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Connecting classroom English to real-world English: Taiwanese teachers and students' perspectives on ELF-aware pedagogy

by

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ABSTRACT

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CONNECTING CLASSROOM ENGLISH TO REAL-WORLD ENGLISH: TAIWANESE TEACHERS AND STUDENTS' PERSPECTIVES ON ELF-AWARE PEDAGOGY

By Hui Yen Yu

There has been considerable research on the global spread of English and its impact on English language use. In particular, there is extensive interest in how the fluid nature of the lingua franca use of English is impacting on real world communication and the consequent pedagogical implications for English language teaching (ELT) and acquisition. However, to date there has been limited research on the ways in which ELT teachers can adapt their teaching strategies to ensure that learners are equipped to use English in the real world. This study involves conducting a critical education inquiry using a Critical Pedagogy informed approach to observe Taiwanese teachers and undergraduate students of English, with the aims being to, firstly, identify the principles being employed by teachers and, secondly, to discover students' understanding regarding learning English as a lingua franca (ELF) for real-world communication. To these ends, I posit the following research questions:

1. What learning/teaching theories and concepts inform Taiwanese teachers of English who teach for real-world communication?
2. What are students' perceptions of learning English for the purposes of the real-world communication within the framework of Taiwanese English language education?

I collected data from respondents in three universities and subsequent analysis revealed that the majority of classroom practice was geared towards teaching English as a foreign language rather than as a lingua franca that could be used in real life settings to communicate with a range of English speakers. Specifically, observation of classroom practice and interviews revealed that imitation and repetition strategies are commonly used to reproduce native English-speaking (NES) related linguacultural inputs, whereas critical, interactive, alternative and integrating approaches that are associated with lingua communication, although evident in some cases, were less engaged with. Albeit all of these strategies can serve a purpose in classroom teaching and learning, my evidence suggests that a rebalancing is needed, whereby teachers are more critical and flexible about the resources and approaches they use so

as to ensure that these are suitable and context appropriate. In need of theoretical and practical support, teachers still endeavoured to explore ideas and activities for teaching and learning that were feasible in their instructional contexts in order to transcend the NES linguacultural dominance and provide lingua franca insights into classroom practices. Nevertheless, in most cases, students passively accepted the status quo. This highlighted the importance of students taking active roles in developing their own powers to be able to critically evaluate linguacultural resources and achieve balanced views on their own language acquisition and proficiency. This calls for opportunities to be created for students to legitimate their use of resources and skills to learn and use English on their own terms.

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Declaration of Authorship

I, Yu, Hui Yen declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

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I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;

2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;

3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;

4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;

5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;

6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;

7. Parts of this work have been published as: [please list references below]

Yu, M. H. 2015. Developing Critical Classroom Practice for ELF Communication: A Taiwanese Case Study of ELT Materials Evaluation. In Bowles, H. and Cogo, A. (ed.) 2015. *International Perspectives on English as Lingua Franca: pedagogical insights*. Basingstoke: Palgrave McMillan. 35-54.

Signed: Yu, Hui Yen

Date:

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background and the development of this PhD

English has made its "journey" from one place to another across the world over the course of time, from the British Colonial period to the era of American superpower. This journey continues, encouraging the spread of the English language itself and the development of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) in diverse settings. The implications arising from this global spread of English have been discussed from a myriad of perspectives. One significant development is the pragmatic function of English for communication, in areas such as business, technology, tourism, and higher education (Graddol, 2006). The English language serves communication purposes among people with diverse lingual, cultural, and professional backgrounds and is more widely used than other languages in the above-mentioned international domains. Given its pragmatic function, English language education has become increasing pervasive in recent years, such as in the Asian context in which English is recognised and acquired as a foreign language (EFL). EFL learning in China, Japan, Korea, Taiwan and ASEAN countries are cases in point, with these countries making substantial investment in English language education (Kirkpatrick and Sussex, 2012; Nunan, 2003). One primary matter to consider is how English language education for lingua franca use in non-classroom contexts is interpreted and implemented in the classrooms in countries such as these. Another common concern for these countries is how the current EFL paradigm under which English teaching/learning is implemented meets speakers' needs for communication. Consequently, addressing these issues has become pedagogically significant for EFL education in these countries.

In Taiwan, EFL education is aimed at teaching/learning for communication across nations and cultures (MOE, 2010). Recently, studies have focused on English language teachers or undergraduates' perceptions of English or EFL provision from lingua franca or world Englishes perspectives, providing invaluable perceptual understanding of current EFL education for communicative use (Lai, 2008; Ke, 2010; Liou, 2010; Chang, Y., 2014). Nevertheless, there are scant studies of first-hand, contextual description on how EFL education is implemented for communication in non-classroom settings. Moreover, despite EFL provision for intercultural (Ke, 2012a; 2012 b), international (Chang, Y. 2014), and lingua franca (Lai, 2008; Tsou and Chen, 2014) exchange being cited in these studies, actual teaching/learning practices have rarely been investigated so as to gain genuine understanding of the English taught and learned for intercultural/international communication in institutions.

Recently, a substantial body of literature on ELT enterprise (Alsagoff et al., 2012; Matusda, 2012a; Sharifian, 2009), second language acquisition (SLA) (Canagarajah, 2007; Jenkins, 2006a; Kramsch and Whiteside, 2007), intercultural awareness and ELT (Baker, 2012a, 2015a; 2015b) as well as ELF-aware pedagogy (Bayyurt and Akcan, 2015; Bowles and Cogo, 2015) has provided insight into teaching/learning English for communication from the perspectives of World Englishes (WE), English

as an International Language (EIL) and English as Lingua Franca (ELF) rather than English as Native Language (ENL). In Taiwanese EFL contexts, however, a monolingual perspective and/or native-like competence of English still have substantial impact on teachers and/or students' perceptions of, and attitudes towards, English used by speakers worldwide (Chang, 2008; Lai, 2008; Liou, 2010). In addition, native-speaking perspectives of 'international English' remain pervasive in the selection and use of textbooks, school curriculums implemented, and the education policy initiated (Chen, 2010:89). Similar to other EFL contexts in East Asia (Kirkpatrick, 2010), native speaker ideology appears prevalent based on Taiwanese people's perceptions. Current EFL provision in Taiwan seems to be adherent to its 'original national base', such as the UK and US, as Dewey (2012a) indicates. However, there is little evidence supporting this claim and if it is the case, then the question remains as to why these native-speaking practices and mono-linguacultural perspectives continue to persist in the context of Taiwanese EFL teaching and learning. In order to resolve these matters, the actual teaching and learning practices inside classrooms need to be unpacked through observational research in these settings.

1.2 Objectives

Taiwanese scholars (Liao, 2005; Ke, 2010) highlight the dissonance between EFL provision in Taiwan and English applied in the above cited international domains and consequently, advocate pedagogical shifts. As Lai (2008) indicates, Taiwanese EFL teachers have felt ambivalent towards teaching English for communicative use, given a lack of concepts/theories, practical techniques, and available materials to support their teaching practices. As a result of this, it is assumed here that many Taiwanese students whose English learning comes entirely from their mainstream EFL classes, will be ill equipped to engage with interlocutors in English as a lingua franca on a worldwide basis (Chang J., 2008). If this is the case, it is expected that both students and teachers are hesitant about teaching and learning English for intercultural exchanges, as some literature has claimed (Lai, 2008; Ke and Cahyani 2014). Despite calls for EFL pedagogical shifts by some researchers, these are purely theoretical or abstract and hence, fail to provide practical suggestions for how make teaching and learning of English more geared towards acquiring a lingua franca usage of the language.

My interest in this subject comes from my experiences of the lingua franca use of English in a variety of settings, for these have motivated me to examine critically my assumptions about English language and its use. These assumptions were based on the acquired knowledge and conception of English language and its use from the EFL education I received in Taiwan. My lingua franca experience served as a catalyst for me to explore how I learned English language under the Taiwanese educational system for use for communication outside of classrooms, leading to my concerns about the weak connection of the former with the latter in international settings. My EFL teacher colleagues as well as my students have expressed similar concerns about applying the English taught and learned inside our classrooms

to communicative language use outside. In order to support Taiwanese EFL practitioners and students and learning English for communication both inside and outside the classroom, this research aims to provide pedagogical insights regarding why English taught/learned inside classrooms usually fails to equip students with the capability to use the language as a lingua franca on a global basis. It is anticipated that the thesis findings will have implications for EFL education, English language teaching, teaching/learning materials, and English language acquisition.

1.3 Research questions

Current EFL education policies and curricula retain pedagogical decisions made from the perspectives of Taiwanese governmental policymakers, like the MOE or Executive Yuan (see Section 2.6) rather than from EFL education receivers and practitioners. As Shoharmy (2006) points out, considering teachers as agents and students as receivers constitutes a bottom-up approach regarding the interpretation and implementation of top-down language policy as well as school curricula in classroom practice. In addition, teachers and students still have various degrees of freedom to choose and decide what to teach and learn and how (Richards, 1998). In support of Shoharmy and Richards' ideas about bottom-up perspectives, I argue that Taiwanese teachers and students of English are in the best position to provide insights into EFL provision for communication by virtue of their being the practitioners and potential language users, respectively. That is, the bottom-up perspectives of teaching, learning, and using English for communication inside classrooms are vital for addressing the pedagogical concerns raised above. Consequently, this research involves investigation of teachers and students' first-hand perspectives on the EFL curriculum in Taiwan and the materials used regarding their suitability for generating proficient lingua franca usage of English in communicative settings. As such, this thesis addresses a gap in the literature, which hitherto has not, to the best of my knowledge, involved seeking the voices of those directly engaged in EFL teaching and learning in this context.

In light of the above, this research focuses on whether and how current EFL conventions/practices concur with Taiwanese people's use of English in global social contexts, with the aim being to reconceptualise the extant theories on teaching/learning so as to fulfil the lingua franca perspectives of English for communication purposes in the Taiwanese context where necessary. To this end, the issues to be addressed include: 1) the nature of English taught/learned in schools and 2) teachers and learners' perception of English for communication in real-life settings. That is, the ways in which English is taught and learnt inside classrooms is investigated so as to allow for comparison with the lingua franca use of English outside and to ascertain whether these are consistent with each other and if not why. To guide the research the following questions are posed.

1. What learning/teaching theories and concepts inform Taiwanese teachers of English who teach for real-world communication?

2. What are students' perceptions of learning English for the purposes of the real-world communication within the framework of Taiwanese English language education?

It is anticipated that by addressing these research questions it will be possible to reconceptualise the implementation of current English language education in Taiwan and make recommendations on appropriate materials for improving the teaching of English in classrooms, thereby equipping students with ability to use the language as a lingua franca.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

In Chapter 2, the literature on the use of English for intercultural communication, English language teaching (ELT) and second language acquisition (SLA) is considered from the lingua franca perspective. Subsequently, the extant research on English teaching, learning and usage in Taiwan is reviewed. Chapter 3 presents the methodology and research methods employed, explains the data collection in institutes of higher education in Taiwan, and describes the ways in which sets of data are managed and analysed. Chapter 4 provides questionnaire surveys results, which offer a macro-level picture of the studied contexts, the orientation of pedagogy and curricula in Taiwan as well as what language resources are available for teaching and learning. Chapter 5 contains the results of interviews with Taiwanese teachers and students regarding how they conceptualise English teaching/learning in the classroom and what materials they consider as being appropriate. The empirical work in Chapter 6, based on observations, scrutinises the realities of English language teaching and learning in order determine whether what teachers report they do during their classroom practice is valid and also to assess whether what is being taught/learnt facilitates effective English language use in real-world communication. Overall, the results of Chapters 4, 5 and 6 allow for thorough addressing of the research questions from both the teacher and students' perspectives. In Chapter 7, there is discussion of the findings in relation to the reviewed literature and the outcomes from the three data sets, with particular emphasis being placed on the implications for EFL education. The chapter also provides a summary of the key findings, the contributions of the research, consideration of its limitations and puts forward proposals for future studies that will complement this work.

1.5 Terminology

From the relevant literature, it will become apparent that there is a range of terminology in the context of learning English as an additional language. Hence, in this section I provide clarification of some of the terminology I have chosen to adopt for this thesis. First, English language education (ELE) is frequently used as an umbrella term in the statements about the national English language curriculum by the MOE (MOE, 2010), referring to English language teaching and learning issues in general. The participants in my research tended to refer to ELE as a broad range of topics concerning English language teaching and learning in the classroom. Thus, ELE in this research refers to the themes regarding teaching and learning English language in the participants' contexts.

Reconceptualising the term critical for applied linguistic research, Pennycook (2010a) indicates that this represents a process of arguing against the assumed centre (i.e. de-centring) and questioning and problematizing of the normative assumptions about language and its use. In line with Pennycook's perspective, I use the term critical throughout this research, such as: critical education research, critical education theories, critical pedagogy, or critical approach. As consequence, the process of de-centring and questioning the dominant discourses embedded in the Taiwanese ELT curriculum, the materials used and classroom practices is pursued. For instance, the term ELF is adopted as a critical perspective to de-centre and question the dominant classroom practices as well as teachers and students' beliefs about these practices.

I employ ELF rather than EIL or WE in my research, first, because the latter two have the connotation of a nation-based approach for conceptualizing the development, use, speakers, and education of global Englishes (GE henceforth) (Jenkins, 2015; Pennycook, 2010b). Recognizing the restrictions of a nation-based approach to English, I adopt ELF's non-static and non-monolithic approach to English for communication to investigate teachers/students' beliefs about and the practices of teaching/learning English. Through the adoption of a critical approach, the concept of ELF as a form of institutional knowledge is introduced to challenge the established ELE in Taiwanese contexts. For instance, I use ELF as the institution-based theoretical perspective to compare and contrast participants' understandings of English for communication.

