a continuum of learning in stages, and it lays the foundation for College English teachers to introduce more complex grammar involving morphology, syntactic analysis and prefix. The complexity of grammar causes difficulties for teachers to make the grammatical knowledge comprehensible through the TL (Edstrom, 2006). That is to say, the complexity of the grammar introduced in College English classes led to teachers' use of the L1 in the class.

Teachers' use of the L1 and the TL in the current study is found to be similar to previous studies (Duff &Polio, 1990; Edstrom, 2006; Turnbull, 2001). L1 seems to be accorded a greater status than the TL in College English classrooms (Table Five). It was also found that considerable commonalities arose among the four teacher participants in terms of their use of the L1 and TL. This is in conflict with a number of studies which found marked variabilities of teachers' L1 use (Peng &Zhang, 2009; Raschka, Sercombe &Chi-Ling, 2009; Turnbull &Arnett, 2000), even in the same institution (Gurthrie, 1983). Teachers' use of the TL and the L1 could not be said to be individualized in the research context, as it was found that teachers shared similar beliefs regarding the use of TL in teaching and learning. The similarity of teachers' beliefs appears to contribute to the commonalities of their language use. To gain further insights into the factors driving College English teachers' language use, the next theme will look at teachers' beliefs.

7.2 Theme Two - Teachers' Beliefs

Perceptions of language learning and teaching have a significant impact on all aspects of the language teaching profession. That is, it is an important concept to understand teachers' teaching practice (Richardson, 2003) regarding their language choice. In particular, it has been found that teacher participants' beliefs can be considered a powerful tool for them in making pedagogical decisions about the use of the L1 and TL (Levine, 2003). In teachers' interviews, it was found that teacher participants explicitly articulated their beliefs regarding the best way of TL learning. That is, students should be exposed to the TL, and the importance of TL environment was acknowledged by all teacher participants. However,

teachers' articulated beliefs appear not to be consistent with their classroom practices (Karavas-Doukas, 1996) in terms of language use. Previously, L1 has been found predominantly used in contrast with the TL use in College English classes. Teacher's beliefs in areas including English Native Speaker (NS) Norms and best way of TL learning potentially caused inconsistencies between teachers' articulated beliefs and their practice. Therefore, this theme will include two key subthemes which are teacher's beliefs of English Native Speakers (NSs) Norms, and teachers' beliefs of learning. I would like to start with the discussion of teacher's beliefs about language norms.

7.2.1 Teacher's Beliefs of English Native Speakers (NSs) Norms

From the Classroom Observations, it was found that TL was mainly used to serve functions such as giving instruction, classroom management and students' comprehension checks in the College English classrooms. Although almost all the teachers recognized the importance of using TL and holding a belief that students' exposure to TL environment is essential for TL learning, their TL use was used for fewer functions in contrast to L1 use in classroom. As Kim & Elder (2008) explained, the TL environment is important because teachers believe the best way of learning is to learn in a natural way in communication with English NSs in the real world. But this may not necessarily happen in a classroom setting. As found in the current study, teachers appeared to have little faith in exclusive TL use. The causes appear complicated but one of the explanations could be that teachers and students hold strong beliefs regarding the desirability of English Native Speakers (NSs) norms in many specific areas of teaching and learning. Excerpt Forty-Nine below is an example to show that English NSs norms appear to be ideologically maintained among the teacher and students.

Excerpt Forty-Nine (T3-Classroom Observation):

Line	S/T	Utterance
1	S1	*In communication with the foreigners, they used different intonations and tones. There were liaisons and*
2		*plosion and I cannot understand what they are talking about.*
3	T3	*Ok, sit down, please. If we* communicate with native speakers of English, we may have difficulty understanding
4		their pronunciation, intonation and something else. For instance, liaison, *the problem is we do not have context,*
5		*we do not have context to experience them…*

In Excerpt Forty-Nine, students asked questions about how to address difficulties in understanding "foreigners" pronunciation (Line 1). "Foreigners" refer to English NSs as students clarified in follow-up interviews. It was interesting to find that T3 equated

"foreigners" to "native speakers of English" (Line 3) without checking with students if this was what they had meant. It seems that T3 and students shared a common assumption that foreigners are English NSs. Furthermore, "communication with the foreigners" (Line 1) is immediately interpreted as communications with English NSs (Line 2). As a result, English NSs norms are perceived as a reference regarding phonology in College English classes (Line 3-4). However, as introduced in Chapter One, English nowadays has been acknowledged as a global language, used by a wide variety of speakers of other languages and is considered as an essential means of international communication. As Crystal (2012) claims, the population of non-native English speakers outweighs English NSs, and communication in English takes place among people across national boundaries (Seidlhofer,2004). That is, English is mainly used in communications among non-English NSs. Further, theoretically, the notion of "lingua franca" (Jenkins, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2005) has also raised questions about English NSs norms with particular focus on the American and British varieties which are internationally promoted and accepted (Adamson, 2004).

A broader acknowledgement of English as a global language seems not to have been realized by teachers and students in Institution B and that the pedagogic relevance of ELT regarding conformity to English NSs norms is to be questioned (Bolton, 2003) for at least three reasons. The first is that English NSs norms tend to be "invalidated in accounting for learning and using an international language in cross-cultural setting" (Alptekin, 2002, p.63). Secondly, the adherence to English NNs norms raises challenges practically as T3 attributed students' incomprehension of English NSs' pronunciation to the lack of exposure to a TL environment (Line 4-5). It has been acknowledged that classroom teaching remains as the major means of English learning in the FL context (Horwitz, 2012) within which the opportunities for TL contact outside the classroom is limited (Savignon,2018). Lastly, Kirkpatrick (2007a) makes a strong argument that English NSs, or English NSs-like levels of competence are unattainable for FL learners. Learners may achieve these levels only if they stay in English speaking countries for a long time or are taught by English native-speaking teachers. This is almost impossible for students in Institution B. In Excerpt Forty-Nine, T3's adherence to English NSs norm turned out to be an impediment to develop students' pronunciation. However, it was interesting to find another example in T3's class which also implies his adherence to English NSs norms. The example is demonstrated in Excerpt Fifty below:

Excerpt Fifty (T3-Classroom Observation):

Line	T	Utterance
1	T3	The following…, can be used for reference. *We must read extensively so as*
2		*to enable us to understand vocabulary and grammatical structures the same way as native speakers do…*

Excerpt Fifty is an example taken from the Integrated English course and the focus was text analysis. As seen in the excerpt, T3 encouraged students to read extensively so as to acquire what he assumed would be an English NSs-like understanding of vocabularies and grammar. T3 appeared to place a high premium on adherence to grammatical norms of English NSs. There was consensus on the adherence of English NSs norms among the four teachers even though the teachers did not explicitly talk about the norms they preferred in the class. B.

If the goal of learning is to develop students' English NSs proficiency or English NSs-like proficiency (Kim &Elder, 2005), student's exposure to the TL environment is essential to achieve this goal. From the teachers' standpoint, this raised challenges to them regarding their proficiency in TL. Specifically, the adherence to English NSs norms requires local teachers to acquire English NSs proficiency, or English NSs-like levels of competence which enables them to be the representatives of native speakers in the classroom. This can put immense strain on teachers. In the current study, teachers' proficiency in the TL was not methodologically measured due to ethical considerations. However, the analysis of the distributional function of teachers' TL use and their language use in classroom interaction in Chapter Five seems to imply that the teachers' TL proficiency was not at English NSs level or near that level. This was an issue raised by teachers in their interviews (T1, T4-Interviews). As T4 stated, "*I am not English native speaker after all, and I am not able to express myself like them*" (T4-Interview). However, as found in previous chapter that the primary goal of English teaching and learning at this stage in Institution B remained to pass the CET 4 and the final exam within which grammatical knowledge is at the core. If this were the case, teachers' L1 use seemed to fulfil the goal of TL learning in Institution B, and they may not necessarily acquire English NSs proficiency, or English NSs-like levels of competence. Further, EFL teachers' TL proficiency is a broad concept which entails a number of components including teachers' pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of SLA theories and curricula and syllabus as well as the TL culture (Pachler, Evans &Lawes, 2007), and teacher's proficiency in TL is one of them. As Choi and Lee (2016) claimed, teachers' proficiency in TL alone does not necessarily lead to successful language teaching and learning. Excerpt Forty-Nine and Excerpt Fifty imply that the adherence to English NSs norms seemed not to be equally applied to help students improve their pronunciation. As T3 claimed, "pronunciation *is not a problem if you understand each other in the communication*" (T3-Classroom Observation). However, English NSs norms remained to be a reference in developing students' grammatical competence. Teacher's adherence to English NSs norms could also be seen in evaluating students' TL proficiency. An example is given in Excerpt Fifty-One:

Excerpt Fifty-One (T1-Classroom Observation):

Line	T	Utterance
1	T1	How to say "ta de wu bi wo tiao de hao"? (Literally it means his dance is better than me). How to say? You
2		*may* say she dances better than mine or better than me. English NSs *are likely to say* she is a much better
3		dancer than me. She is a much better dancer than me".