Lastly, in my research, the terms 'real-world English' and 'real-world communication' equate to English and its use for communication in international, intercultural, and real-world settings by which I mean settings outside the English language classroom. The reasons for such terminology use are as follows. Firstly, ELF/WE/EIL perspectives on international or intercultural communication represent institutional knowledge and it is possible that this knowledge fails to address the local concerns about English for communication (Canagarajah, 2005), such as in Taiwan. Therefore, to avoid this potential limitation I use the term real-world English or communication as an alternative to lingua franca English, global Englishes and international or intercultural communication. The second reason is that ELF/WE/EIL research paradigms are well-established and have institutional conventions for the use of these terms. Therefore, the use of real-world English or communication avoids the imposition of institutional knowledge, thereby allowing the participants to conceptualise English and its use for communication in their own terms, thus add a local dimension to the focal phenomena. Thirdly, the term real-world English is used because the majority of the teacher participants interpreted classroom English as being different from the language taught/acquired for the use of English in non-classroom settings (See chapters 4, 5 and 6).

Chapter 2 Literature review: investigating ELF-aware pedagogy in the Taiwanese EFL context

2.1 Introduction

The global status of English has contributed to the expansion of English language education in English as a second language (ESL) and EFL contexts. The majority of English language teachers and learners are teaching and learning English in the latter context (Graddol, 2006). Due to the colonial legacy as well as the economic and political power of the UK and US, British English (BrEng) and American English (AmEng) are the commonly accepted varieties used for English language teaching (ELT) purposes and this is the case in EFL contexts such as Japan (Galloway, 2013; Galloway and Rose, 2014) and Taiwan (Ke and Cahyani, 2014). These two types of English and their respective cultures are often drawn upon in international contexts, thereby encouraging the expansion of US/ENL-related ELT enterprise. This includes the development of international English language proficiency examinations (Jenkins, 2012), materials (Thornsbury, 2013), Western-based/imported approaches to teaching (Seidlhofer, 2011), TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages), and training (Dewey, 2012b). As a result, AmEng/BrEng and their cultures are then set as the target for EFL teachers and students to strive towards (Kirkpatrick, 2010) and in the Taiwanese EFL context, the focus is predominantly on US/ENL language and culture (Chang Y, 2014; Ke and Cahyani, 2014).

In contrast to NES/US/UK perspectives on English and culture, the English of people using it for communication from a range of linguacultural backgrounds is characterised by a diverse, flexible, and interactive linguacultural exchanges that accommodate communicative circumstances. Consequently, some scholars in the fields of ELF and GE have questioned the stable, static, and geographically distinct perspectives of the language and its use (Jenkins et al., 2011) as well as the associated cultural presentation (Baker, 2015a, 2015b). Others have pointed to international interlocutors' constant (re)interpretation and (re)adaptation of language use and cultures through local practices (Canagarajah, 2013; Pennycook, 2007, 2010b). Despite the different foci on lingua franca uses of English for real-world interaction, proponents of the aforementioned perspectives contest the use of ENL/US -related linguacultural resources and their normative representation for ELT practices. They have observed the conceptual and practical inconsistency regarding the linguacultural representation of classroom English in EFL contexts aiming at imparting real-world English for communication (Jenkins, 2012; Baker, 2015a, 2015b; Canagarajah, 1999). A case in point is the Taiwanese EFL context (Chen and Tsai, 2012; Seilharmer, 2015).

To explore further the literature on the abovementioned mismatch in this chapter, I first provide a brief historical overview of ELF-related research paradigms and the implications of the earlier literature for further research into ELT in the past two decades (Section 2.2). This explores the paradigmatic perspectives and implications that help me define a set of beliefs that outline the ideas and design of this classroom-based ELF research. To understand classroom-based research from ELF perspective,

Section 2.3 considers how the earlier research and literature examined aspects of curriculum. This review first offers an insight into what aspects of ELT have been addressed, further motivating me to employ ELF as a critical means to question the underlying assumptions about EFL education for real-world communication. Recognizing that students' perspectives on ELF-aware language acquisition are largely absent, I discuss the suggestions for teachers or students to focus on ELF-aware language acquisition (Section 2.4). In order to understand whether the proposed suggestions context-relevant to EFL education, I evaluate and adopt an ethnographic perspective towards the experiences to be captured under EFL contexts (Section 2.5). This section highlights how local knowledge about ELF-aware pedagogy can be generated from investigating teaching and learning events in situ and add an additional dimension to ELF classroom-based research. I discuss Taiwanese EFL contexts, focusing on the national curriculum and the language policies from the perspective of English as a global language (Section 2.6). I also review studies on Taiwanese people's perspectives on English as a global language and its impacts on language teaching and learning identifying some absent research and methodological perspectives. Lastly, I discuss how critical education theory that can help when exploring classroom events and when considering English from an ELF perspective.

2.2 ELF as a critical educational research paradigm

Scholars have proposed several research paradigms to reconceptualise the global phenomena that have emerged from expansion of the English language. These examine the effects that its status has had on the use and teaching/learning of English in diverse contexts. WE scholars have successfully drawn researchers' attention to the pluralistic nature of English language in global contexts (Kachru, 1992). Under this paradigm, linguistic coding of the localised Englishes from historical and geographic perspectives is called for (Kachru, 2005). From these debates EIL has emerged, which distinguishes intra-national and international use of English, emphasizing the need for EIL when communicating across national boundaries (McKay and Borkhurst-Heng, 2008). The common ground between WE and EIL is a geographic and stable view regarding English language and its use. Consequently, these two paradigms might have encouraged the overgeneralisation of Englishes and their usage, which has meant that the linguacultural fluidity, complexity and dynamics embedded in the real-world communicative discourses found in local practices have been overlooked (Pennycook, 2003, 2007; Baker, 2015a, 2015b). Building on the WE and EIL enterprise so as to take into account the linguacultural diversity and variety in English and its uses, ELF proponents have pointed to the pitfalls of adopting static and nation-based approaches to English linguacultural repertoires for communication (Baker, 2015a, 2015b). Moreover they have criticised the ENL/non-ENL dichotomy used for conceptualising Englishes (Seidlhofer, 2011). To address these limitations, they place emphasis on language users' awareness and level of competence in readjusting and negotiating linguacultural representation and complexity in accordance with communicative circumstances (Jenkins, 2009; Baker, 2009).

In the earlier literatures, ELF was used to examine the politics, ideology and normative perspectives that prevail in ELT enterprise (Pennycook, 1994) and English language education in ESL contexts (Canagarajah, 1999). More recently, the ELF research paradigm has lent itself to scholars' reinterpretations of Englishes for communication. That is, these scholars have added another dimension to ELF research into English as a communicative practice inside of classrooms in contrast to the real-world Englishes outside (Ranta, 2010; Canagarajah, 2013; Ke and Cahyani, 2014). The studies mentioned above have drawn attention to classroom practices, such as the objectives of teaching and learning, teaching and learning strategies, and the connection of learning to using English. This trend shows that the ELF research focus has shifted from the macro-level focusing on theoretical inquiry, towards micro-level analysis of ELT practices, thus highlighting practical dimensions. In sum, under the ELF lens it is necessary to determine whether, and if so, how SLA (Jenkins, 2006a), ELT practices (Seidlhofer, 2011; Canagarajah, 2013) and TESOL training programmes (Dewey, 2012b, 2015; Bayyurt and Sifakis, 2015a, 2015b) can link the diverse and non-static nature of English and its various uses to actual classroom practices (Jenkins, 2006b). Below, pioneering ELF studies that have established a research path for investigating ELT, language acquisition and other aspects that relate to classroom practices are covered.

2.2.1 ELF perspective on what is taught and learned

ELF researchers have described real-world Englishes and communication in fine detail, with the aim being to challenge current language teaching/learning in areas such as pronunciation (Jenkins, 2000), lexicogrammar (Cogo and Dewey, 2012), pragmatics (Cogo and Dewey, 2012) as well as in cultural diversity and intercultural awareness (Baker, 2009, 2011a, 2011b). ELF researchers have also investigated the linguacultural nature of Englishes found in real-world communicative practices in professional domains, including academia (Mauranen, 2012) and business (Cogo, 2012). The main contribution of these studies regarding English language use and education has been to reach beyond the former prescriptive perspective and move towards a descriptive one that recognizes the complexity of language use (Seidlhofer, 2011) and cultural awareness (Baker, 2015a, 2015b). This change in focus has led to a discussion about how the linguacultural resources presented in classrooms for language acquisition and teaching can match communicative requirements in non-classroom communication settings.

In the following, I consider three influential empirical studies as examples that demonstrate how the dominant prescriptive perspective on language teaching/learning was challenged under the ELF paradigm. Firstly, Jenkins' (2000) findings from her observational classroom research into the international intelligibility of lingua franca use of English questions revealed that pre-set classroom pronunciation model(s) for students does not align with their pronunciation outside of the lessons. She therefore queried the appropriateness of the set pronunciation model. Secondly, Seidlhofer (2004)

conducted corpus-based research into spoken lingua franca use of English and these findings challenge the prescriptive nature of teaching and learning English grammar and lexis based on NES (native-English speaking) models. She critically examined the prescriptive approach to English language use in traditional classroom practices. Recently, her results have prompted her to adopt a descriptive perspective in order to promote conceptual and attitudinal changes in pedagogy (Seidlhofer, 2011). However, communication is not just about language and its use, for it also comprises users' cultural understanding. It is only in the past decade that the ELF perspective has been incorporated into studies on cultural and intercultural awareness involved in communication. Baker's (2009, 2011a, 2011b) original research re-evaluates the conception of cultural flow and dynamics in Thai and Asian contexts and challenges the appropriateness of using pre-defined cultural resources as the basis for communication. He argues that 'the boundaries between one language and culture and another are less clearly delineated' (Baker, 2011a:199) and emphasizes the danger of transferring specific cultural norms. The general conclusion to be drawn from these researchers is that extant representations of English language, its use, and cultures as input resources tend to be inappropriate. This consensus brings the following pedagogical issue to the fore: how to present English language and culture so as to facilitate the connection of students' learning inside classrooms to their use of the language for communication in other arenas.

2.2.2 Presenting and interpreting English inside and outside of classrooms

ELT and applied linguistics scholars recognise that generalisation and selective representation is commonplace and almost inevitable in the following: teaching (Brumfit, 2001), SLA (Ellis, 2012), and ELT materials (Crawford, 2002; Gray, 2010). With regards to imbalanced linguacultural representation in ELT practices, there has been a debate about the practicality and pedagogical significance of presenting students real-world Englishes in contrast to the English prescribed for acquisition. Regarding which, Pennycook (2012) contends that attempts to reflect completely lingua franca English usage is problematic and unrealistic. Seidlhofer (2011) points out that lingua franca use of English for socialising is highly complex, dynamic and dependent on the social interactions and interactional contexts, which makes it difficult to present such English to students in classrooms. Seidlhofer (2011:73) further argues that 'the English language that is documented and presented as *reference* bears *little resemblance* to the actual language that individuals experience as users [my italics]'. It is therefore very likely that the presented English language, language use, and cultures inside the classroom, for example in textbooks or through teaching, is partial, over generalised or too simple.

Despite the inherent limitations of language and cultural representation inside of the classroom, language presentation is important because it affects learners' perception of communicative language use (Akbari, 2008a; Badger and Macdonald, 2010). The same is true regarding cultural representation (Baker, 2015b). These scholars' concerns have stimulated further discussion. One aspect is the need to

consider which English language and cultures are presented to students for language acquisition and use inside of the classroom in order to prepare them for lingua franca communication. Another is the need to examine how to interpret English inside and outside of classrooms, as well as explain how English used by students inside of classrooms reflects communicative language use outside. Scholars' interpretations of classroom and non-classroom English are covered next, as well as my perspective on these issues.

Taking the emic (inside of the classroom) and social function perspectives to reconceptualise language use inside classrooms, Walsh (2011:49) argues that the English used by teachers and students to interact between themselves reflects a part of real-world communication. His argument is based on observing interactive usage among teachers and students as well as his view that L2 classrooms are as much a 'social context' as any other 'real world' context. That is, the boundary between the pedagogical function of classroom language use and real world usage is not necessarily clear cut. Similarly, other scholars argue that teachers and/or students' input and output resources enable students to engage in classroom communication. That is, students' communicative engagement should be interpreted as a form of real-world communication in spite of their limited use of resources or adherence to the restricted prescribed activities found in textbooks (Guariento and Morley, 2001; Lueng, 2013; Widdowson, 1998). Since the English presented to students is different from that used in the real-world communication, I take the view that in scenarios where the students are offered space to use English based on textbook and lesson-based materials, it is an opportunity for me to understand how students relate their use of English inside of classrooms to English for real-world communication outside of them.

The first way to explore classroom English is to examine the extent to which students adhere to the pre-determined linguacultural norms found in textbooks and those delivered through teaching. Regarding which, students' use of English for transcending prescribed English usage or for negotiating pre-given linguacultural norms can regarded as moving toward lingua franca use of English (see discussion about this topic in Seidlhofer, 2011). The second approach is to look at how students use English to interact with each other as well as their teachers. In ELT classrooms, students' use of English for pedagogical or social purposes cannot be clearly delineated, because prescribed speaking activities for learning are utilized in a variety of ways (Leung, 2013; Widdowson, 1998). To be more specific, set communication activities are completed by some simply to finish the task at hand, whilst others use them as opportunities to improve their interactive language skills for use in outside contexts.

2.2.3 Pedagogical implications to consider with respect to ELF

In the past two decades, there have been many studies carried out to investigate the weak connection of the Englishes and cultures presented, taught, and learned inside of classrooms. Some offer theoretical support for considering target language and cultures, teachers' beliefs and attitude towards Englishes (Jenkins, 2007) and critical pedagogy (Canagarajah, 1999, 2013; Pennycook, 1994, 2001, 2012). There

have been other small-scale empirical studies or context-related investigations undertaken from the perspectives of EIL/WE/ELF. These explored various aspects of ELT in order to supplement pedagogical advice made by earlier studies or to offer pedagogical suggestions for ELT practices (Alsagoff et al., 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Matsuda, 2012a; Sharifian, 2009; Bayyurt and Sumru, 2015; Bowels and Cogo, 2015). One conclusion emerging from the reviewed literature is the dominance of NES Englishes and cultures in the studied contexts (i.e. EFL and ESL contexts) which further exacerbates the weak connection of classroom English to real-world communication. One major implication for teaching and learning is the need to raise teacher and students' awareness of the linguacultural diversity of English.

As discussed above, EIL/WE/ELF researchers work under the assumption that NES ideology and classroom practices prevail and have reported that this hinders teachers/learners in acquiring English for communication. However, scant literature has scrutinized specifically what are the drivers for NES ideological prevalence, and how it is manifested in specific sites as the degree of entrenchment of NES ideology is likely to vary across contexts. I contend that an ELF inquiry into NES-based ELT would be inadequate if the mechanisms through which NES ideological dominance emerges is not probed. To provide rich insights into NES-based ELT, it is necessary to shed light on the following: which kinds of English and cultures are presented to teachers and students for practice, how students and teachers use these, and nature of the potential impacts of the use of these on teaching and learning.

2.3 Reassessing curriculum from a lingua franca perspective

This section begins by discussing the pedagogical significance of the curriculum or syllabus because these set out what to teach and what resources should be introduced to support teaching and learning (Richards, 2001). The conceptual perspectives applied and the underlying assumptions that shape the English language curriculum are considered. This justifies my choice of the ELF as a critical perspective from which to examine ELT in my thesis. The discussion below aims to provide a theoretical and practical backdrop to analyse how certain curricular/pedagogical decisions 'delimit' (Brown, 2012:152) certain linguacultural norms that are introduced and perpetuated in classroom discourses.

Van Lier (1996: 21-22) indicates that the curriculum or syllabus provides structure to constrain what should be learned as well as to set out opportunities and resources to support learning. Richards (2001) holds a similar view, indicating that the curriculum determines what to teach and explains that it is not possible to 'teach the whole of a language' so 'a choice of what will be taught' is inevitable (p.4). Given the selective nature of what and how to teach and learn, it emerges that the curriculum should be investigated in order to understand what linguacultural resources are selected by teachers and presented to students for teaching and learning. The results of this could further help elucidate whether or not ELF has been selected and then incorporated into ELT as a pedagogical choice and the reasons for this.

2.3.1 Previous literature on ELF-aware pedagogy

Scholars of applied linguistics and ELF agree that the teaching curriculum is often developed based on certain underlying assumptions about English language and its use (Richards, 2001; McKay, 2003). Among the scant literature addressing how far the English language curriculum includes an EIL perspective, McKay and Bokhorst-Heng (2008) observe that institutions' curricular assumptions determine the type of English input they advocate. A case in point is the rather vague theory used to support the 'English-only' curriculum in the US. They indicate that this was developed based on the assumption of the monolingual approach being the most effective for English language acquisition. McKay and Bokhorst-Heng (2008) further note that this approach is likely to hinder students from applying multilingual resources to English language acquisition and its use. They conclude that this sort of curriculum can discourage students' development of international English literacy.

Matsuda and Friedrich (2011:337) consider curricular decisions, indicating that this kind of decision is ideally made according to 'the goals of courses and the needs of students'. From an EIL perspective, Matsuda and Friedrich (2011, 2012) observe that AmEng or BrEng is usually chosen and accepted as the instructional model(s) in classrooms and the underlying theory used to support this decision is the view that AmEng/BrEng is the established and accepted means for teaching/learning. They argue that selecting AmEng/BrEng as the instructional model(s) restricts students' learning to just 'one of many' Englishes and conclude that this curricular choice could hamper ELT for international communication. From a WE perspective, D'Angelo (2012) emphasizes that curricular decisions often prescribe limited English language input resources, leading to little considerations of others and restricts students' acquisition to one type of or a few particular kinds of English for communication. He proposes more varieties of Englishes should be incorporated into curriculum development. What is not considered in the literature is whether or not these suggestions are feasible and under what instructional contexts they can be implemented.

The literature above provides insight regarding the underlying assumptions assisting curriculum development at the theoretical level. The WE and EIL literatures have successfully drawn researchers' attention to the pluri-centric nature of English language that crosses national boundaries, showing that it is more than a monolithic entity. Nevertheless, a nation-based approach to Englishes still prevails in the reviewed literature and is invariably grounded in the following assumptions about English language and education. Firstly, these scholars seem to assume that the curriculum determines a one-form variety of English for teaching purposes and they tend to overlook the possibility of there being curricular alternatives for teachers and students to explore. Secondly, they assume that teachers and students faithfully translate the curricular choices (e.g. AmEng) into their practices and ignore their particular ability to reinterpret and modify the chosen linguacultural resources or input in accordance with day-to-day teaching and learning circumstances. Thirdly, the existing research into the curriculum does not

seem to offer sufficient classroom-based evidence to support their arguments against the reinforcement of one particular kind of English or linguacultural resources and the issue of linguacultural dominance remains an abstract concept rather than a tangible phenomenon. It remains to be confirmed if there is inevitably dominance by NES or a monolinguacultural approach in the curriculum.

Regarding the assessment of curriculum, scholars from EIL and ELF fields have made the following suggestions for curriculum research. McKay (2003) advises that the assumptions about language and education should be challenged in order to consider the curricular choices as well as the underlying assumptions. With respect to curricular practices, Canagarajah (1999) recognises the importance of analysing the two key educational agents' (teachers and students') curricular interpretations, decisions and practices by examining their reflections on and practical use of major linguacultural resources (i.e. textbooks) to teach and learn. Given the interactive relationship between curricular decisions and contexts, Dewey (2012b) proposes that ELF researchers should conduct classroom-based research to reassess the curriculum because it must be considered in a context-relevant way. In order to consider Taiwanese context-friendly ELF-aware pedagogy, it is reasonable that my investigation probes the presence of any entrenched NES dominance in classroom discourses and how teachers and students reinterpret and handle the NES-based linguacultural resources, Moreover, Brown (2012) suggests that an ELF perspective should be taken to interrogate the linguacultural norms that are taken-for-granted and put forward as requirements through the curriculum. In line with Brown's (2012) points above, taking an ELF perspective to question the curriculum in Taiwanese universities is a reasonable approach to this current study because little research to date has taken this stance. Now I review the literature on how curricular agencies make pedagogical selections and decisions which in turn, influence their practices.

Referring to Canagarajah's (1999) definition, scholars from EIL and critical pedagogy delegate the question of 'what to teach' to curricular agencies (institutes, teachers, examinations bodies, and textbook publishers), highlighting their roles in determining the adopted pedagogical orientation (Akbari, 2008a; Brown, 2012; McKay, 2003). For instance, ELT scholars maintain that the institutional curriculum provides pre-planned classroom activities for teachers select from and then decide on which specifically to teach in order to meet the pre-set institutional objectives (Richards, 1998). The above emphasizes the importance of examining the curricular and pedagogical decisions made by institutions and teachers on what English should be taught and learned for communication and what kind of linguacultural resources should be introduced to realise their decisions. The review above accentuates how curricular agencies interact to decide the orientations and practice of and resources available for teaching and learning English. The implication emerging from the discussion above is the necessity to look at how curricular agencies interact to shape each other's decisions on linguacultural input resources (i.e. what to teach) and the ways to use the selected resources (i.e. how to teach them).

2.3.2 Teaching: beliefs, choices, practices, and education

I review teachers' beliefs about language use and teaching and how these beliefs affect their pedagogical choices and practices by drawing upon the literature regarding teacher/teaching-related topics in the fields of applied linguistics, ELT and ELF. To this end, I refer to theories of teaching from the ELT literature to consider 1) how the established ELT and/or SLA theories could be adapted to and applied to investigate ELF-aware pedagogy and 2) the implications of the literature on teachers' beliefs/knowledge for constructing my research study.

Early ELF research into teaching-related concerns mainly focused on teachers' attitudes towards Englishes. This type of research has provided insights into whether and how ELT teachers become aware of Englishes and the lingua franca use of English (Jenkins, 2007). Uncovering teachers' understanding about the use of Englishes is important to develop adequate teacher training programmes and equip practitioners appropriately regarding the global spread of English and the implications of this for teaching and learning. However, literature inspired by Jenkins' investigation in 2007 seems to focus more on teachers' preferences as to which Englishes should serve as learning models (e.g. Hino, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Llurda, 2009). Among these studies, very few scholars discuss how such choices are made in relation to teaching and learning circumstances (Subsection 2.2.2). Even fewer consider how teachers' level of awareness of Englishes affects their pedagogical decisions regarding linguacultural resources, ways to deliver the input, and how to bring about changes in practices. The lack of discussion about teachers' awareness of Englishes and its potential impact on their pedagogical decisions has held back our understanding about their decisions on what to teach and how to deliver this.

Regarding pedagogical decisions, Jenkins (2007) argues that incorporating ELF into classroom practices is a choice for teachers. To understand pedagogical choices, teacher education researchers suggest teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning should be examined for the following reasons. Firstly, teachers' stated beliefs are highly consistent with their instructional decisions and practices (Duff and Anderson, 1986; Smith, 1996: 70). According to Young and Walsh, (2010), teachers' beliefs affect their decisions on what kind of English needs to be targeted for teaching and learning. Further, Donaghue (2003:344) argues that 'teachers' beliefs influence the acceptance and uptake of new approaches, techniques, and activities'. Donaghue's point is particularly relevant to raising cognisance of ELF-aware pedagogy because teachers' beliefs about lingua franca use of English are very likely to affect their decision to accept and translate this perspective into practice. Further, teachers' beliefs affect their pedagogical choices on what and how to teach (Johnson, 1995; Parajres, 1992). If a new approach is to be accepted, teachers' deeply held beliefs determine whether teachers desire to make pedagogical changes in their practices and what theories help to support this kind of choice (Borg, 2007; Clarke and Hollingsworth, 2002). To link Borg's point to ELF-aware pedagogy, it becomes important to examine how teachers draw on what they have grasped from established ELT and SLA theories when trying to

incorporate ELF into their teaching practices. In all regards, an investigation into teachers' beliefs about ELF perspectives is necessary to understand teachers' theories on teaching and learning and the process of translating their theories into practices to make pedagogical changes and subsequently put these changes into action. To seek and realise pedagogical changes, I assume that the concept of ELF, regardless of whether it comes from formal teacher training or a teacher's language use experience, could stimulate teachers to explore ideas and activities involving teaching English in novel ways that differ from the well-established ENL-based ELT as commonly found in Taiwanese contexts. It is also worth understanding the potential challenges faced by teachers when trying to incorporate some dimensions of an ELF perspective into their lessons. As mentioned, ELF-aware pedagogy is concerned with teachers' beliefs as well as the impacts of their beliefs on teaching practices. To explore the complex relationship between teachers' beliefs and actual practices, teacher education researchers advocate that extensive in depth qualitative scholarship (Phipps and Borg, 2009) is undertaken.

ELF researchers claim that ELF has not been well incorporated into ELT practices, suggesting more ELF-aware courses, activities, or classroom practices in Japanese and Taiwanese contexts. For instance, Galloway and Rose (2014) propose that listening journals raise students' awareness of Global Englishes (GE). Suzuki (2011) suggests that the concept of ELF should be introduced to teacher training programmes in order to help novices incorporate ELF into their teaching practices in the future. Chang Y. (2014) conducted similar investigation into Taiwanese English Majors, proposing WE-related courses to enhance Taiwanese students' awareness of lingua franca English and communication. These studies provide insights into the development of ELF-aware classroom practices; in particular, incorporating ELF into courses for English or non-English Majors. However, in these studies, the investigated courses were run by lecturers who have fundamental understanding of WE, EIL, and/or GE so the implications arising from these studied for other teachers/teacher trainers to apply may not be practical if they have not gained equal understanding about WE, EIL, or ELF as those lecturers did in Galloway and Rose's (2014) and Suzuki's (2011) studies. In addition, the students who participated in their studies either have completed a GE course or majored in English and may have acquired better knowledge of English language and lingua franca use of English than students who do not have similar educational backgrounds. Thirdly, those students who have not attended linguistics-related and GE courses might have different responses to ELF-aware activities or learning if their teachers decide to bring their interpretations of ELF perspective forward. Lastly, the studied courses are WE or EIL-related and the implications for ELT in general may be restricted due to the nature of general English or skill-based curriculum (Richards, 2001) in most EFL contexts is different from that of WE-related or teacher training courses.

ELF scholars have identified the prevalence of curriculum and teaching practices that have a pedagogical orientation that leans towards assuring the accuracy of students' English learning outcomes (Jenkins, 2000). ELF-informed research also discusses teachers' focus on assessing students' language

accuracy as follows: it is an aspect of teachers' attitudes (Jenkins, 2007), it gives models to draw upon to assess students' English language (Elder and Davies, 2006), it determines communication needs (Canagarajah, 2006), and provides for testing (e.g. Jenkins and Leung, 2014). The general consensus among these studies is that tests are form-focused, accuracy-focused and biased in favour of NES norms. The literature above also addresses tests with regards to their irrelevance to real-world communication as the foci of tests is only for a notion of accuracy, which is usually measured against NES norms and invariably fails to connect with communication for real-world situations.