Excerpt Fifty-One is from a translation exercise, where T1 compared students' translation with "English NSs" (Line 2). There were some murmured answers from students that T1 had picked up (Line 1-2). It can be seen that translation insisting on the native speaker norm was an assumption made by T1; she evaluated students' responses with reference to English NSs norms, with the likely result of misconceptions regarding students' real level of proficiency but also perhaps a misconception of what the grammatical norms of English NSs actually are.

Conformity to English NSs' norms also indicates that English speakers' 'English' from Outer-Circle and Expanding Circle countries (Kachru, 1986) appears not to be recognized. In an era of globalization, the populations of English users from the Outer Circle and Expanding Circle countries (Kachru, 1986) far outnumber English NSs from the Inner Circle countries (Canagarajah, 2007; Crystal, 2003) which results in the global diversity of English-es but that has not been recognized by the teachers in Institution B. As Hall (2014) suggested, multiple English-es have not been legitimized by teachers in many contexts as they believe that English NS norms should be the standard for TL learning. In China, two types of standard English have been extensively used as the construct of the English exams which are American and British English (Davies, 2009; Hamp-Lyons & Davies, 2008). Therefore, these two varieties are perceived as the only legitimate models of English teaching and learning.

In sum, teachers in the current study showed their conformity to English NS norms with a focus on grammar teaching. Students' communicative competence is essential for English learning, but there may not necessarily be a need to speak TL with English NS norm or near English NS standards of pronunciation. I again quote one teacher's comments that "pronunciation *is not a problem if you understand each other in the communication*" (T3-Classroom Observation). On the other hand, the primary goal of learning for College English students is primarily to pass the CET4 and final exams showing mastery of the productive skills as writing and translation which are found to be the core of learning in this context. Thus, a high level of accuracy in English teaching remains the focus, because students have

to use the grammar flawlessly (Swan, 2018) in the exams. The adherence to English NS norms seems to be a matter of choice, which is determined by contextual factors such as national education system and pedagogic tradition. The evolution of English 's global status seems to have nothing to do with the choices that are made in this context. In such a situation, teachers' adherence to English NS norms in terms of accurate use of the grammar can be assumed more likely to promote teachers' use of the L1 rather than the TL.

7.2.2 Teachers' Beliefs of Learning

In previous chapters, the notion of "Practice Makes Perfect" was found extensively articulated in response to students' questions regarding how to learn English (T1, T3-Classroom Observation). Learning theory underlying this notion is Behaviourism which is a general theory of learning, and it is not necessarily related to learning English as a FL. As a general learning theory, behaviourism learning theory has been found to be applied to learning various subjects in China. As introduced in the Chapter One, English was introduced as a FL to China with other western subjects as chemistry and military theory. English, as a subject, was taught almost in the same way as other western subjects. The use of behaviourism in learning English has historical and cultural roots since its introduction in China (Tan & Chua, 2015).

Zhang Zhidong (1837-1909), the advocator of the Westernization Movement (*Yang Wu Yun Dong*,1861-1895), proposed the idea "*Zhong xue wei ti, xi xue wei yong*". "*Zhong xue*" refers to the core of Confucius culture, and "*Wei ti*" refers to the application of western technology. It literally means China's traditional culture should be preserved while building up the nation's power by learning from the West (Pepper, 1996). As the statement suggests, learning from the West will not allow many changes or challenges towards Chinese traditional culture. Constructivism, which upholds the replacement of teacher's role as the centre of knowledge (Boghossian,2006) seems to be in tension with Confucius Heritage Culture (CHC). Within behaviourism, learning is a result of interaction between stimulus and response (Alissa, 2003). That is, the teacher's verbal input is the stimulus to trigger students' output as the response (Budiman, 2017). Therefore, the teacher's role is to control the stimulus while students tend to be receptive. As shown in previous chapters, activities as "Reading after me" is routinized as a part of the College English class. It is found to be applied extensively to deal with tasks from the articulation of "plosion" sounds to dialogues about "greet with each other". This was particularly found in T1's class which entailed a great deal of repetition drills. For example, she exemplified liaisons with an English lullaby

named “Twinkle, Twinkle, Little Star. She asked students to repeat singing the lullaby to acquire the articulation of the sound. T1 also incorporated behaviourism with communicative activity. Excerpt Fifty-Two is an example taken from T1’s class which showed the incorporation of behaviourism into communicative activity.

Excerpt Fifty-Two (T1-Classroom Observation):

Line	T/S	Utterance
1	T1	How to show surprise? Read after me, really?
2	S	Really
3	T1	No kidding.
4	S	No kidding.
5	T1	Imagine that.
6	S	Imagine that.
7	T1	You can’t be serious.
8	S	You can’t be serious.

Excerpt Fifty-Two was learning to express “Surprise”. T1 played a video clip of an American movie in the class, and then displayed a power point which included all the phrases shown in Excerpt Fifty-Two. Then, every single phrase was repeated by T1 and students three times. These expressions shown in the Excerpt Fifty-Two were perceived as “authentic language” by T1 (T1-Interview), because they were taken from the American Movie. However, they were not practised in dialogue but decontextualized into repetition drills of individual phrase. This deprives students of understanding the meaning of these phrases from the communicative “context” (Gee, 2014) that may make sense about the actual use of these phrases as a part of the communication. It raised my question as to why T1 equated repetition drills such as the one demonstrated in Excerpt Fifty-Two to a communicative activity. Excerpt Fifty-Three was taken from T1’s interview within which she provided an explanation.

Excerpt Fifty-Three (T1- Interview):

Line	R/T	Utterance
1	**R**	*I noticed the “read after me” activity and do you have any considerations in applying this activity*?
2	**T1**	*“Read after me”, if not, how do students “open their mouth” [practice spoken English]. It is firstly a traditional*
3		*way of teaching. I do not realize it if you do not ask about it. This is a really particular traditional teaching*
4		*technique. Like our Chinese people, we learn Chinese and we learn Three Character Classic*.
5	**R**	*Read after the teacher. Teacher read one sentence and we followed.*
6	**T1**	*Yes. Read after the teacher. Now, I am learning Russian, and I do the same thing. If we do not have target language*
7		*environment, we do not have choices but imitation, imitation is the best way to learn. If you are in TL* environment
8		*you imitate people around and you also produce output.*
9	**R**	*So, you mean, “read after me” is a compensation for the lack of exposure to the TL and it is a stimulus for students’ output. Is this what you mean*?
10	**T1**	*Yes, I believe so*.

In Excerpt Fifty-Three, T1 explained that the purpose of "Read after me "activity aimed to let students "open their mouth" which literally means practise "spoken English" (Line 1-2). From T1's perspective, this is a traditional teaching method not only for learning English but Chinese and Russian (Line 4, 6). Specifically, learners are likely to acquire the language via imitations which she perceived as the best way of learning (Line 7). It may be evident that there are some misconceptions regarding T1's interpretation of "communication" in TL within which T1 tended to equate "spoken English" to "communication in English". Furthermore, she appeared to believe that repetition drills indicate that as long as students had "enough" practice, they would be more likely to acquire the TL. On the one hand, T1's interpretation manifested the notion of "Practice Makes the Perfect", but also implies a certain misconception regarding "communication in English". Therefore, I will move to the next theme -Teachers' Misconceptions.

7.2.3 Teachers' Misconceptions

The literature implies plenty of difficulties in implementation of CLT in EFL classrooms. One of the barriers is teachers' misinterpretations of CLT in the local context which is crucial in determining their pedagogical decisions regarding language use.

In the current study, misinterpretations were found related to teachers' understanding of "communication in English", of which Excerpt Fifty-Three was one example. T1 equated "Practise spoken English" to "communication in English", and this could be said to be the reason that plenty of "Read after me" activities were organized, as she aimed to provide students with opportunities to practise their speaking. If the purpose of communication is to enable students to communicate in TL (Larsen-Freeman, 2000), the development of student's communicative competence will be the primary goal. This entails four components, namely grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence and discourse competence (Savignon, 2018). The scope of communicative competence is therefore broader than merely promotion of student's spoken English. Learning to communicate in the TL is more than learning phrases or expressions in a decontextualized way which may be considered irrelevant to communicative needs. Instead, attention should also be given to the context within which the language is used and appropriacy of language usage (Savignon, 2018). Furthermore, a lack of understanding of "communicative competence" led to teachers' overemphasis on the TL environment as a natural learning environment (Macaro, 2000) which entails rich TL input. Lastly, at the stage of College English, simply allowing students to speak English in the classroom through repetition is not

sufficient for their development of reasoning and understanding or for engendering productive discussion (Yoon &Kim, 2012).