Little attention has been paid by ELF scholars to teachers' classroom assessment of students' performance. One question arising is how far teachers prioritise accuracy and form-based approaches to teaching and learning inside of their classrooms in accordance with the prescribed linguistic norms set out in the chosen textbooks/materials. Other questions to consider are how students perceive their own English, which might be not correct from an NES perspective, and whether this linguistic deviation affects their decisions on learning English for real-world communication.

Two of the most common reasons given for ELT teachers to teach from the perspectives of ELF/WE/EIL are that this enhances teachers' language awareness[1] (Dewey, 2012b; Seidlhofer, 2011) and critical reflexivity regarding seeking pedagogical alternatives[2]. As to the former, scholars suggest strengthening the teaching knowledge of teacher trainees or trainers through teacher education, with ELF/WE/EIL-aware ELT teacher education programmes (Sifakis, 2007; Bayyurt and Sifakis, 2015a, 2015b; Dewey, 2015; Matsuda, 2009). There is, however, little research addressing teacher educators' awareness of ELF and how their knowledge of ELF helps them incorporate or integrate an ELF perspective into teacher training (Dewey, 2015). As Korthangen (2001) notes, teacher educators in fact lack knowledge for integrating theories into practice in training courses. In addition, scant literature and few empirical studies consider teacher trainers' perspectives on ELF. An exception is Matsuda's (2009:185) questionnaire survey into teacher educators, the results of which show that while teacher trainers were familiar with the scholarship in this area (e.g. Pennycook, 1994), ELF concepts were considered 'supplementary' and not essential for teacher training courses. Hall et al. (2013) carried out a teacher education based study into the extent to which raising teachers' awareness of the pluri-lithic nature of lingua franca English has delivered a positive ELF perspective to training teachers so that they can reinterpret English presented inside of classrooms and some potential ways to apply their interpretations in practice. A question to consider therefore is how EFL teachers, who mostly have not received ELF-based teacher education (Dewey, 2012b), understand and reinterpret ELF and put their reinterpretation of ELF into classroom practices.

[1] Sometimes referred to as 'teacher knowledge' (Andrews, 2007)

[2] The teachers' reflective practices on their teaching and students' learning that are carried out in order to make changes as well as seek new teaching/learning ideas (Pennycook, 2012:137-139).

One fundamental but not well-explored area is EFL teachers' practical knowledge. In particular this pertains to whether and if so, teachers reproduce certain theories of teaching and learning and/or classroom practices that give little space for alternatives. Tripp (2012:16) discusses how 'deliberate teaching action only in terms of what to do and how' or 'one form of interpretation' taken from certain theories can emerge as a result of ignorance or refusal to accept other approaches. In addition, teachers' practical knowledge has a direct impact on teachers' pedagogical orientations and decisions inside the classroom (Tsui, 2012). Jenkins (2007, 2012) advocates that ELF-aware teaching and learning is a 'choice' so it becomes vital to investigate teachers' beliefs about whether an ELF perspective is feasible in their instructional contexts. Regarding this, Tsui (2012) suggests that an investigation into teachers' practical knowledge should involve observing and recording teaching and interviewing teachers to understand their choices in their practices as well as their justifications for these.

Teachers' critical evaluation of their teaching serves as the catalyst for them to 1) challenge theoretical and practical assumptions about English language and ELE and 2) seek pedagogical activities to swap for the taken-for-granted, routinised teaching/learning activities regarding what is taught. In the past five years, ELF researchers have suggested that reflective practices should be introduced to teacher education programmes in order to prepare teacher trainees for teaching from an ELF perspective (Sifakis, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2011). This could help them with challenging the underlying assumptions that dictate that the curriculum must cover certain kinds of Englishes as input (Subsection 2.3.1). Widdowson (2012:4) indicates that 'if teachers can raise critical questions about theoretical assumptions that underlie the approaches that are proposed, they are in a position to establish their relevance to their own local circumstances and adapt rather than just adopt them.' In a similar vein, Pennycook (2012) outlines reflexivity, which suggests that unexpected teaching practices (i.e. non-mainstream ELT) usually occur when teachers together with students begin to think otherwise and then teach/learn otherwise. On this matter Pennycook (2012) advises that developing teachers' reflexivity requires teacher education that enhances educators' teaching knowledge and strategies. Thus, teacher training should focus on teaching strategies and reflexivity skills in order to prepare teachers for teaching in ways separated from the mainstream pedagogy. Moreover, Pennycook (2012) asserts that teacher trainers should observe and discuss with teachers in their own teaching contexts about their teaching practice in order to reflect on their practices. In this way, teachers' difficulties, needs, or teaching ideas for lingua franca based pedagogy can be addressed in local contexts. One implication for my research is to understand the feasibility of practitioners adopting an ELF approach to ELT along with understanding which strategies are useful for aiding this and subsequently help them to shift away from conventional routines and towards ELF-aware practices.

From the discussion above it appears important to investigate any gaps between what ELT teachers say about their teaching practices and what their actual classroom activities entail. Farrel (2007:29) identifies that 'what teachers say they do (their espoused theories) and what they actually do in the

classroom (their theories-in-action) are not always the same'. This scholar further opined that case studies can elaborate on their stated beliefs and actual teaching. This implies that to carry out robust investigations researchers should interview teachers to understand what and how teaching knowledge informs their practices, but also observe how their practices cross-refer to their espoused theories mentioned in their interviews.

2.3.3 The use of materials for teaching and learning

Despite the phenomenal increase in the lingua franca use of English, Jenkins (2012) argues that the ELT industry remains ENL-oriented in the areas of language teaching, English language test systems and materials. In addition, there is a general consensus that EFL and ESL classrooms are ENL dominated (Kirkpatrick, 2007), but researchers are not explicit about the types of ENL that dominate ELT and classroom discourses and how this scenario comes about. This calls for an investigation into where the much discussed ENL linguacultural dominance comes from, how this dominance has become entrenched in these contexts, and last but not least, inquiry into the possibility of changing these circumstances.

From an SLA perspective, this domination may be formulated through the delivery and reception of three major input sources (i.e. materials, teachers, and students) that the 'learners are exposed to' (Ellis, 2012:115). From an ELT perspective, Richards (1998:127) indicates that 'for many teachers, the commercial textbook is hence the primary source of teaching ideas and materials in their teaching'. As mentioned, teachers and students have no ENL backgrounds in EFL contexts so it is reasonable to assume that ENL dominance is very likely to emerge from the ENL-based commercial textbooks. Given that the received linguacultural input that students are exposed to and textbooks form the primary sources for teachers to rely on, below the review and discussion focus on the linguacultural representation in textbooks for teaching and learning and consider the implications of this for my research.

The concept of WE has often been employed to consider aspects of materials, such as: the compatibility or incompatibility between linguacultural representation and EIL-related communication (Matsuda, 2012b); dominant, inappropriate, or inadequate linguacultural presentation as learning resources (Shim et al., 2011); the prevalence of the NES approach in audio materials (Kopperoinen, 2011); and the lack of EIL/WE approaches in textbook development (Lopriore and Vettorel, 2015). Under the WE research paradigm, these topics have also been explored in different contexts. For example, researchers have identified inappropriate linguacultural presentation, or ideological values that underpin linguacultural representation, in materials chosen and used in Asian EFL contexts such as China (Xiong and Qian, 2012), Japan (Yamada, 2010), Korea (Song, 2013) and Taiwan (Ke, 2012a). A general consensus on the findings of the aforementioned research into ELT materials is the inadequate linkage of linguacultural representation in materials to intercultural communication. The inadequacy of

linguacultural representation in textbooks can be explained by the fact that materials are neither sociocultural, sociolinguistic value-free (Arndt et al., 2000:21) nor linguaculturally representative (Gray, 2010). As Pennycook (2001:129) argues, 'all teaching materials carry cultural and ideological messages'. A point of agreement is Seidlhofer's (2011) criticism of the ENL ideology lurking underneath the discourses of textbooks. Seidlhofer's indication is that teaching in compliance with ENL language models presented in textbooks will yield little space for lingua franca perspectives of pedagogy.

Nevertheless, most of the aforementioned studies focus on the linguacultural presentation per se rather than how the representation affects teachers and students' understanding of English language and its use. Some have made suggestions about using materials (Matsuda and Friedrich, 2012) but rather few have provided practical ideas or activities regarding teaching which are tested in various teaching contexts (Matsuda and Duran, 2012). However, none of them consider how EFL teachers and students actually use the chosen global ELT materials, such as *American Headway*, and listening/speaking activities in such textbooks to teach and learn since textbook-based teaching prevails in the EFL contexts (Richards, 1998; Crawford, 2002). There is also little consideration of how their use of materials facilitates or hinders them from ELF-aware teaching and learning. Hence, a question to explore is how teachers and students deal with the aforementioned mismatch, inadequacy, and dominance in the textbooks in their classroom practices.

Richards and Rogers (2001:95) argue against the use of textbooks for learning, claiming that that they 'impose a particular body of language content on the learners, thereby impeding their growth and interaction.' Richards and Rogers (2001) assert that the use of textbooks constrains students from interacting while encouraging them to simply reproduce what they are instructed to say. Leung (2013) believes that interaction between students and 'active language use' when engaging in collaborative activities in textbooks is a form of real-world communication. Leung's position on this matter aligns with Duff and Talmy (2011) and Talmy's (2009a) language socialisation approach to the classroom as a site for students to socialise language despite some resources coming from ENL-based textbooks. To make texts authentic to learners, Guariento and Morley (2001:352) suggest that teachers should 'integrate input and output, reception and production, [which] is to mirror intercultural communicative processes and is something that all teachers concerned with moving towards authenticity should aim to do.' In other words, students' own resources should be integrated with those in textbooks for students to realise and socialise their English.

Taken together these scholars' arguments about the use of textbooks point to two ways to utilise textbooks for students to communicate in English in the manner of 'intercultural' language usage. The first is complete detachment from textbooks showing practitioners' opposition to presented textbooks (Richard and Rogers, 2001). In this case, although students might at first touch on resources or activities

in their textbooks to interact, teachers and students' own input and output resources are the mainstay for enabling students to speak. The second way emphasises the use of multiple resources for intercultural communication (Guariento and Morley, 2001; Leung, 2013). Under this lens, students' use of English can be seen as a form of real-world English, which resonates with the discussion above (see Subsection 2.2.2). The common ground shared by these two perspectives is students' creativity that is fostered in deploying their own language and resources (Seidlhofer, 2011; Pennycook, 2012). Textbooks are still the main input resource that structure classroom practice and determine the content of teaching, as ELT and critical pedagogy scholars recognise (Crawford, 2002; Akbari, 2008b), despite the on-going debate over their inadequate linguacultural contents. As this is the case, identifying possibilities for teaching and learning away from the dominant, mainly NES-oriented (Jenkins, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2011) input sources demands examination of how teachers (Seidlhofer, 2011) as well as students (Canagarajah, 1999; Yu, 2015) interpret and use the (NES) textbooks.

2.4 Students' language acquisition: beliefs and suggestions

As indicated in Subsection 2.3.2, learners whose core degree programmes are not languages and those who do not attend any WE/EIL/ELF-related courses might display specific responses to lingua franca use of English. This view echoes folk linguistics researchers' points on non-linguists' perceptions of language in relation to learning (e.g. Niedzielski and Preston, 2003). Folk linguistics scholars emphasize what can be gained by looking at non-linguists' beliefs about language. That is, non-linguists tend to take both a prescriptive and descriptive approach to language and its use. Applying this concept to my research, non-English Majors' orientations towards English and its use might differ from the traditional ELT approach to presenting language and its use. This might highlight a mismatch between classroom English which follows a prescriptive stance and the real-world English that can be considered as descriptive when viewed from a lingua franca angle.

From a folk linguists' perspective, Wilton and Stegu (2011:7) opine that non-linguists tend to believe the need for 'seeking advice from an authority'. Despite teachers and students' beliefs about language learning appearing consistent in many cases, Davies (2003:207) extends the debate by arguing that 'the juxtaposition of the beliefs of teachers and students may offer some illuminating and useful insights into their thinking processes and behaviours regarding language teaching and language learning'. To explore non-linguist learners' beliefs about language learning with 'an objective and unprejudiced approach', Wilton and Stegu (2011:11) propose the 'contextual approach' to investigate 'learners' beliefs in context' and 'from the perspective of their learning experience' through observing classroom learning practices and interviewing students about these. On this matter, Wilton and Stegu (2011) note that learners' beliefs about learning English for lingua franca use should be investigated in order to illuminate whether or not non-linguists (non-English Majors) consider NES norms valid as a goal to strive for (Subsection 2.2.3).

Although Walsh (2006) asserts that classroom practices are co-constructed by teachers and students it appears that ELF research pays more attention to outcomes and rather less to the process of students' language acquisition; i.e. more emphasis being on the teaching and less on the learning. In fact, Seidlhofer (2011) claims that an ELF-aware pedagogy should attend to the latter. In addition, scholars have proposed many ideas regarding learning but there has been no research on their transferability to EFL classrooms. In this section, I review the established literature on how students' perspectives on learning English have or have not been addressed. I also review these suggestions that have been made for learning English from an ELF perspective.

2.4.1 Examples of critical reflexive activities for students

In Gray's (2010) empirical study, he highlights the absence of perspectives gained from students' evaluations of linguacultural presentations in textbooks, despite the fact they are the primary consumers. Hence, the following two examples are given to demonstrate the pedagogical significance of examining classroom practices in relation to students' interaction with linguacultural resources in textbooks.

Canagarajah (1999) put particular emphasis on students' interpretation strategies. He defines students' counter-discourses as interpretative strategies through which they detach themselves from 'the ideologies of the textbook, forestall cultural reproduction, and construct for themselves more favourable subjectivities and identifies.' Canagarajah (1999:91) further argues, 'at times, the content of the textbook is reframed, reinterpreted, and "rewritten" by students' counter-discourses … [and] through such interpretative strategies … students seek connections to their cultural and social context from visuals and narratives that lack local relevance.' In Canagarajah's study, his Sri Lankan students used interpretation strategies as well as their local language resources to relate their learning and use of English to real-world communication. Siegel's (2014) investigation, although not classroom-based, focused on how international and Japanese students evaluate the usefulness of conversation topics provided in textbooks in relation to topics that they cover in their lingua franca communication (in English) in university halls. Siegel's student participants found topics that were appropriate to their communication situations. However, in general, Siegel's study reveals the weak linkage between topics in textbooks and those the students used in actual communication scenarios. The implication of Siegel's study is the necessity for students' re-evaluation of the resources so that the materials are connected to communicative contexts. It appears salient to probe how students, with or without teachers' help, appraise textbook-based resources to help themselves create their language learning and use resources to this end.

2.4.2 Pedagogical suggestions for classroom practice

Scholars' views on what students are taught to do with English inside of the classroom from a lingua franca perspective of English are provided below.

2.4.2.1 Exploiting multiple resources

Seidlhofer (2011) draws the attention of teachers and learners to the argument that the English presented, taught, and learned is not necessarily consistent with the ways in which English language is actually used. While exploiting resources to use English, users might comply with what was taught/learned and create new ways to use English from those acquired. Seidlhofer's (2011) idea of exploiting resources acknowledges users' open approach to these for communicative purposes. Therefore, Seidlhofer (2011:198) defines the lingua franca perspective of ELT as paying 'attention to the learner and the learning process' of 'what learners do, not in terms of correctness and conformity to input, but as legitimate uptake in their learning and using.' In other words, teaching and learning English for communicative use purposes starts with the English that students have acquired and moves on to their exploitation of resources within their competence e.g. conformity with and/or seeking alternatives to what should be acquired to use in prescribed contexts.

The discussion above underlines that it is important to understand how teachers create opportunities for students to not only learn but also use English, and further, language acquisition for intercultural communication. Specifically, the focus is on unearthing how language acquisition makes classrooms into social contexts (Walsh, 2011 in Subsection 2.2.2). Another implication for looking at classroom practices is to reveal teachers' perspectives on learners' English. In response to users' openness to resources and ways of using English, the topic to be addressed is how teachers perceive students' creativity and non-conformity with the pre-set approach to English usage and norms regarding learning it. This highlights the role of teachers' classroom assessment of students' language (Subsection 2.3.2). Moreover, how teachers guide their students to exploit their linguistic resources, the pre-determined as well as emergent resources, to express ideas in their own words and phrases.

2.4.2.2 Resourceful speakers of English

Pennycook reconceptualises users' communicative competence as the abilities to process multiple resources to communicate. He articulates that the resources for users to employ for the real-world communication are not 'languages as imaged wholes' but resources that can be 'reversed', 'reinvented', 'relocated', and 'resourceful' through local socialisation (Pennycook 2012:171). In other words, both Seidlhofer (2011) and Pennycook (2012) advise that students' communicative competence should be conceptualised by understanding how they utilise the many available multiple resources aptly to communicate. According to Pennycook (2012:172), a resourceful speaker of English should be able to accommodate others (see also Jenkins, 2000) as well as 'manipulate different resources'. It follows that students and teachers should know how to accommodate their interlocutors, the resources that each interlocutor draws upon, and apply the multiple resources emerging from the real-world communication opportunities arising in classroom settings. Further, Pennycook (2012) recommends that students and teachers, in particular, should develop 'a form of critical resistance, to see other possibilities.' Seeing

the ‘classroom as a pantomime play full of languages and ideas’ (p.131), Pennycook maps out a critical reappraisal schedule which begins with observation in order to understand what is frequently taught and learned, what happens unexpectedly, and what never happens. A critical resistance approach can be usefully introduced to analyse whether or not teachers and/or their students de-centre or de-dominate the established classroom discourses.

Three key methods are proposed to support critical classroom practices: observation practicum (to see what happened), reflexive activities (to think otherwise), and alternatives (to teach/learn differently). Pennycook called this a process of pedagogical negotiation by teachers and students to develop reflexive integration of ‘thought’ of, ‘desire’ for, and ‘action’ on changes in teaching and learning (Pennycook, 2012:138). This is similar to Kumaravadivelu’s (2012:82) concept of ‘critical engagement’ serving to introduce pedagogical changes in which he outlines the dialectical relationship between raising awareness and classroom practices.

2.4.2.3 Strategic translinguals

Canagarajah (2013) coins the word ‘translinguals’ to describe competent speakers of lingua franca English in the real-world. To cultivate students’ performative competence, Canagarajah provides teachers with suggestions for what should and should not be introduced to train students to become translinguals. Firstly, teachers should avoid adopting form-based, teacher-led, and product-oriented pedagogy that hinders learners’ development of performative competence. Secondly, he advises that teachers should use practice-based dialogical pedagogy to encourage a collaborative relationship between teachers and students (e.g. by turning the classroom into a site for translingual socialisation). By doing this, teachers can facilitate students’ strategies to negotiate meanings. This entails avoiding routinised classroom discourses and allowing openness for students to negotiate ways to learn. He also advises against teachers explicitly teaching the proposed communicative strategies that translinguals use to communicate because these strategies are applied intuitively in accordance with actual communicative contexts and interlocutors. Instead, they should use identified methods to raise their students’ awareness of these strategies and encourage learners to develop their own through classroom practice and negotiations.

As the work of Canagarajah (2013) fails to elaborate on the ecological resources of classroom contexts, the question remains as to what learning resources are available to teachers to prepare students for intercultural communication. In EFL contexts, the major input resources are textbooks as well as the local teachers of English (Braine, 2010), who are not necessarily well-informed regarding ELF, as are some translingual teachers. The discussion in this section points to the pedagogical significance of opportunities for ELF-aware pedagogy in EFL contexts. To this end, it is essential to analyse classroom practices to elicit local teachers’ knowledge and ideas of teaching and learning that show elements of an ELF perspective, as discussed in Subsection 2.3.2.

2.5 Connecting classroom practice to lingua franca perspectives

The following section begins with an anecdote to stress the importance of classroom-based research. This overview also explores useful research concepts and theories for gaining local knowledge. Local knowledge about learning and teaching English from ELF perspective can add another dimension to ELF-aware pedagogy. That is, gaining this local knowledge can complement the institutional knowledge about ELF-aware pedagogy that may fail to provide context-relevant pedagogical suggestions (Dewey, 2012b).

2.5.1 An anecdote about local knowledge: where ELF was born

To understand teaching and learning beyond institutional knowledge that can prescribe content and practice, this section begins with an anecdote about how an EFL teacher was informed by her students' lingua franca use of English. This introduces the concept of local knowledge.

Professor Jennifer Jenkins gained ELT experience of teaching students from Latin America, Europe, and East Asia, as an EFL teacher in London in the 1980s. Jenkins (2012:478) reports that she taught or presented to her students the general rules of how to use English perhaps in accordance with the given materials for learning and tests, course guidelines, and her NES knowledge of English language use. Despite fulfilling her responsibility as an EFL teacher, Jenkins became aware of lingua franca use of English, observing that her students successfully achieved international understanding inside and outside of the classroom using forms of English that she had not taught them. This anecdote indicates that the English language (use) presented inside of the classroom through materials, teachers, and/or others, does not necessarily resemble what students actually use. Jenkins' teaching experience also shows that she, as an EFL teacher, reconceptualised her students' use of English not only from learners' but also from users' perspectives. In this way, she critically questioned the English she taught to her students alongside that which her students used for intercultural communication. Jenkins critically engaged in and gained knowledge about ELF, and she used that to inform her teaching and learning of English, rather than the know-how gained from her teacher training education. One issue arising from Jenkins' ELT experience is the importance of the knowledge generated from local classroom practices with respect to re-theorising and seeking the possibility to re-orientate pedagogy, which was emphasised at the beginning of this chapter (Subsection 2.3.1).

2.5.2 Gaining local knowledge

Canagarajah (2005:4) discusses the concept of local knowledge in various domains and argues that it refers to the knowledge generated 'ground-up, through social practice' on a regular basis. By conducting this PhD research I am in a position to gain local teachers and students' knowledge about (teaching/learning for) lingua franca use of English in real-world communication. Canagarajah has

offered processes that can assist in gaining local knowledge for this research. This scholar (2005:14) proposed two activities to engage with local practices: first, 'deconstructing dominant and established knowledge to understand its local shaping' and second, 'reconstructing local knowledge for contemporary needs'. The former is an activity which involves revealing as well as interpreting the dominant constructs or discourses. The latter requires that we pose questions and make critiques on established knowledge through carrying out robust research to gain knowledge of the addressed topics.

One implication for my research design is to reveal and interpret the linguacultural norms that are preferred and prevail in classroom practices. Another is that a critical approach is adopted to question and critique the central norms that regulate ways of teaching and learning English and the possibilities of changing these. A methodological implication for my research design (see Chapter 3) is to carry out regular classroom observation to 1) interpret how the dominant linguacultural practices and resources are entrenched in classrooms and 2) uncover the underlying theories of teaching/learning that support the identified dominance. This also echoes Pennycook's (2012) emphasis on the significance of classroom observation in order to critically reappraise ELT practices (Subsection 2.3.2 and Subsection 2.4.2.2). Given that local knowledge is generated from local communities and people, ethnographic perspectives are particularly useful to address community-based research projects and design to explore local knowledge (Denzin et al., 2008; Canagarajah, 2013).

2.6 Taiwanese EFL contexts: returning to classrooms

English is recognised as an indispensable communication medium in Taiwan for Taiwanese to use to interact with speakers of English for various purposes. Promotion of ELE is thus linked to its current international prevalence and the policies outlined below have been introduced to produce proficient English users for the internationalisation of Taiwan (Chen, 2010; Chen and Tsai, 2012). One influential policy is the nationwide English proficiency measurement that sets English requirements for Taiwanese students in order to prepare them for intercultural communication. Introducing English language proficiency tests allows teachers to measure the communicative competence of Taiwanese students (Chen and Tsai, 2012). The government has also introduced a communicative curriculum serving this goal (Chen and Tsai, 2012). In the following, I discuss ELE in Taiwan. Firstly, I consider how English language policies are relevant to real-world communication. Then, I discuss the curriculum and consider the implications.

2.6.1 English language policies

The nationwide measurement system, known as the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT), was established in 1999 to develop Taiwanese people' English communicative competence (Tsai and Tsuo, 2009). Other international testing systems, such as ETS (TOIEC and TOEFL) and Cambridge ESOL examinations (BULATS and IELTS), have also been adopted. GEPT, Cambridge ESOL, and ETS

certificates are officially recognised by the Ministry of Education (MOE) as proof of English proficiency for Taiwanese people. In 2002, the Executive Yuan (Council), a government administrative unit, initiated the plan entitled 'Program for Enhancing National English Proficiency' (Executive Yuan, 2009). In response to this policy, Taiwan's tertiary education system set English proficiency requirements for university entry/graduation (Shih, 2010). For instance, over 30 universities have adopted English proficiency tests as a graduation requirement (Tsai and Tsou, 2009). On this matter, ELE in Taiwan is recognised as examination-driven, further leading practitioners to centre on teaching and learning structure-based teaching (Chen and Tsai, 2012), showing little consideration over non-ENL forms of English which might have communication functions and teaching approaches which facilitate ELT for communication. One issue arising from this situation is how students' English should be assessed in terms of English fit for real-world communication.

As discussed, English to be tested through the international/national examination systems does not necessarily correspond to the real-world lingua franca use of English (Subsection 2.3.2). Rather than addressing this concern, the research into English proficiency tests in Taiwan centres on pros and cons of test policy (Roever and Pan, 2008; Shih, 2010; Tsai and Tsou, 2009) and the "washback" effects of tests on English language teaching and learning in classrooms (Pan, 2009). It has been widely reported that ELE tends towards favouring test preparation (Roever and Pan, 2008). Given that ELT in Taiwan is examination-oriented, it has been claimed that what is tested has an impact on what is taught and learned in class; "wash-back effects". It remains to be discovered the extent to which test-driven language education exerts an influence on Taiwanese teachers and students regarding choosing to focus on teaching and learning for communication purposes. The introduction of English as instructional language is targeting students' English language proficiency for higher education (Executive Yuan, 2002). English as an instructional language suggests that teachers' English might be considered an input resource where this policy is implemented. In this case, it is pedagogically significant to understand the role of teachers' English in contrast with the English presented in the textbooks. It is also important to scrutinise how teachers' English is used to train students and its impacts on students' language acquisition for real-world communication.

2.6.2 The curriculum in Taiwanese contexts

This section considers the curriculum in relation to ELT materials and English language teaching/learning by the pertinent reviewing literature. This provides a big picture of the Taiwanese national curriculum and how Taiwanese people, in particular teachers and students, relate this curriculum to real-world communication. Another purpose is to consider the potential assumptions which support the establishment of the current national curriculum.