Teachers' learning experiences may be the only sources they have to formulate their beliefs and interpretations about CLT (Borg, 2003); In the current research context, no systematic teacher training programs are provided to teachers. They therefore appeared to have reverted to their past learning and teaching experiences which shaped their pedagogical decisions. All teachers had received formal FL education with a focus on reading, writing, vocabulary and translation, and they seemed to have not completely abandoned the traditional way of teaching which appeared to work in the Institution B in spite of their expressions of faith in CLT approaches. However, no teacher education program means it is highly likely that no new knowledge or information is made available to compete with their existing beliefs (Farrell, 2006) or misconceptions which are from their past learning experience have exerted heavy influences on their teaching practices. Thus, the misconceptions are likely to remain. One of teachers argued that: "*We have taught English in this way for years, we are fine, and we may still do*" (T3-Inteview). This was T3's response when I asked him to comment on ELT in Institution B. His response raises a question as to why the ELT practices in Institution B remain so traditional and there appears to be no influences from the outer layers of Kachru's circle in terms of globalisation affecting China as a FL context. After all, it has been strongly argued that globalisation accelerates and enhances the role of English as a global language or "lingua franca". China's FL policies, also known as FLEPs are informed by English's changing status as a global language (Block, 2002). Next, I will discuss the relationships between globalization and the local context.

7.3 Theme Three - from the Globalisation to the Institution

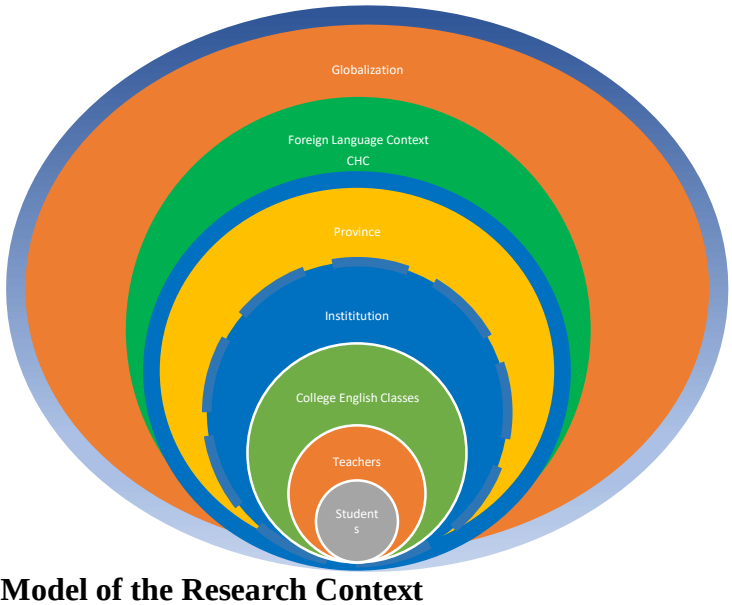

Figure Nine: Layered-Model of the Research Context

As mentioned in Chapter One, Globalization facilitates "the widening, deepening and speeding up of worldwide interconnectedness" (Held *et al*. 1999, p.2). The growing impact of the Globalization is inevitable which has also ushered in Higher Education (Marginson & Wende, 2007p.5). In order to enhance global competitive performance (Bloom, 2005; Coleman, 2006; Graddol, 2006), China has developed a series of planning of reform in Higher Education. Excerpt Fifty-Four is an example taken from "China's National Plan for Medium and Long-Term Education Reform and Development 2020":

Excerpt Fifty-Four (Document Analysis):

Line	Statement
1	*"An improvement in the quality of education is central to the proposed reforms, including the need to develop world-class".*
2	*universities to enhance China's international competitiveness. It is important to improve the pedagogical skills of university*
3	*teachers, to improve the investment of infrastructure and to strengthen classroom instruction. A new regulatory framework*
4	*for higher education is proposed which is to encourage university to diversity their missions and activities to achieve best practice*
5	*International engagement is encouraged in both showcasing China's universities and in seeking to build strategic international alliances*

As seen in the Excerpt Fifty-Four above, part of the goal of China's Higher Education reform emphasizes the need to develop world-class universities and encourage China's universities' international engagement (Line 1-2,5). In order to achieve this goal, English has become an integral part of Higher Education (Doiz & Sierra, 2013). As introduced in Chapter One, unlike some top-class universities in China which have obtained higher international rankings, the Institution B is a regional university. However, all universities are subject to the same process of globalization (Scott, 1998, p.122), and no individual Higher Education institutions can seal themselves off from the effects of globalization (Marginson & Wende, 2007). This is particularly the case in Institution B that it has some subjects with good national and international reputation. That is to say, students in Institution B potentially are capable of pursuing an international career in a global context, if they are equipped with English as a language (Wilkinson, 2004). However, the effect of globalisation appears not to have reached Institution B as it appeared that Institution B tends to lack a global vision in preparing their students with communicative competence in English for their future. A potential explanation could be China's top-down approach in the formulation of the foreign language education policies (FLEPs) (Hu, 2007), and China's regional disparity.

In the previous sections, a brief description of the formulation of FLEPs has been already provided, and I restate that FLEPs as a product of a top-down approach in the formulation of policies reflects not only a national definition of English's role but requirement of English

teaching and learning which may not be necessarily feasible in the regional context. It could be seen in Excerpt Fifty-Five (Document Analysis) which is adapted from China's National Plan for Medium- and Long-Term Education Reform and Development 2020.

Excerpt Fifty-Five (Document Analysis):

Line	Statement
1	*"We should take quality improvement as the core of educational reform and development and put it at*
2	*the top of our agenda, adopt an educational development concept focusing on quality"*

As the Excerpt Fifty-Five implied, the priority of educational reform is to improve the quality of education (Line 1). Regarding to FL education in China's context, it may be reasonable to claim that improving the quality of education is to improve the quality of its teachers. Along with the rapid emergence of English as a global language, a higher level of teacher's expertise in TL such as pedagogical skills and strategies to strengthen the classroom instructions is required (China's National Plan for Medium- and Long-Term Education Reform and Development 2020). In particular, as seen in Excerpt Fifty-Four, international engagement of universities is perceived as an indicator of quality of education (Line4-5), and therefore, a recognition of the importance to develop students' communicative competence seems to be an essential part of the quality assurance. However, the findings of previous chapters implied that neither the Institution B nor College English teachers perceived the development of students' communicative competence as part of their responsibility. It is therefore important to consider English teaching and learning from the students' perspective as suggested in Guidelines (2015). In particular, to consider whether students' needs could be a forceful factor that affected teachers' language use, the first step is to identify students' actual needs of English learning in regional context. In students' interview, I asked students about their perceived needs in English learning, and examples of their responses are presented in Excerpt Fifty-Four:

Excerpt Fifty-Six (Student Interview):

Line	R/S	Utterance
1	R	*What is that goal of English learning currently?*
2	S1	*Pass the exam, I do not think English speaking is that important.*
3	S2	*I think so.*
4	S3	*It is the same as that in high school.*
5	S4	*English speaking is not urgent, but pass the examination is important.*
6	S5	*We are not confident.*
7	R	*How English related to your subject?*
8	S6	*Terminology in the components of the machine and rules of operation of machine. Another thing is we probably need to communicate with foreign technician*
9	S7	*I want to work in foreign companies and English is actually important.*
10	S8	*I do not think so. The major we studied will be more suitable to work in the factory rather than foreign company.*

The interview was conducted in L1 so all utterances in excerpt are in italics, as they have been translated from Chinese. As seen in Excerpt Fifty-Six, a majority of students shared a common ground with teachers in perceiving passing the examination as the key objective of English learning (Line 2,4,5). This is partly consistent with the policy claiming English learning is to serve the needs of students' subject study and further education. Few students related English to their future career although they showed recognition of the importance of communicative competence in English which allows communication with foreign technicians or to work in foreign companies (Line 9-10). Findings of student interview revealed that students themselves believed that they would not have opportunities to develop their spoken English in institutional setting and attended private English training centre for the development of spoken English. This may explain what I found in T2's interview which suggests that teachers do not necessarily know about the FLEPs, because neither College English teachers nor their students considered objectives prescribed by FLEPs to be feasible in the local context. Furthermore, in comparison with other cities such as Beijing and Shanghai, there are limited opportunities for students to use English to communicate in their daily life due to the geographical location of the province. Therefore, the development of communicative competence may not be urgent for the majority of College English students. In sum, China's FLEPs respond to globalisation with the recognition of English as a global language and its significant role in China's development and enhancement of institutional competitiveness on the global stage. However, either globalisation or China's FLEPs appear not to have reached Institution B in that English's global status has not been recognized in ELT. In addition, China is a FL context, however, some socially and economically developed cities and regions will be likely to have more opportunities for students to use English in their daily life than in other regions. My research site has one of the highest comparative student populations in China, and it seems to imply that the goal of ELT is constrained to help students to pass the examination which has ultimately shaped teachers' language use in the classroom. Therefore, the next theme will move to the actual research site---Institution B.