Due to the MOE's policy of decentralising English language delivery at the higher education level (Lo, 2010), the selection and utilisation of English course books for undergraduate and postgraduate English

training varies from institute to institute. A review of existing studies of EFL textbooks used in Taiwanese tertiary education gives an account of what materials are used to facilitate Taiwanese undergraduates' English. Tsai et al. (2008) find that university instructors prefer using imported books, mostly from the US and UK, over Mandarin-English bilingual ones published in Taiwan. The students prefer the latter as Mandarin assists their English language learning. Su's (2010) study shows the impacts of the use of NES-oriented materials on university students' cultural learning. The findings of her studies demonstrate that the university students gain a strong understanding of US-/NES-based culture and cultural diversity within the NES countries, i.e. the US and the UK. She does not address the students' cultural understanding of other countries, although this was not the target of her research.

The study above indicates that the NES norms presented in the course materials can affect teaching and learning practices because the availability of learning/teaching texts influences the choice of learning models and resources (Kirkpatrick, 2006). On this matter, Chen S. C. (2010) observes that materials used in Taiwan are generally US/NES-based and implies that US English language(s) and cultures serve as the major learning model inside of the classroom (see also Ke, 2012a; Su, 2014). With NES norms as a criterion for selecting textbooks in Taiwan, ELT is likely to become more US/NES-oriented due to the adoption of US/ENL-based teaching materials. It is therefore reasonable to assume that ELT materials affect Taiwanese teachers and students' decisions to use the US/ENL English learning models or resources for input delivery. Although US/NES-based cultural representation and language resources are widely relied on for input, this does not necessarily ensure the delivery and understanding of US/NES cultures. This calls for investigation into how teachers and students use the aforementioned resources to teach and learn.

2.6.3 Recent scholarship on the ELF/WE-informed ELT research into Taiwanese EFL contexts

In the past decade research into English language as a global language has been slowly developing to include Taiwanese perspectives. Appendix 2.1 contains a summary (Table 2.1) of a review of these studies, chronologically listed and described by methodology, the topics addressed and key findings. Below I discuss those studies directly related to this thesis.

Among the reviewed studies, five studies (Chang, Y. 2014; Ke, 2012b; Lai, 2008; Liou, 2010; Tsou and Chen, 2014) explore teachers and/or students' principles regarding teaching and learning English for lingua franca use in real-life settings. Chang Y. (2014) and Ke and Cahyani (2014) consider teaching and learning practices that incorporate WE/EIL/ELF perspective into courses and the effects of the studied courses on raising students' awareness and perceptions of English for communication. The particular studies have successfully drawn out their views on lingua franca use of English in relation to their teaching and learning. They also highlight the importance of raising students' awareness of the linguacultural diversity in English for the international communication. However, classroom practices were not scrutinised in order to understand how English as a global language has influenced them on a

practical level. Seilharmer (2015) analyses Taiwanese people's perspectives on English for communication from the mixed perspective of users and learners, whereas other studies tend to look at how learning and teaching relate to language use in the classroom. Seilharmer's study raises the point of assessment taken from the users or learners' perspective or from both.

2.7 Reproduction versus critical resistance

The discussion in Section 2.6 indicates how NES/US linguacultural dominance appears entrenched in ELT materials as well as the Taiwanese EFL curriculum and this dominance is supported by several assumptions about English language and ELE. To address this linguacultural dominance in ELE, critical education theories are useful for me to reconceptualise ELT in the Taiwanese context for two reasons. First, critical education theories help understanding of how dominant linguacultural discourses have been reproduced as a result of the abovementioned entrenchment (Section 2.6). Furthermore, these theories help to identify the transformative changes that have taken place and can help raise useful pedagogical suggestions applicable to other contexts.

Akbari (2008a:276) discusses how critical pedagogy (CP) offers ELT practice and professionals a flexible attitude that copes with shifts occurring in social contexts. To consider classroom practices, Pennycook (2001) and Jenkins (2007) agree that the pedagogical choices on teaching/learning English from the lingua franca perspective depends on teachers and/or students' attitudes towards English language and education. In agreement with the 'de-nationalised' concept of ELF communication, Akbari (2008a:278), suggests a lingua franca perspective should be incorporated into ELT practices as a form of CP in order to keep students from accepting the given linguacultural bonds introduced and reinforced by their curriculum, in particular, by global textbooks. Akbari's argument about ELF as a critical perspective that can challenge the given linguacultural resources aligns with Brown's (2012) suggestions regarding using an ELF perspective to re-assess the curriculum (see Subsection 2.3.1). I propose CP can be useful for incorporating ELF into ELT practices in terms of giving flexible open-mindedness towards other choices and seeking pedagogical changes.

Pennycook (2001:129) argues that the classroom is 'a site of cultural struggle over preferred modes of learning and teaching.' As such, teaching and learning English in a style that leans towards or away from a lingua franca perspective can be tangled up in what should or should not be dome. Cohen et al. (2011) point out that numerous studies on negotiating dominant classroom discourses towards pedagogical alternatives draw on critical education theory or critical pedagogy to question taken-for-granted education delivery and further look for ways, ideas, or strategies to teach/learn differently (e.g. Canagarajah, 1999; 2013). Two useful concepts from critical education theory, resistance and reproduction, are identified below.

Critical resistance is a dual approach often applied to research dominant discourses in social practices, focusing on how each individual (group) resists or submits (Wolgemuth, 2014). Critical resistance draws attention to studying the dominant linguacultural discourses embedded in the classroom practices, which are forms of social practices that can be resisted and/or reproduced (Talmy, 2009b). Hoy (2004:243) discusses how critical resistance has emerged from different philosophical schools. He concludes that 'critical resistance requires freedom, and freedom is tied conceptually to the openness to the possibility'. Drawing from Foucault's work, Hoy (2005:106) describes critical resistance as not only a conceptual but also a practical aspect pertaining to social practices. The former focuses on the refusal to accept dominant social practices; the latter centres on action (i.e. the realisation of the conceptual refusal) taken in the name of freedom, which is mainly informed by critical reflection on the dominant social practices. Hoy (2004:1) concludes that resistance and freedom are conceptually and practically bound together, highlighting that 'resistance would not be possible unless some degree of freedom remained.'

Critical resistance has been applied to the field of applied linguistics. Pennycook (2012) adopted this to a case study of English teaching analysing the classroom observation data of a focal teacher. Taking an optimistic view, Pennycook (2012) reveals the possibilities for pedagogical changes that could be achieved through teachers' regular critical reflection on their practices if they undertake this as a long-term project geared towards "de-centring" which involves teaching away from the Western-based dominant classroom discourse. In another empirical study of postcolonial perspectives on ESL classroom practices, Canagarajah (1999) drew on the concept of resistance to analyse how ESL teachers and students thought about, taught, and learned English beyond the scope of Western-based linguacultural dominance. The critical resistance approach could prove useful in this research study as it allows this research to break free from the dominant linguacultural or ELT discourses and adopt a position that is open to ideas of pedagogical transformations.

Hoy (2004) discusses several interpretations of critical resistance produced by scholars and opines that their attitude is a form of passive resistance. Hoy (2004:9) argues in favour of critical resistance that is an active refusal on the part of the dominated in favour of 'an openness to the indefinite possibility that things could be different' I adopt a critical resistance approach to account for teachers and students' pedagogical choices of, and reaction towards, established classroom practices. To be specific the aim is to understand how and why teachers and students think and teach/learn differently, (Pennycook, 2012). At the same time, it is important to acknowledge that educational transformation might not be achieved in all contexts and it is informative to gain insights into why it does not happen. To shed light on this, Canagarajah, (1999:22) mentions that there can be a tendency towards reproduction. This notion helps to interpret teachers and/or students' decisions to maintain the status quo regarding their classroom practices.

2.8 Chapter summary

Above, I have recognised the assumptions about learning, teaching, and using English. The first assumption highlighted is the claimed dominance of AmEng and US/ENL linguacultural representation within Taiwanese English language education (Section 2.6). One question arising from this is to consider where AmEng or NES linguacultural dominance originates and how such dominance emerges and becomes entrenched in curriculum and classroom practices in a typical EFL context. Another assumption is the general perception that teachers and students have a passive and taken-for-granted position in processing the US/ENL linguacultural dominance that may exist, and that there is ignorance of their use of strategies to deal with this dominance in materials (Section 2.3). The third common assumption is the prevalence of NES ideology in English language education systems and practices. However, not much attention has been paid to how this NES ideology has a substantial influence on students' understanding of language use and their language acquisition (Section 2.4). All the above need to be addressed by investigating actual responses to NES dominance through teaching/learning practices and use of US/ENL-based textbooks as presented by teachers and students.

From the studies covered in this literature review, the lack of teacher-student joint perspectives on classroom English for real-world communication has become clear. Studying this joint perspective is vital to ELF research because most ELF researchers consider teachers (Section 2.4) and students' perspectives (Section 2.6) separately. To keep a balance, my research targets teacher-student joint perspectives on English taught and learned for real-world communication. Another methodological issue worth exploring is the lack of observational data to understand teaching, learning, and using English from a GE perspective (Section 2.3). Particularly, there is a lack of analysis of students' English in classroom practices. Due to this gap (Section 2.2), there has been a failure to gauge how students' English inside classrooms relates to English for real-world communication outside of the classroom.

Challenging the view of critical resistance as a form of passive resistance (Hoy, 2004), I refer to Jenkins' (2007, 2012) approach to ELF noting the increase in available pedagogical alternatives and openness for EFL teachers and students regarding choice (Section 2.2). In my research, resistance is seen as a transitional point (or negotiating space) rather than passive resistance or resignation: teachers and students can choose to teach and learn towards or beyond ELF depending on their pedagogical considerations. This modification also echoes Brown and Jenkins' view on the ELF perspective as a means to question ELT and to propose the context-relevant ELF-aware pedagogy (Dewey, 2012b) (see Subsection 2.3.1).

The implications for research are to investigate linguacultural choice in three aspects: 1) the resources from which these types of English are presented to teachers and students to choose from, 2) the circumstances under which teachers choose to deliver certain linguacultural input, and 3) the effects on teachers and students' teaching and learning towards or away from English for the real-world

communication. Addressing these requires classroom practice based research to illuminate how such pedagogical choices are affected by teachers and students' beliefs about English language and its use. It also calls for an understanding of teachers and students' approach and use of linguacultural resources to teach and learn English for or against an ELF perspective. I pose two research questions to help me address these and the identified research gaps.

1. What learning/teaching theories and concepts inform Taiwanese teachers of English who teach for real-world communication?
2. What are students' perceptions of learning English for the purposes of real-world communication within the framework of Taiwanese English language education?

As mentioned, an ethnographic (Section 2.5) approach is deemed appropriate to probe: Taiwanese teachers and students' beliefs about teaching and learning English for real-world communication, the actual employment of strategies to reject or accept the ENL linguacultural dominance, and the extent to which integrating an ELF perspective is feasible, and in which teaching contexts. In the next chapter (chapter 3) I focus on the research design, data collection techniques, and the approach adopted to analyse the collected data.

Chapter 3 Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

As stated in Chapter one, the central theme of this thesis is to investigate Taiwanese teachers and students' perceptions regarding their experiences of English language education inside the classroom in terms of its effectiveness in promoting real-world English language usage. More specifically, the aim is to examine whether and if so, how classroom English for lingua franca communication purposes is interpreted and practised by teachers and students in Taiwan. To this end, two questions are proposed:

1. What learning/teaching theories and concepts inform Taiwanese teachers of English who teach for real-world communication?
2. What are students' perceptions of learning English for the purposes of the real-world communication within the framework of Taiwanese English language education?

To address these questions, I employed ethnographic tools and perspectives under the lens of critical education theory and immersed myself in three Taiwanese universities for about three months to collect qualitative data. This chapter explains and justifies the methodology adopted and applied when collecting these data.

This chapter consists of nine sections. First, I outline analytical perspectives taken to conduct research and collect data. This is followed by an explanation of how the institutions to be researched were chosen as well as how access was gained, the criteria for identifying the participants and the nature of the data collected in Sections 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4, respectively. Then, I explain the reasons for employing surveys, interviews, and observations as the main research methods to collect these data as well as other useful resources that I drew upon to supplement them (Sections 3.5, 3.6, and 3.7). Lastly, I present the data management that supports content analysis and summarise how the research questions are addressed (Section 3.8) and a short summary (Section 3.9) prior to presenting the findings from the data analysis in chapters 4, 5, and 6.

3.2 Theoretical rationale and methodological approach

This section discusses the multidisciplinary research methods that underpin the research design. The focus is a people-based qualitative approach owing to the aim of this research being to generate local knowledge about a specific community, as discussed previously (Subsection 2.5.2).

3.2.1 Qualitative inquiry: a triangulation approach

Borrowing Richard's (2003:9) concept of 'person-centred enterprise' to investigate TESOL practices, qualitative inquiry allows researchers to engage in teaching and learning events in class so as to make sense of classroom practices in situ. Person-centred involvement is also a technique applied to the

qualitative study of social practices (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011; Richie, 2003) and qualitative methodology permits the studied groups to verbalise their social practices in real-world settings, as Robson (2011) affirms. This person-centred qualitative inquiry in real-world settings helps frame the research design of this study regarding teacher/student-based classroom practices. Moreover, a flexible qualitative design allows participants to discuss issues they see as relevant in their own words. In contrast, the quantitative research paradigm provides fairly restricted space for participants to elaborate on their experiences due to predetermined, fixed research formats (Bryman, 2008; Patton, 2002). Therefore, qualitative inquiry is generally undertaken when the aim is to get the subjects of the research to discuss what they see as relevant in their eyes (Bryman, 2008) in their own terms (Cohen et al., 2011) and in a flexible manner (Denzin and Lincoln, 2008).