7.4 Theme Four - Institutional Context

In spite that Guidelines (2015) emphasizes each university's responsibility is to provide College students with good quality English education to meet new goals as to incorporate the development of students' communicative competence into ELT at tertiary level, the situation is somewhat surprising in that no institutional policy was found to monitor or safeguard the quality of English education. It may be a good place to explore the realities of

the Institution B so as to obtain an understanding of the role that the Institution B plays in ELT. Therefore, two sub-themes will be covered in this theme. The first concerns the realities in Institution B, and the second part relates to students in Institution B. Again, the focus of the current study is teachers' language use, and students are found to have their own expectations and beliefs towards teacher's language choice. This has become particularly important when students' diversity remains as a feature of College English class. Further, previous findings implied that teachers tended to have a fixed perception about their students which was inconsistent with what uncovered from the students' focus group interviews regarding their motives underpinning their classroom behaviour. Therefore, I made a decision to develop a separate sub theme to focus on College English students.

7.4.1 Realities in Institution B

Contextual constraints on teachers' language choices which have been found in the research literature include class size, examination pressures, the syllabus, students' limited TL proficiency and students' resistance to new ways of learning (Borg, 2003; Johnson, 1996). In Institution B, College English teaching hours had been reduced to 48 teaching hours per academic term. It had become challenging for second year students' teachers who had to prepare students for both CET 4 and the final examinations. Limited time could be said to have a powerful influence on teachers' language choice. As one teacher said in the interview that "*I know I should use TL as much as possible, I should wait students for their response. But we do not have that much time to do so*" (T4-Interview). There are key tensions between the need to cover all the material in the textbooks, and pass the examination, and the use of the TL and providing opportunities for students to speak the TL. Teachers could not think of alternatives to their current traditional teaching approach which they felt was able to cover the required syllabus on time (Al-Maini, 2006).

In the past 15 years, Institution B has adopted three different versions of textbooks for the College English course; however, no institutional or departmental support provided to the teachers to discuss how to use the new textbooks. Without the introduction of more communicatively based textbooks, teachers will miss the chance to understand the CLT principles underlying textbooks; however, they had taken no actions to implement changes that the new textbooks might bring about. Teachers appeared to have pedagogical uncertainties and tended to teach in a way they were used to which is tied to the preparation for CET 4 and CET6.

7.4.2 Student in Institution B

As claimed previously, the aim of the current study was to investigate factors that affect teachers' use of the TL and L1 and the research focus is the teacher. However, findings arising from both students' interviews and Classroom Observations suggested that the Chinese culture of learning also shaped students' preferences and learning styles in the College English classrooms as well as students' perceptions regards the teachers' role and their expectations placed on their teachers' instructional practices. Previous findings suggest that students had certain expectations towards their teachers. Excerpt Fifty-Seven is an example from the findings of Teacher Interview which showed teachers' perceptions regarding students' learning style in College English classes.

Excerpt Fifty-Seven (T4- Interview):

Segment	T/R	Utterance
1	T4	*Students expected teachers to tell them what to do and then they would follow the instruction. It was not possible for them to develop their own ideas within a short period of time. It was hard to change them and consequently, it was hard for me to change what we did in the classes. They might change, but it could take really long time. I tried, I used to teach in a flexible way. I did not give them homework; I did not use the textbook appointed by the university. I did not have to follow the teaching calendar if I could complete the teaching within the term time. The task was communicative and easy, and I hoped to stimulate students' interests. I did not organize my teaching with passages in textbooks. I used other materials which helped students to learn. But this was not different from normal language classes.*
2	R	Will the *University stop you?*
3	T4	*No. University is concerned about the final examinations. But students reported it and it was said they did not know what I was teaching*
4	R	*Reported by students?*
5	T4	*Yes. So many students did so. I encouraged students to learn with different ways of teaching. Some of students may see the benefits whereas a majority of students expected I focused on textbooks. They did not accept something they did not try before. The problem was English education was about teaching textbooks for so many years. We used to have flipped classes, I was not sure whether it continues or not.*

As seen in Excerpt Fifty-Seven, T4 believed that students had a fixed expectation towards what should happen in the class. Specifically, T4 believed that students expect to be instructed and that the classes should focus on textbooks (Segment1). If her instruction did not meet students' expectations, the students would report her to the university. From her perspective, students appeared to have a negative attitude towards CLT. T4's views reflect a cultural stereotyping of students from the standpoint of CHC. That is, her perception was that students played a recipient role in the classroom; they exhibited compliance and were over-dependent on the teacher (Braddock et al. 1995; Purdie et al, 1996). However, findings generated from the students' interviews were in conflict with T4's views. Students had a clear and precise expectation regarding their teachers and the College English classes. They perceived the teachers as an authority in English exams rather than the English language. This could be said to be the reason they expected teachers to give more instruction about the

exams they would sit. At the same time, students were aware of the importance of communicative competence in English; but they believed that they were not able to develop their communicative competence in College English classes. Therefore, the students revealed in interviews that they attended private English learning centres where the emphasis is on the development of students' communicative competence. There is an evident inconsistency between T4's assumptions about her students and students' actual motives underpinning their classroom behaviour. As found previously in the Layered-model, students are not the starting point of teaching; and T4 attempted to understand her students from a fixed cultural perspective rather than looking at their actual needs. Furthermore, students come to the classroom from different perspectives; they are adult learners, and they have fully formed personalities and mindsets (Cook, 2017). They use different ways to tackle their learning. These diversities appear to be neglected. It could be said that this is because CHC emphasizes the value of collectivism rather than individual differences.

7.5 Summary of the Chapter

It could be argued that the current research context needs to develop a local context-sensitive, region-specific pedagogy that is based on a comprehensive understanding of local linguistic, sociocultural and socioeconomic particularities. Kumaradivelu (2001), rejected the dichotomy between theories and the teachers. He claimed the theorists are assigned to roles as knowledge producers and teachers are consumers of knowledge. He advocated that teachers should reify their roles, encouraging them to theorize from their practice and practice what they theorize. The current study's findings suggest that teachers have developed a set of theories in their pedagogy but it is also indicated that teachers' lack of TL proficiency and pedagogical knowledge limit the efficacy of their theories in the promotion of English teaching. This is because the teacher's own pedagogical knowledge is a factor that affects how effectively their content knowledge will be understood by their students (Shulman, 1987). In the current study, teachers' lack of TL proficiency and pedagogical knowledge appear to lead to their limited use of TL.

There is a significant need for teachers to reflect on their ELT practice and support is needed to empower teachers to develop theories and form knowledge that work with the experience that teachers and students (Girous, 1988; Kumaravadivelu, 2001) bring to the College English classes. The scope of teachers' reflections needs to move to a broader social and cultural environment, including where they come from and where their students come from.

Both teachers' and students' experiences are likely to alter ELT practice in ways unintended by FLEPs.

In summary, there are constraints which limit teachers from applying a communicative approach in the research context. These constraints include exam pressure, limited teaching hours, and students' expectation of learning in college English classes. These constraints result in teachers' uncertainties regarding the implementation of communicative approach. With such uncertainties, teachers' past learning experiences and their own apprenticeship of observation (Borg, 2009) has led them to teach with routinized teacher-led approaches within which they maintain practices they are familiar and comfortable with. Three key barriers emerged in their implementation of the communicative approach which are teachers' beliefs, misconception of key concepts of CLT and contextual constraints, such as the lack of teacher profession training.

Chapter Eight - Conclusion and Recommendation

8.0 Introduction

The research question of the current study is to explore factors that affect Chinese teachers' language use in College English classes. Patterns of teachers' language use have been identified and the findings show that L1 is extensively used in College English classes and English as a TL is used surprisingly in a narrow manner. After the identification of patterns of teachers' language use, a range of factors that influence teacher's language choice have been identified from pedagogical, educational and sociocultural dimensions. Before explain the details, I provide an overarching conclusion of the current study that teachers' language use is fundamentally affected by local contextual factors such as the educational system, institutional ranking, students' TL proficiency and teachers' beliefs. Therefore, the organization of this chapter is as follows: firstly, I will present the factors identified in the current study that affect teachers' use of L1 and the TL with reference to the Layered Model which was developed in Chapter One; secondly, I will make recommendations for ELT at tertiary level, including some directions for research that are related either directly or indirectly to the current study; and lastly, I will discuss the limitations of the current research.

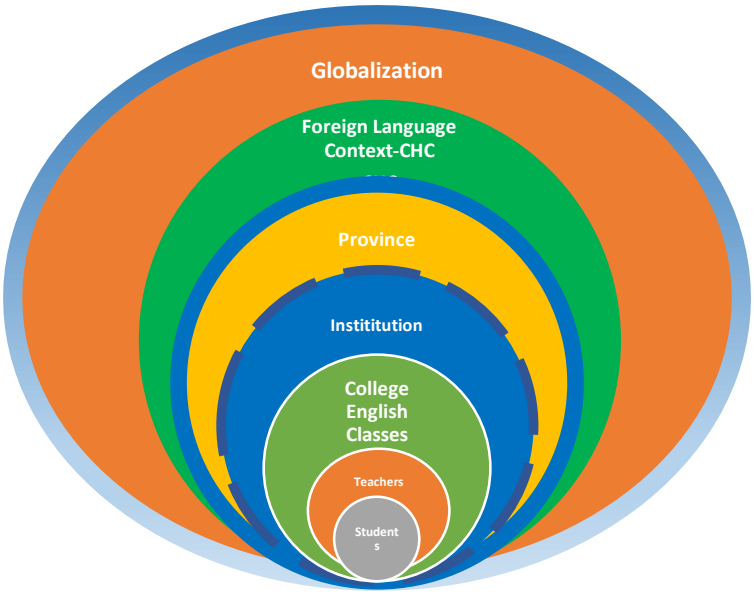

Figure Nine: Layered-Model of the Research Context

8.1 Layered-Model and ELT in Inner Circle

From a broad perspective, the Layered-Model represents the multiple dimensions of the research context and each layer could exist as an individual "context". Within each "context", a range of factors have been identified that affect College English teachers' use of the L1 and the TL. However, some factors are found to be more influential than others and they are

located in the Inner Circle of the Layered-Model. As seen in Figure Ten, the Layered-Model entails the Inner circle and the Outer circle. The former includes four layers which are Student, Teacher, College English Class and Institution-Layers, whereas the Outer Circle includes three layers which are: Globalisation; Foreign Language Context and Confucius Heritage Culture (CHC); and Province-Layers. As mentioned above, a range of factors that influence Chinese College English teacher's language choice have been identified from pedagogical, institutional and socio-cultural dimensions which relate to college students, teachers, and the institution which locate in the Inner Circle of the model. Therefore, the theme of this section is Layered-Model and ELT in Inner Circle.

Firstly, the findings about students' expectations and preferences regarding TL learning implies that their past learning experience has exerted heavy influences on College English learning. Specifically, students tend to show their preference towards a traditional way of learning. A majority of student participants in the current study came from rural areas. The findings suggest that the regional disparity has an influence on the Chinese students' English learning. That is, China's educational decentralization and diversification allows economically developed provinces and cities to develop their own primary and secondary-level curriculum and syllabi and also allows an earlier start of English learning which afford the secondary-level teachers opportunities to implement communicative language teaching (CLT) (Hu, 2005). Comparatively, English learning starts late in rural or underdeveloped areas which will then encounter the intensive pressure of examinations. As a result, the students rarely learn about CLT. Furthermore, it has been found that one of obstacles that prevent teachers' exclusive use of the TL in College English classrooms is students' lower proficiency in speaking, and it seems to constrain College English teachers' instructional possibilities, including the implementation of CLT.

Secondly, the goal of ELT is by no means to apply certain teaching methods and approaches. Instead, the goal is to use certain teaching methods and approaches to provide more learning opportunities to learners. The findings in the current study show that examination washback effect appears to have a significant impact on teachers' selection of teaching methods or approaches in English teaching.

Thirdly, from an institutional perspective, English is a compulsory subject which is prescribed by the national foreign language policy. The institution's responsibility is to provide a platform for college students to learn English as a subject. As a key stakeholder of English education, Institution B is officially important in the quality assurance of English

teaching and learning. From in the findings of the current study, "quality" seems to be merely associated with the passing rate of CETs and the final examinations. Further, Institution B is now provided with teaching facilities, such as multimedia in Self-Learning language centres which functions as a complement to instructional practices in College English classrooms, and students are required to practise listening and speaking in the Self-Learning Language Centre. It seems to promote student-centred learning and provide students with opportunities to practise English for communicative purposes. However, there is no professional assessment to evaluate students' English language performance in the Self-Learning Language Centre; instead, students' attendance in the Self-Learning Language Centre is recorded as part of their performance. This appears to suggest a lack of quality control in College English teaching and learning at the level of the Institution B.

8.2 Layered-Model and ELT in Outer Circle

As mentioned above, a range of factors that influence Chinese College English teachers' language choice has been identified from the socio-cultural dimension, which relate to China as a FL context, with particular attention to China's educational system and the culture of learning located in the Outer Circle of the model. Therefore, this theme discussed in this section is the Layered-Model and ELT in Outer Circle.

In spite of the current study implying that the influences of globalisation have not yet reached Institution B, none of the individual institutions can seal themselves off from globalisation. In particular, it has been extensively accepted that English proficiency is an important social and economic capital (Nunan, 2003) in the era of globalisation. A range of professions, business, workplaces and enterprises have increasingly demanded English proficiency (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996a). However, English has been principally contextualized as a means to pass the examination, and then increase life chances in China. This raises concern over the compatibility of CLT with students' actual needs. Particularly, College students may not be required to develop fluent English speaking if they do not have the chance to communicate in English in daily life.

8.3 Recommendations

In current research site, the recognition and the necessity to make the development of student's communicative competence part of the goal of the FL curriculum is a major step regarding what should happen next. Currently, the examination remains dominant in assessing students' TL proficiency which fails to keep pace with other developments

in the curriculum (Littlewood, 2007). Consequently, proficiency skills in reading, writing, translation and listening lie at the core of ELT practice whereas speaking tends to be marginalized. The "grammar-based" examinations remain as major obstacles to the implementation of CLT (Butler, 2011; Roy, 2016; Whitehead,2017), and EFL teachers seem not to be able to change much unless the examinations change (Yan, 2015). For a long-term goal, major changes in the examination-oriented educational systems have to be made in China's context. However, this may take a long time, because the examination-oriented educational system remains a characteristic of Chinese institutions.

Changes regarding FL education are not only about the inclusion of the assessment of students' communicative competence in examinations or the innovations to transform conventional language classes. In China's context, the selective examination system, examination-oriented education and the associated traditions of teaching and learning have been historically established (Niu 2007). There is a long history of using the test scores intensively for various educational and social purposes in society which has made the effect of washback a significant phenomenon (Ahmad & Rao, 2012; Cheng, L. 1997). From a broad perspective, China's educational reform has raised the point that "*An improvement in the quality of education is central to the proposed reforms"* (Education Reform and Development, 2020). In spite of implying there is a tendency to transform the examination-oriented system into quality-oriented education (Liu &Dunne, 2009), the National College Entrance Examinations (NCEE) set by China's authorities remain the most important admission requirement for college students. Thus, the quality-oriented educational reforms in the Institution B are being promoted while a selective examination system is still in place. What makes the change more difficult is that it appears that all the stakeholders of ELT accept the examination-oriented educational system and set passing the examinations as the goal of English teaching and learning which is contrary to the improvement of quality. It seems that all efforts to improve the quality of education will be diminished by an examination-oriented system which has significant historical, social, cultural and national roots. In the longer term, fundamental changes will have to be made from the national level, but the question is where to start.

In the short term it is suggested that more work can be done to support College English teachers. According to the findings in this current study, I argue that any changes to be made in FL classrooms are likely to be less influential than change by the teachers as the pattern of teacher-dominance has been resilient in classrooms over the centuries

(Watkins, 2005. Changing this pattern is a strong motive for the development of continuous professional development training programmes in the Institution B.