Researchers employ triangulation in order to collect and analyse qualitative data via multiple perspectives, resources, and techniques. Triangulation first aims at in-depth understanding of the phenomenon studied, as Denzin and Lincoln (2011) advocate. Employing multiple methods to collect types of data in diverse research sites supports a thick description and a full account of the studied phenomenon and communities in a small-scale investigation like the current study. As Cohen et al. (2011) argue, overdependence on a single method may lead to distorted description of the cases investigated. Secondly, triangulation is used to cross-check findings from each kind of data which can prove inconsistent, thereby allowing the researcher to identify any misunderstanding in the initial interpretations of the collected data. Finally, as Bryman (2008) suggests, triangulated data collection leads to researchers providing robust accounts of the findings as it permits repeated re-examination of the amassed data types. The following subsection discusses the main theoretical paradigms under which research can be carried out and explains why those chosen for the current investigation were deemed the most appropriate.

3.2.2 The theoretical and analytical research paradigms

A natural stance was adopted for the qualitative research so as to uncover Taiwanese participants' experiences and perspectives in non-artificial settings. Two reasons for doing so are: a) to derive findings from real-world settings (cf. Cohen et al., 2007:219-223); and b) to address matters relating to 'contextual understanding of social behaviours' (Bryman, 2004:281). That is, this research seeks insight into EFL practices in real-world settings, i.e. capturing what is essentially happening regarding English teaching/learning in Taiwanese classrooms. A natural perspective regarding inquiry not only visualizes real-world classroom settings, but also brings these EFL practices into sharp focus.

An interpretive approach was deemed appropriate to shed light on the Taiwanese teacher and student participants' perspectives of teaching and learning. For, the contextual factors that shape the studied people's accounts regarding their views of their experiences are best uncovered through this lens, as Bryman, (2008) and Cohen et al. (2011) suggest. Moreover, this allowed me to undertake research that

would provide comprehensive understanding of the Taiwanese participants' experiences and perceptions of English language and education in the context of their lives. Nevertheless, critical educational researchers note that an interpretive approach downplays potential external power exerted by or imposed on study participants and propose that any such power (re)produced through education should be acknowledged (Cohen et al., 2011). Kincheloe and McLaren (2005) contend that the political interests that knowledge of teaching and teaching praxis serve, as well as the ideological selections and assumptions lurking underneath the observed practices, need to be highlighted, interrogated and critiqued. That is, according to these scholars, very often political power is being exerted in educational contexts and practices, including activities such as textbook selection, instructional methods and resources as well as in decisions relating what to teach.

Informed by critical educational scholars' concerns, this study probes how the Taiwanese participants engaged in forms of learning that kept them either reproducing or resisting the dominant linguacultural representation or approach to English language use through their classroom practices. The approach adopted for this research echoes Canagarajah's (1999) critical educational inquiry into Sri Lanka's post-colonial English language education, which uncovered various aspects regarding its delivery. Another methodological implication of critical approaches for my research design is that it is important to hear voices from subordinate groups (Cohen et al., 2011; Simpson, 2009). Dialogue with local people thus counters educational provision controlled by a particular dominant group (Kincheloe and McLaren, 2005, 2008; Denzin et al. 2008; Kincheloe and Steinberg, 2008) and educational praxis as well as political interests are subject to a counter narrative that reflects the views of those lacking power. In accordance with this perspective, the aim of the current research was to empower students in college settings in Taiwan to articulate their stances on their educational provisions. My inquiry into EFL education considers the basis of the curriculum and pedagogical praxis in order to understand whether, and if so how such provision helps students with real-world language usage.

In addition, my research is informed by an ethnographic perspective. Ethnography has been re-interpreted to fit different circumstances and consequently, has generated a host of theoretical perspectives that aim to capture its dynamic (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007). Understood as an adaptable and interrelated set of research theories and practices (Heath and Street, 2008) and informed by the afore-cited transdisciplinary concepts (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011), my study does not involve adopting an exhaustive ethnographic perspective, but rather, the employment of some useful approaches of ethnographic enterprise. Under this approach, the inquirer gives a balanced account of the phenomenon studied through multiple theoretical/conceptual channels which resonates with the 'constant comparative perspective of ethnography' (Heath and Street, 2008:33-38).

One methodological aspect of ethnographic studies is that it demands a participatory approach that creates space for participants to collaborate with the researcher, co-engage in the studied phenomenon,

and co-construct its meanings (Foley and Valenzuela, 2005). This permits the researcher to get involved in situated human behaviour and thus, augment understanding of the studied objects and context (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007). A local perspective helps researchers in not only collecting data in situ, but also interpreting and analysing them from an insider's viewpoint. The participatory approach also lets an inquirer establish a working relationship with study groups, allowing both parties (Berg, 2007) to elaborate on their experiences and perspectives at individual as well as collective levels (Foley and Valenzuela, 2005). Through immersion and collaborative partnership, researchers show empathy with participants' experiences and perspectives as insiders (Maso, 2001; Patton, 2002) and elicit more insider meaning via communication with them, based on the established rapport (Baszanger and Dodier, 2004). For this study a weak form of participatory approach was adopted, which did not involve full participation but plentiful knowledge about the subject matter, as Willis (2007:261) suggest. Nonetheless, I adhered to the central tenet of a participatory approach, which is to encourage participants in a collaboration that involves the researcher adding her voice to the data as a quasi-member of the studied communities.

My research is methodologically informed by an open-ended ethnographic approach (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007; O'Reilly, 2009) that permits role shifts during fieldwork to deal with miscellaneous circumstances and cater for contextual needs (Patton, 2002). Wolcott (1994) emphasizes that the extent of observation and participation of the fieldworker varies among research settings and hence, is difficult to define explicitly. Given the potential for logistic obstacles, active participation whilst remaining open to change was deemed appropriate for collecting data in the three Taiwanese university settings. This approach can be considered as ongoing negotiation, which: 1) grants compatibility with the study population and contexts they engage in (Barab et al., 2004; Wolcott, 1994); and 2) fulfils the study purposes (Cohen et al., 2011).

Equally vital, an open-ended approach involves keeping an openness regarding fieldwork practice and data: e.g. sources of data, sampling, emerging issues and cross-analysis of data types. First, it shows openness to the choice of what to study, especially the relevant contextual factors and emerging issues (O'Reilly, 2009:22-26; Marcus, 1995) so as to ensure that data from multiple sources relevant to the phenomena being studied are accessed, as Maso (2001) and O'Reilly (2009) advise. With openness to choice of what to study, thick description is generated as an enterprise of many parts or forms (Marcus, 1997). Secondly, adopting an open-ended approach to sampling people and sites avoids the pitfalls emerging from there being uniqueness in the study groups and sites, as Fine (2003:53) argues. In addition, openness to sampling permits for diverse groups at various sites to be examined simultaneously. In sum, openness allows for the emergence and recognition of issues, contingencies or dissonant features among the sites explored (Baszanger and Dodier, 2004). By taking an open approach, findings are not only moderately generalised in the contexts studied, but also open to further verification in similar settings (Fine, 2003; O'Reilly, 2009). Given the EFL contexts in Taiwan (Section 2.6),

knowledge amassed from these university locations can be applied, sustained, rejected, or refined in other similar contexts in future studies.

Through the adoption of natural and interpretive approaches, the Taiwanese participants' perspectives on English language education for lingua franca use of English in real-world settings are described and understood with reference to contextual factors in Taiwanese classrooms. Contextual and social elements are highlighted by the Taiwanese participants as well as through the researcher's voice. My immersion in the study communities through an ethnographically informed participatory approach yields an insider perspective that allows for linkage among participants' voices to be achieved. Moreover, an open-ended approach permits flexibility in the aspects of the research design and carrying out the fieldwork. Next, I detail how the research settings were chosen, the rationale for the sampling and how participants were sampled.

3.3 Sampling frame

Generally, the primary concerns of sampling include accessibility, availability, relevance of samples, the issues to be addressed, and theories/concepts which inform the research design. For insightful understanding of the studied phenomenon a combined strategy is adopted for this investigation to select research settings, participants, and classrooms that provide relevant data. Triangulation and the open approach described above (see Subsection 3.2.2) regarding use of multiple resources allow the researcher to capture the experiences of learners and teachers of English in relation to lingua franca perspectives of English for communication.

3.3.1 Research sites: Taiwanese universities

Selecting research settings is intellectually and practically informed by the research questions regarding the phenomenon investigated, the relevance of data for addressing these questions and fieldwork practices (Mason, 2002: 91; Lewis, 2003:49). This current study is informed by the aim of understanding real-world issues directly relevant to Taiwanese teachers' and students' classroom experience and local perceptions of English for intercultural exchanges both inside and outside the classroom by probing participants' experience of English language teaching, learning, and use. Three Taiwanese institutions were chosen, given that the participants' investigated social practices take place in these institutional settings. Specifically, one private and two national Taiwanese universities constitute the research sites for this thesis. Designating a research setting/site also depends on the potential participants' degree of accessibility (Berg, 2007:40). In the three selected universities I gained access to undergraduates and teachers of English to investigate their learning and teaching of English. I proceeded with observation and on-site interviews[3] to collect primary data in classrooms as these

[3] On-site interviews are a research technique used by ethnographers who usually conduct them at the research sites immediately after observations. Ideally, this kind of interview should be conducted during breaks or after classes. However,

formed the fundamental research sites. The research site decision for this study is shaped by the data analysis and interpretation based on taking a natural perspective regarding to real-world research, as discussed in Subsection 3.2.2 (Bryman, 2008). The following introduces the selected universities and participants.

The first university is one of a few prestigious private ones in Taiwan, known for its foreign language programmes on which English-major participants enrol. In particular, the students have high levels of English proficiency mandated by this university for admission. All the participants for this investigation from this institution were English majors. One of the other two universities, both state-run institutions, has a high reputation in Taiwan and across Asia, its undergraduates being known for high academic achievement in their chosen fields. This university is renowned for its engineering and science programmes, on which numerous of the participants in this current study were enrolled. This underlines their distinguished academic performance in sciences and high levels of English language proficiency, both of which are needed to gain university admission. The other state university is a prominent deliverer of courses for teacher education, despite education programmes being currently available in most other institutes of tertiary education in Taiwan. Not all student participants in the current study were taking educational programmes as prospective teachers of English. However, all the student participants in this study from the state universities were non-English majors. The institutions chosen for study were those where my supervisor and/or I had personal contacts. I thus knew some university teachers and already enjoyed access to their contact information, for recruiting their colleagues and students.

Now I briefly consider the student participants' English language proficiency taking into consideration the university admission requirements in these three universities. The recruitment of participants involved selecting those with various levels of English language proficiency so as to generate implications for a range of abilities of EFL learners. Regarding the English requirements for university admission and graduation, students who have attained Band 6 or above on IELTS, or the equivalent through other test systems, can enjoy exemption from compulsory Freshmen English training in both state universities. The English language proficiency requirement for graduation in the first state university is IELTS level 5 or above or the equivalent. This requirement is higher than that found in the second state university, where an IELTS level of between 3 and 5 is needed depending on a student's major. The participants in the two state universities had not attained the required English language proficiency, and so were all obliged to attend the three-hour per week Freshmen English courses that were investigated for this research. The English language proficiency requirement for graduation from

some students as well as teachers asked me to hold the individual interviews with them according to their availability. I was flexible enough to cope with participants' requested schedules. That is, the subsequent interviews in this research took place in the participants' classrooms or university cafe according to their wishes.

the private university is IELTS level 5 or above or the equivalent. Some English-major participants' English already exceeded the threshold level set by this private university when they enrolled.

Freshmen English as general English training and develops students' English competence for intercultural exchanges (Yeh, 2009). It is a two-year compulsory subject for undergraduates in the two state universities (Chen, 2010). Hence, freshmen studying across a range of subjects were obliged to take this course, in the two studied state universities. How teaching and learning of the Freshmen English connects to the lingua franca use of English outside of classrooms could therefore be explored by observing this particular module. The module, Oral Training for English Majors, was observed in the private university because I was not given access to the Freshmen English for English Majors. How the oral training received by English Majors is relevant to real-world communication is pedagogically significant given that speaking/listening training is the centre of this research endeavour.

The methodological considerations of sampling are summarised as follows. Firstly, when choosing participants I took into account their levels of English, professional studies, the attended courses, and the universities they were enrolled with. This was in order to understand EFL provisions from multiple perspectives of Taiwanese students studying a wide range of professional areas. As aforementioned, one of the selected universities is prestigious and hence, attracts a number of international students. This provided the opportunity to investigate two classroom settings in which both international and Taiwanese students received EFL education. This underlines the potential for the transferability of context-specific qualitative inquiry to other similar study contexts as advocated by Greene (2010) and Gobo (2008) (see Subsection 3.2.2).

3.3.2 Recruiting participants

The purposive strategy is the foremost method for recruiting participants who can give informed answers concerning the focal research questions. My choice of strategy was informed by extant critical scholarship (Patton, 2002), as mentioned in Subsection 3.2.2. The purposes of critical education research as advocated by Kincheloe and McLaren (2005) are: empowering teachers and students to provide opinions on the school curriculum and available materials, further challenging established EFL education, political interests EFL provisions serve, and ideological assumptions about English language and ELT. A purposive strategy was thus combined with a critical outlook to recruit these participants, with the aim of gathering critical perspectives of EFL provision in relation the real-world communication to address my research questions. Other supplementary strategies, such as convenience, snowball, and heterogeneous sampling, can be utilised to select relevant, similar, and/or contrast cases/participants to study.