Continuous professional development training is urgently needed for College English teachers in the current study. The findings showed that the teacher participants rarely justified themselves regarding their pedagogical decision making. They seem to have uncertainties about how their use of L1 or the TL would benefit College students' TL learning in the class. This could also explain why the teacher participants share common attitudes towards the implementation of the CLT, that is, their view that CLT is essential but what is its good in the College English class in the Institution B. Consequently, they have little faith in exclusively using the TL in practice. Furthermore, the teachers explicitly articulated that they are aware of "tensions" raised between developing students' communicative competence and local contextual factors. The teachers' motives to address these tensions can be perceived as a ''driving force" for teachers to take part in continuous professional development training programmes (Golombek and Johnson, 2004, pp. 323–324). In addition, it has been generally agreed (Fullan, 1995) that continuous professional development training is an essential part of quality assurance, and it should be integrated into the institutional policy. It is suggested that the continuous professional development training programme should focus on the following areas:

- Continuous professional development training programmes should clarify the content and purpose of FLEPs which is a fundamental step for College English teachers in the regional institution in order to learn about FLEPs. The programme should explicitly raise College English teachers' awareness of the institutional realities. That is, College English teachers have to recognize the uniqueness of institution's context, including national ranking, student's graduate prospects, and the barriers such as mixed ability classes and limited teaching hours of College English course which are believed to inhibit the implementation of CLT. Continuous professional development training programmes may support College English teachers to improve efficacy of their teaching practice so that they are able to have space to transform CLT into practice. It should provide teachers with alternative teaching methodologies to enrich their repertoires of instructional options. The traditional teaching approach of GTM should not be used as a matter of course. The continuous professional development programme should also establish a set of principles to enable teachers to make coherent pedagogical decisions (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). Before that, opportunities should be given to

teachers to experience CLT for themselves which should enable them to distinguish CLT approaches from the traditional teaching approach they are familiar with. It would be a good start for teachers if they were able to recognize how CLT can be implemented in the class before considering how they could possibly integrate CLT into their teaching practices. Continuous professional development training programmes should also help teachers to recognize their unique position in examining issues in their immediate teaching context such as the College English class and Institution B. In particular, very few studies have looked at teachers' use of the TL and L1 in a context like Institution B. College English teachers' own recognition is an important source for them to reflect on ELT practice. It may be particularly helpful in the enhancement of teacher's awareness of TL use and its impact on learning in the classroom context. It may enable them to develop their own strategies to increase and enrich their TL use (Cullen, 2001). Further, Edstrom (2006) suggested a "thoughtful and honest self-analysis can help teachers to use TL in a judicious way".

8.4 Further Direction

The current study investigated Chinese teachers' use of the TL and L1 use in a regional context, and further studies could compare ELT in other regional institutions in economically developed areas and less developed areas in China. The current study emphasizes the significance of regional disparity in shaping ELT practices and suggests that ELT practices are mediated by regional and local factors which demonstrate the presence of regional varieties, and it calls attention to internal diversity in implementation of CLT. It is suggested that this would be helpful in promoting stakeholders' understanding of the context along with challenges and highlight why the implementation of CLT works in one area rather than others in the same country. As shown in the literature (Littlewood, 2007; Wei, Lin & Litton, 2018), a number of studies has been conducted in Asian contexts regarding the implementation of CLT and the conclusions came to the consensus that tensions and contradictions between the implementation of CLT and contextual realities have been found in Asian countries such as China, South Koran, Japan and Vietnam. In spite of the current research being conducted in a regional institution in China, the concerns identified in the current study may not only be exclusively relevant to regional institutions in China's context. They may be shared with regional institutions elsewhere that share similar educational systems and the culture of learning with China. Although, the socioeconomic situation may vary from one region to another, the findings of this current study highlights some of the

critical factors that influence the implementation of CLT which may raise awareness about certain limiting factors in regional context.

More studies should be conducted to explore College students' perceptions of English learning, as well as their teachers' beliefs and their instructional practices in regional institutions. In the current study, the student participants as younger generation who have experienced a series of national reforms of English teaching and learning at various stages, seem to hold a stronger belief towards traditional approaches and less towards communicative teaching approach. It raises a need to consider the learner's geographical background when defining "Chinese" English learners in an era of Globalisation.

With respect to policy implications, the findings of the current research advocate the need for dialogue among the teachers, the institutions and the MOE in terms of the adoption of CLT with explicit guidance. Consequently, there appears to be a gap between the FLEPs and its implementation regarding the development of students' communicative competence in regional institutions. The MOE has recognized the regional discrepancies and their influence on ELT. The goal of English teaching and learning at tertiary level has been divided into three levels which allows regional institutions to make their own decisions. However, findings in the current study seems not to address the question about how Institution B fulfils its commitments in implementing the FLEPs at the institutional and class levels.

The first step is to understand the specific situation of Institution B itself within where the policy initiative is to be put into practice (Brynard,2009). Therefore, the institution itself should take more responsibilities and play an active role in disseminating the FLEPs to help College English teachers learn about FLEPs and enable them to make sense of them in College English classes. Further, according to what I found in the current study, the successful implementation of FLEPs in the Institution B is about to move beyond teaching College English for merely examinations and incorporate the development of student's communicative competence into ELT practice. In order to successfully implement the FLEPs in the Institution B, quality assurance of ELT is another crucial area to be discussed.

8.5 Quality Assurance of FL in the Institution B

China is a FL context, and this means classroom teaching is the key arena of FL education. Therefore, the quality of the language teacher is a key factor to be considered to assure the quality of TL teaching and learning. Nowadays, along with the rapid emergence of English

as a global language, a higher demand has been placed on EFL teacher's expertise in ELT practice. According to the results of the current study, several areas need to be improved in College English teachers themselves so as to qualify them as effective College English teachers. These areas are pedagogical skills, proficiency in TL and understanding of the local context. This highlights the importance of developing continuous professional development programmes in Institution B.

In the current study, it has also been found that College students hold certain expectations and beliefs regarding how English should be learnt and how they expect to be instructed. To some extent, the students' expectations reflect their criteria regarding a "good" English teacher. It could be referred by the recruitment board of the Institution as an important criterion while recruiting English teachers so as to assure the quality of teaching.

As with FLEPs in ELT practice, the Teacher Interviews and Classroom Observations uncovered significant commonality in classroom practice along with the teachers' use of the L1 and the TL. The commonality in practice reflects College English teachers' interpretation of FLEPs. A Quality Assurance Body should be developed in Institution B. Its responsibility should be far more than monitoring whether College English teachers use exclusively the TL in class. It should also cover the following areas: clarification of the FLEPs College English class; and the supervision of the quality of ELT practice.

The essential component of quality assurance of ELT in Institution B is not only monitoring students' academic performance but implementing the FLEPs. As the FLEPs implied, China's national policies of FL teaching and learning have moved forwards to develop students' communicative competence. ELT in Institution B has to be urged to move on from a traditional teaching approach to updated forms of CLT.

It could be argued that quality assurance has to be a key factor, along with university meeting standards linked to the university higher ranking in an increasingly competitive Higher Education Market. In particular, the global aspects of Higher Education have to be taken into account. As shown in "China's National Plan for Medium and Long-Term Education Reform and Development 2020" (Excerpt Fifty-Four, p.208), the university's international engagement is a central part of reform. This means that Institution B, as a regional institution, should raise its vision to prepare itself for the international Higher Education market by "*seeking to build strategic international alliance*" (Education Reform and Development, 2020).

8.6 Research Limitations

The current study has some disadvantages from different perspectives. Methodologically, the limitation of semi-structured interviews is that it can be prone to subjectivity and bias on the part of the interviewer (Cohen, Manion, Morrison, 2013). I agree that subjectivity and bias can involve both the interviewee and interviewer. From an interpretivism point of view, "reality" was constructed by the people themselves. That is, the people being interviewed perceived the world through their own lens of his or her prior experiences, knowledge and expectations. Their lens shaped how they viewed the world and interpreted the issues embedded within it. The lens was like a filter, and then, what I found was likely to be subjective. It was essential to be aware of the philosophical underpinning of the research methodology and of interpretation during the research process.

From the scope of the current study, I only investigated one institution and the size of research was fairly small which could limit the credibility and validity of the research outcomes. However, the intention was not generalisation but to gather rich data and a deep understanding of my research problem. The analysis and findings contextually demonstrate College English teachers' use of the TL and L1 use at tertiary level, and it could be considered for applicability (Brown, 2001) to other similar regional EFL contexts. The findings may resonate with teachers and students in those contexts. In this current study, I have examined the factors that influence College English teacher's use of the L1 and TL in China and discussed the challenges and prospects in implementing the CLT. Teacher' language choice plays a significant role in TL teaching and learning, and it is closely related to the context within where ELT is being conducted.

In spite of the limitations of the current study, I offer suggestions for future research. Firstly, a longitudinal study of College English teachers' language use in universities across various regions in China in order to broaden understanding of how regional factors may influence ELT practice. Secondly, in the future, studies could be conducted in a comparative manner. A "comparative" study related to ELT could be done at two levels. Firstly, it could compare ELT practices in different institutions in the same region; secondly, it could compare ELT practices in different institutions located in different regions. While recognising the limitations of the current study it makes a contribution to raising awareness about certain factors in a regional context which are may inhibit the implementation of CLT.

Appendix One - Information Sheet for Teachers

University of Glasgow

College of Social Sciences

Plain Language Statement for Teachers
School of Education Glasgow University

Project Title: "What factors influence Chinese teacher's decisions around their use of the L1 and the TL?"

Researcher details: Junliang Guo, PhD student

email address:

Supervisor: Professor Kay Livingston; Dr Hazel Crichton

I would like to invite you to take part in a research study which I am undertaking to fulfil the requirements of my PhD study. Before you decide, you need to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask questions if anything that is not clear or you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

Thank you for reading this.

What is the purpose of the study?

Existing research shows that the use of the first (L1) and the Target Language (TL) is in debate. On the one hand, the value of the L1 has already acknowledged by literature, however, English-only principle of teaching is still advocated in Asian countries for teaching English; on the other hand, literature reviews indicate that the L1 is widely in the classroom due to a wide range of factors. This study aims to investigate the use of the L1 and the TL, and identify the factors that influence teacher's language use, attempting to establish systematic principles of the language use, which may improve the effectiveness of teaching practice in the EFL context.

Why have I been chosen?

This research will involve a maximum of 4 teachers and 20 students. I am inviting you to take part in this study because you are teaching an English course at university.

Do I have to take part in?
The participation is voluntary, and all the participants can withdraw at any time, without any consequences at all, if they do not want to continue, even after having given their confirmation.

What will happen to me if I take part in?

I will observe you on 4 occasions teaching your class. I will also interview you about your approaches to teaching English and particular moves that I have observed in class. As the teacher of the class, you will also be asked to suggest the student participants in your class. However, it is important that students take part on a voluntary basis and while you will be suggesting names, after I invite them, it will be up to individual students to decide whether they agree or disagree to take part.

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

All the information obtained from research participants will be kept strictly confidential. I will label you with numbers when referring you in study. The information such as your name, or the name of university will be concealed, and other terms to refer the university will be used. No-one will be able to identify you or the university.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results are mainly to inform the findings of my research for my PhD and I may also publish part of my research findings through academic journals. In the PhD thesis and any publications, all the participants' information remains confidential. Participants may be able to request a copy of any papers arising from this research.

Please note that assurances on confidentiality will be strictly adhered to unless evidence of wrongdoing or potential harm is uncovered. In such cases the University may be obliged to contact relevant statutory bodies/agencies.
The data comes from observation and interview. It will be carefully safeguarded. It will be saved as electronic copy in my personal laptop, and password of my laptop will be required for access to my laptop. The laptop will be kept in locked cabinet. After the PhD award, the personal data will be permanently destroyed. The research data will be kept 10 years after the end of the study, and then will be permanently deleted. This project has been reviewed by the School of Education Ethics Forum.

Details for further information and where to pursue any complaint:

Any further queries, please contact Junliang Guo or my supervisors: Hazel.Crichton@glasgow.ac.uk or Kay.Livingston@glasgow.ac.uk

Additionally, you can contact the College of Social Sciences Ethics Officer, Dr Muir Houston, email: Muir.Houston@glasgow.ac.uk

Appendix Two - Data Analysis Field Notes

L1 Use	TL Use
□ 个人经历 ⇒ 日记 (Teacher wrote on the blackboard) ⇒ 音、形、意, sound, form and meaning word ⇒ 扩大词汇量的方法 华丽的表述 [illegible] 的评价 比如词汇量 go down. 音 ⟶ 形 ⟶ spell: f-r-e-s-h-e-r 意 ⟶ chinese / English □ 大学英语学习模式 □ 授人以鱼，不如授人以渔.	□ daily activity □ in the first person □ "what makes you feel informal?" □ Students previewed the New words and teacher asked them to read after her. (Teaching method) Students repeated the words by themselves for three times. □ T: Is it clear? S: En. T: Good. □ self-study □ clock-timing.

Appendix Three - Functional Distribution of the TL and L1

Column A: Use of the L1	Column B: Use of the TL
Category 1 Classroom Management Instruction e.g. Introduction of Class Objectives *Our task today is vocabularies and phrases in unit One which are not finished in last class.*	**Category 1: Instructions** Sub-category1: Classroom-Management Instruction. e.g This part of class will deal with reading and writing…we have dealt with first passage of unit One. Do you still remember? e.g. The objective of this class today is… *Paragraph…* Sub-category 2: Content-related Instruction E,g Asking text-related or task-related questions. e.g What does "date" mean in this passage? e.g Could you translate this sentence? Sub-category 3: Procedural Instruction for tasks e.g. Now, oral practice. Usually, one partner plays the role of man, other play the role of woman. Practise this dialogue one. Pay attention to tone and intonation. Practise, practise conversation one. *Role play.* One plays the role of man, other play the role of woman.
Category 2 Introduction of Strategies in completion of listening tasks, translation and memorization of vocabulary. e.g. *This sentence is long, but you do not have to write the whole sentence down while listening.* "Decorated", *like, write the key word as* "decorated", *and learn to note down the key information quickly.* e.g. *In English, it is often to use preposition; by contrast, we Chinese use verbs more often. So, in translation from TL to L1, you should be aware of this difference and then, your translation would be more acceptable in L1.*	**Category 2 Translations of teachers' utterances in L1.**
Category 3 Translation Sub-category 1 L1 equivalence e.g Soil, fertile, agriculture, *therefore, productive here means duo chan (fruitful)* Sub-category 2: Translation Tasks e.g *East and West, home is the best.*	**Category 3: Greeting** e.g How do you do?

Column A: Use of the L1	Column B: Use of the TL
Category 4 Grammar Instruction Sub-category 1 Analysis of Morphology End up *followed by* –ing *or* –ed Sub-category 2 Syntactic Analysis e.g *Absolute construct literally contains subjective and predicate; grammatically, it could not be used as a predicate. In this sentence,* "the only difference" *functions as logical subject. And the rest part is the real predicate. By doing so, it aims to highlight the important parts of the sentence*. Sub-category 3: Prefix e.g. *Do you remember* "co-"? *We talked about this prefix before. Last time, we did a translation exercise, there was a word as colleagues. Did you remember that? I said we could also use co-workers to replace colleagues. Then, I we talked about co-exist.*	**Category 4: Checking** Sub-category one: Comprehension Check Questions. e.g How do you say surf on line in Chinese? e.g. What is the difference between recall and remember? Sub-category two: Check Answers of Exercises What makes the speaker close to her wife, Peggy? T: A,B,C,or D? S: C. T: What was the question? (question in recording was played again). See more of his mother. How about two, question two? Two: what do you know about speaker's mother? A, B, C or D? S: A.
Category 5 Analysis of Text/ Learning Problems Sub-category 1: Textual Analysis e.g. *e.g This text is a piece of narration which is written in the first person.* *In the first person, I mean the perspective, the content is expressed by the speaker him or herself, him. The first person, the word I, pronoun "I" appears in the writing, and it has several advantages by doing so. It makes the text more engaging and vivid… "I" is not a person, but personalization.* Sub-category 2: Explanation of students' problems in homework. e.g. *There are plenty of problems such as wrong tense, missing information and logical problems…*	
Category 6 Comprehension Check e.g. Where there is a will, there is a way. *What does* "will" *mean here*? *Meaning?Yi zhi* (Mental power*). We can also say* where there is a will, there is a lawyer. *What does* lawyer *mean? The meaning of* will *is changed.* It means *Yi Zhu*(Document). e.g. T: *How do we say* "ambitious" *in Chinese*? S: *Xiong xin zhuang zhi* (Aim to achieve high aspirations) T: How about another meaning? S: You ye xin de (Having strong desire) T: Right, you ye xin de (Having strong desire).	

Column A: Use of the L1	Column B: Use of the TL
Category 7 Rapport Building e.g. sharing personal experience of learning. *I learn English by digging every single word and sentence…we must learn in this way (T3).* e.g. *I get cold and I hope you are fine (T1).*	
Category 8 Introduction of Cultural Issues e.g. *"The word "authority" underlying a message that a person who can write is regarded the authority. This is how western countries define this word. You can find "author" as the root of the word".* Category 9 Introduction of Examinations e.g. *Oral English in CET 4 included three parts…*	

Appendix Four - Examples of Teacher Student Interaction in TL

Integrated Course	T1-Students Interaction in TL	T2-Students Interaction in TL
	1.e.g.T1: That's it, you got it? I have told you this passage written in time order. So you know what is the first day in western country? S: Sunday. T1: Yes, Sunday. The week begins with Sunday 2.e.g.T1: Boring, tiring and long. Expedition? S: Journey. T1: Good, journey. Drive. It is a long, boring journey, long drive. My destination? 3.e.g. T1:Is it easy, right? S: No. T1: You can do it. You can do it. 4.e.g. T1:Lie down, lie, how to spell lie? S: L-i-e. T1: Yes, lie, lie down. "touch three walls without moving a muscle". 5.e.g. T1: Does he like the tutor? S: No. T1: Not at all. "Without waiting for the answer and moves on. He takes a sip of coffee".	1.e.g. T2: I will ask someone to say something, S1. S1: No response. T2: How about your opinion on your dormitory? S1: It is on the first floor. It is equipped with air conditioner and wardrobe. In our dormitory, we cannot see view. One of the reasons I like the room, it has, have coin machine. T1: Ok, sit down, please. At the beginning, it is good, you talk about something you like, you dislike. After that, it sounds not that good. Not very natural, I think. S2, say something about your opinion? S2: I live in five floors, I think it is high. Everyone have big bed and big table. T2: Good

Integrated Course	T3-Students Interaction in TL	T4-Students Interaction in TL
	1.e.g. T3: Libraries which were once empty after five 'o clock. Have you found the place? S: Yes. 3T: Have a quick glance of the long sentence here. "Libraries which were once empty after five 2.e.g. T3: Why did some people have bags under eyes in the morning? A, B, C or D? S: C. T3: They 'd spend all night in the library. 3.e.g.T3: …did author intend to exchange his opinions with his father about his future employment? Before going home, yes or no? S: No.	1.e.g. T4: Just like to look at it, the list of the new words, or something like important words you should know. You still remember some of them? S: No response. T4: Ambitious. That is what we had last time. There are two different meanings of ambitious. 2.e.g.T4: I know, all of us may know this word, right? We usually surf online. Do you agree? S: No answer. T4: surf online. But however surf have different meaning in our passage. Just as you have finding out the English expressions.

	T3: No, *why*?	3.e.g. T4: *We should know* impressive *and its noun form as well. What is the noun?* S： Impression. T4: impression is the one you are familiar, do you agree? 4.e.g T4: Ok, now the first, who can tell me how to fill in the blank? e.g I was very…. S: Impressed.
		T4: Yes, very good. Impressed. This is a passive form, and how to translate this sentence then? I was very impressed by something. 5.e.g.T4: Number two, there is something…? S: Impressive. T: Yes, good. Impressive, it means something good, very good. I am impressive by Julie's dignity. 6.e.g. T4: I ? S: I am interested. T: I am interested in something 7.e.g. T4: Do you know bad weather? S: *Bad weather.* T ： Bad weather. So, out of your mind means what? S: Crazy. T: Yes, crazy, to be crazy. *Bad weather.*

Listening and Speaking	**T1-Students Interaction in TL**	**T2-Students Interaction in TL**

	e.g T1: are you finished? S: Yes. T1: Good job. Let's check answer. Maggie ___? S: Likes. T1: Yes, likes. She___? S: doesn't care for. T1: doesn't care for. She___? S: Loves. T1: Loves flying on planes and travelling by train but____? S: Hates. T1: Hates getting on buses, hates because they are often crowded. She____? S: is interested in. T1: is interested in playing the piano and ____? S: is fond of. e.g. T1: three minutes, enough? S: No. T1: Five minutes, enough? Ok, five minutes. Practice. Talk about yourself, talk about your life. It is our show time.	e.g. T2: S1, could you say something about the first one? What do you think the question may be? S1: No response. T2: *What is question about?*

Listening and Speaking	**T1-Students Interaction in TL**	**T2-Students Interaction in TL**
	e.g. T1: Ok, good job. He used "be interested in", "be fond of", going for, enjoy, good job, thank you. S2: I am good at take photo; I am really good at talk photo. I am also good at use Photoshop. T1: Really? S2: I am still studying at it, because I am interested in it.I, and I prefer noodles. T1: Noodles. You prefer noodles to rice. S2: Yes, I come from Xin Jiang. And en, and I like music a little be, because it is relaxing. T1: Ok, well done. Thank you very much. Our class will have a wonderful photographer. As for Xin Jiang, I remember a very famous dish, *Xinjiang da pan chicken.* Right? You should choose the next one?	

Listening and Speaking	T3-Students Interaction in TL	T4-Students Interaction in TL
	e.g. T3: Listening tests: dating with my mother. 1. What makes the speaker close to her wife, Peggy? T3: A,B,C,or D? S: C. 5.e.g.T3: So, right now, you are required to discuss with your partner, it is impossible to do the job with a NO. 6.e.g.T3: Are you ready? S: No. T3: If not, I will give you some questions 7.e.g.T3: So, theoretically speaking, what our parents need is what? No? How about you? S: No responsive. T3: Your parents need most from you is what? S: Company.	e.g. T4: Are you clear now? S: Yes. T4: Ok, now , you can open your listening and speaking book, and look at unit 1 "Parent". " e.g. T4: *For example, once a week? How we change the frequency? How we say it?* S：Once a week. T4: Good, once a week. So the sentence can be rewritten as "I wrote to my parents, or I called my parents once a week". e.g.T4: They give birth to us, and then, how did you grow up? How did you grow up? You grow up by yourself (Laughing). S: Take care. T4: yeah, taken care by your parents. So that is to say, they *Yang yu* (*raise*), they? S: bring up. T4: yeah, very good, bring up or raise. e.g T4: what kind of love? Parents' love? S: Unconditional. S: Selfless. T4: Unconditional, and any other words? S: Sacrifice. T4: Yes, selfless. e.g. Recording: …is a fulfilling part of our life. S: fulfilling part. T4： How to spell this word? (Recording: …is a fulfilling part of our life). e.g. T4: Now, between you and your parents, how do you resolve differences? Resolve? Do you know resolve? S： No response. T: Yes, resolve means deal with, to solve. e.g. T4: But we never let our differences hurt our feelings of each

		other, and most of the time, we would agree to disagree. How to resolve differences? S： agree. T4: Can you understand sentences? (Recording is played again). …each other, and most of the time, we would agree to disagree. T4: We would? S: agree to disagree. T4: Agree to disagree. What does it mean? Agree to disagree?

Appendix Five - Time Table of College English Classes

	星期一 (Mon)	星期二 (Tue)	星期三 (Wed)	星期四 (Thur)	星期五 (Fri)	星期六 (Sat)	星期日 (Sun)
8:20-10:00 1-2	College English（III） Class NO,2210 Week5-16 Building 4 Room 403 GE3	College English（III） Class NO, 2034 Week 5-16 Building 2 Room106 GE3	College English（III） Class NO, 2210 Week 5-16 Building 4 Room403 GE3	College English（III） Class NO 2034 Week 5-16 Building 2 Room: 106 GE3			
10:10 - 11:55 3-4							
14:00 - 15:50 5-6			College English（I） Class NO, 2814 Week6-17 Building 2 Room 402 GE1		College English（I） Class NO.2814 Week 6-17 Building 4 Room: 203 GE1		
16:00 - 17:40 7-8		College English（I） Class NO, 2393 Week 6-17 Building 2 Room: 408 GE1		College English（I） Class NO, 2393 Week 6-17 Building 2 Room 408 GE1			

Appendix Six - Observational Field Notes

GE 1. 20/10/2017 Week 6

(40 students).

10 mins before the start of the class. Teacher came in and asked students to read the text aloud. Students read the text individually and loudly. None of them did their own study. This was very similar to what happened in GE 1. Students appeared to have strong motivation in reading text aloud and participated activities like this. I also found student used their mobile phone to look up dictionaries when they read the textbook.

1. Teacher nominated students to read the text infront of the class.

S T: ...
S_1: 不会读
T: 第二段. para. 2.
S_1: 不会读
T: How about the next student?
S_2: 哪一段?
T: para 2.

Glossary

Be Seated	Sit Down, please
CA	Communicative Approach
CET	College English Test
CHC	Confucius Heritage Culture
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
L1	First Language
FLEPs	Foreign Language Education Policies
FL	Foreign Language
NCEE	National College Entrance Examination
NNSs	Non-Native English Speakers
NNs	Native English Speakers
GTM	Grammar Translation Method
SL	Second Language
TA	Traditional Approach
TL	Target Language

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