In the context of my purposeful sampling, an element of convenience sampling was incorporated to employ readily accessible participants. Some student participants were recruited through snowballing

by building on the contacts supplied by participants in the universities in order to reach a reasonable population. Heterogeneous groups of participants, such as English and non-English Majors and lecturers who taught them were recruited so as to identify themes of English language education which might cut across these groups or were issues that groups had in common (Patton, 2002). Overall, a range of strategies were used to recruit participants and ensure the potential strength and richness of the collected data, as Cohen et al. (2011) and Ritchie et al. (2003) advocate. The two groups of participants, students and teachers, are described below.

3.3.2.1 Students

Altogether, 190 undergraduates were recruited. Among these students, 28 English Majors studied in University 1 (henceforth, U1), a private university. The rest, non-English Majors, studied in the two state universities. Among them, 131 in University 2 (henceforth, U2) and 31 in University 3 (henceforth, U3). These Taiwanese freshmen and sophomores were invited to join this research project because they have nearly completed all levels of English language education available within the Taiwanese education system. Recruiting these undergraduates provides extensive description of their received English language education from primary school through to and including university level. This allows this researcher to shed light on how these undergraduates perceived educational provisions at all levels, in various types of schools and in a range of EFL contexts.

Before university education, Taiwanese students tend to learn English to pass examinations for college admission rather than for other purposes (Liu, 2005). Due to the impact of examinations on English language education, I did not recruit students of secondary education schooling level or below, because it was judged that these students' goal from learning English was examination success rather than real-world communication. Unlike younger students, Taiwanese undergraduates may learn English to meet job requirements (Hsieh, 2010), to seek advanced study abroad (Yeh, 2009), or perhaps to achieve other purposes more relevant to real-world communicative language use. In this way, by focussing on this undergraduate cohort non-examination factors can be considered with regards to how teaching and learning relate to real-world communication from lingua franca perspectives of English. Since Freshmen English programme classes are available to virtually all Taiwanese undergraduates, this study reached a substantial population of participants by investigating this programme in two universities. Observing Freshmen English classes permits this researcher to capture potential variations in teachers and students' teaching and learning practices that are in accordance with the requirements set by each individual department and university.

3.3.2.2 Teachers

Five teachers participated and below is a summary of their education, teaching experience as well as their teaching training background. There were two male and three female teachers of whom two

pursued their postgraduate studies in Taiwan, two in the UK and one in the US. Among the five teachers, two indicated that they had not received any pre-service teacher training for their bachelor or postgraduate degrees. One taught English Majors' oral training and four taught general English to non-English majors at various English language proficiency levels. In general, their teaching experience ranged from secondary to tertiary levels, with from three to ten years duration. Their average ELT experience at tertiary level was three years at their current university.

According to the MOE (2010), Freshmen English courses seek to develop undergraduates' general English language proficiency for meeting intercultural communication standards. Recruiting teachers in charge of delivering Freshmen English is an important consideration when investigating how their perceptions of developing students' real-world communicative language and teaching praxis responds to curricular objectives. The information obtained from this investigation can reveal whether teachers have acquired theories and ideas of teaching and teaching strategies to support English for the real-world communication. A teacher of English communication-relevance courses was recruited as one of the teacher cohort and provided fresh perspectives regarding developing undergraduates' English proficiency for intercultural communication purposes. Overall, the five recruited teachers lend first-hand information about teaching practices, approaches, and materials whereby they prepare students for English communication. Specific information with regards to participant groups will be provided in the analysis of classroom practices in chapters 4, 5 and 6.

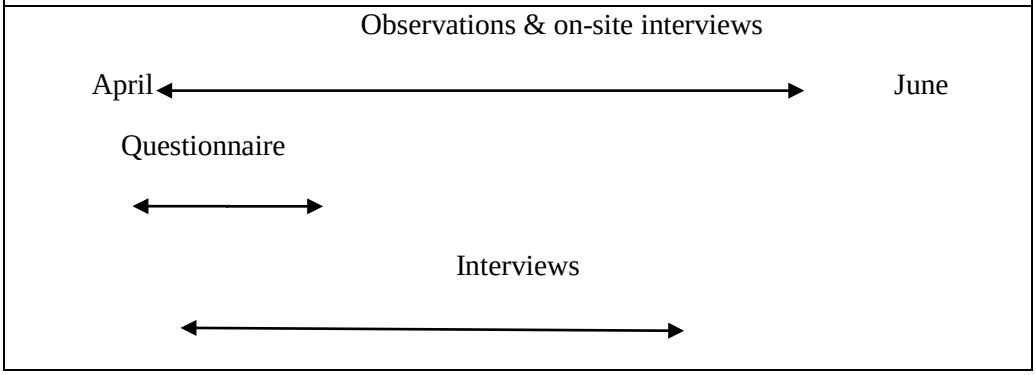
3.4 Data collection: procedure, methods and purposes

This section outlines the rationale for the research methods utilised and the perspective taken to implement fieldwork. It first describes the piloting, the main study, and provides a timeline for fieldwork practices. Then the approach taken to employ each research technique is covered briefly and the types of data collected are described along with the time spent on collecting them. In the subsequent Sections, 3.5 and 3.6 more detail on each technique is presented.

This study combines methods of data collection and analysis thus offering the possibility of triangulation within this qualitative inquiry. To apply a triangulation approach to qualitative inquiry, this study combined methods of data collection. To this end, three main methods were used to collect data: class observations integrated with on-site interviews, a questionnaire with one version designed for teachers and another for students, and semi-structured interviews held with both staff and students. Some methods were used on their own while others due to the nature of the research environment and respecting the open approach taken to collect data, coincided. For instance, observations and on-site interviews were integrated and held almost simultaneously and the contents of the main interviews overlapped with on-site interview issues when participants did not have much free time immediately after the observed classes. I discuss the integrative use of methods to collection in the Subsections 3.6.2 and 3.6.3.

The deployment of each instrument is illustrated in Figure 3.1 and described chronologically below. I collected data every Monday and Tuesday (afternoon) in U1, Tuesday morning, Thursday, and Friday in U2, and Wednesday in U3 from April to June 2011. In these universities, I commenced the data collection with classroom observations and on-site interviews following the observations. After one week, I carried out the questionnaire survey and in depth interviews after I became familiar with these participants (see Section 3.5). As observations progressed other methods were used to collect data. As Figure 3.1 illustrates, on-site interviews following the observations were carried out and field notes during my observations were made concurrently to record participants' teaching and learning of English to provide examples of these studied events. Apart from observation and on-site interviewing, questionnaire surveys were conducted at an early stage of the data collection phase. I completed the questionnaire surveys first whilst the interview and observational data collection was completed almost at the same time. Figure 3.1 demonstrates procedures of three-month data collection in these universities. Other data from supplementary resources, such as syllabi and handouts, were also collected depending on their accessibility and availability.

Figure 3.1 Timeline of using methods for data collection in the three universities: the duration of collecting three major data resources in U1, U2, and U3



Questionnaires, interviews and observations were used as the key data collection tools. All were piloted before the main study was conducted. As Oppenheim (1992:48) suggests, piloting questionnaires is very useful to identify what should be included, excluded, and revised to ensure quality. Piloting of the interviews was conducted to test out issues that I had previously not considered e.g. interviewees' feedback on my language, order and clarity of the questions, topics or concerns to address, questions to include and drop (Arthur and Nazroo, 2003). This feedback helped with the reformulation of the interview schedule and questions for the main study. Regarding observations, I conducted pre-fieldwork classroom and language use observations in the UK. This was for trying out suitable recording devices, observation practices, and accumulating experience of observations in preparation for the main study (Richards, 2003).

As explained above, I began with carrying out observations combined with on-site interviews and only conducted the questionnaire surveys as well as interviews with participants after I had become familiar with these participants through being present in the university contexts. In the following subsections I address each of the research techniques in turn. First the quantitative tool is covered and then I consider the remaining qualitative ones.

3.5 Questionnaire: rationale and administration

The questionnaire survey is methodologically useful as it helps the researcher access a good number of respondents and in the long run, potentially increases the number of persons qualified and willing to take part in other types of data collection. Dörnyei (2007:102) describes questionnaires as helpful in collecting general information about facts and experiences. For this, background information concerning students studying English in the three universities and five teacher participants, their experiences in learning/teaching, and use of linguacultural resources could be effectively collected through two questionnaire surveys. Questionnaire data could subsequently be used to support the collection and analysis of the interview and classroom observation data. The surveys are a short cut to collect information as no researcher could interview all university students and observe classrooms to collect information about all pertinent practices in the past and future.

Weighing up the strengths of questionnaire survey and limitations of using other research tools to collect data, I conducted the one questionnaire survey with 190 students and another with the five teachers who served as the focal practitioner respondents. The student questionnaire survey aimed to yield information about participants' learning experience, linguacultural resources for language acquisition, the training that they had received, and the learning objectives. The teacher questionnaire survey set out to investigate the linguacultural resources, activities, and their ideas regarding teaching as well as their teacher training backgrounds.

Student questionnaire was primarily written in Mandarin with English translations in order to ensure that home and the ten international students could understand the questions. The teachers' questionnaire was written in English because they could deal with complex English language. Closed and open-ended questions were contained in the two questionnaires both the one for the teachers and the other for the students. Closed questions were formulated to obtain details about respondents' backgrounds regarding English language education whereas asking open-ended questions encourages respondents' elaboration on their experiences and beliefs in EFL provisions in Taiwan. The open-ended questions permit respondents to frame their thoughts on issues in their own terms and this goes beyond the design of closed questions (Cohen et al., 2011). The use of open-ended questions also aligns with the critical education research design, thus providing participants opportunities to articulate their views and to make critiques on established EFL education (see Appendix 3.1).

I myself administered questionnaires after two weeks of observing for several reasons. My two weeks of participation in respondents' communities and social activities permitted me to establish a rapport with respondents, who then could feel free to seek my assistance if they had any queries regarding the confidentiality of the research data. My presence allowed myself to clarify any ambiguous wording or (mis)interpretation of questions raised by student respondents in order to ensure respondents' full understanding of the questions, even though the questionnaire survey had been piloted. It was anticipated that through there being a good rapport, the non-response rate or biased responses would be less prevalent thus ensuring the quality of the collected questionnaire data, as Cohen et al. (2011: 404) and Robson (2011: 252-267) note. Data from interviews carried out at a later stage could subsequently be used to corroborate survey findings or give deeper insights regarding to the phenomenon of interest.

For the analysis of student questionnaires, I used quantitative content analysis to count students' answers and chart the results through an Excel programme. Qualitative content analysis was employed to analyse the teacher questionnaire survey responses. The results of questionnaire analysis are presented in chapter 4, commencing with the presentation of student and then teacher questionnaire survey outcomes. As part of the analysis, I also summarised the information obtained from these two questionnaire surveys and charted the emergent themes (see Table 4.16 Appendix 4.2) as well as the implications for my research. To sum up, the information obtained from the analysis firstly provides me a contextual understanding of the investigated learning and teaching events. Secondly, some prototype themes emerged from the questionnaire analysis results. These shaped my further exploration through the interviews and classroom observations of topics concerning the pedagogical decisions on what linguacultural resources were available and used for input as well as the ideas and theories of teaching that support classroom practices.

To deal with the quantitative data from the questionnaire survey completed by students, SSPS and Microsoft Excel are two suitable analytical programmes that can process data extracted from respondents' answers to close-ended questions. I chose the latter because this is a small-scale enquiry research, aiming to provide descriptive information about the teaching and learning contexts to be investigated further as well as specific issues to focus on in the main investigation through interviews and classroom observation. SSPS is usually employed to manage large amounts of numerical data from quantitative research to generalise the studied phenomena (Cohen et al., 2011) and this does not match the mild potential for generalisability associated with the studied contexts in this research (see Subsection 3.2.2).

3.6 Observations

Next, the theoretical rationale for conducting classroom observation is given with the time frame for my observations. The details of the observations that I carried out are explained in the relevant chapter where the data are presented.

3.6.1 Purposes

Observation is a useful technique to examine what people do in real-world, natural settings owing to its direct, contextual data (Robson, 2011; Cohen et al., 2011). As this researcher studies teachers and students' experiences in English taught and learned for ELF communication inside classrooms and the English used outside classrooms, observations were applied to make sense of their experiences. Observational data assists researchers to describe contexts: physical, social, human, and in this thesis, programme settings (Cohen et al., 2011; Patton, 2002). That is, participatory observations used in ethnographic enterprises seek to capture contextual elements to account for events, not by simply presenting contextual elements but by investigating the complex interrelations between these elements, events and/or people (O'Reilly, 2009; Patton, 2002). Such data can only be collected through prolonged participation and consistent immersion in the observed contexts (Punch, 2005).

For this study, observations supplement data produced through using other techniques that are self-reports made by respondents describing what they think they do in certain contexts. Observing participants generated first hand data of how they actually perform and how the studied phenomenon is understood in specific contexts (Patton, 2002; Atkinson et al., 2003). Lastly, observation allows a researcher access to what participants do not say about phenomena thus affording a deeper understanding of studied social practices in situ (O'Reilly, 2009; Silverman, 2006: 97).

Conducting observations avoids depending solely on participants' description, which may suffer from: memory limitations (e.g. time gap, memory limitations) (Cohen et al., 2011), verbal and narrative limitations of research participants and their repertoire (Robson, 2011), participants' selection of events they take for granted (Patton, 2002), and de-contextualised narratives (Atkinson et al., 2003). Moreover cross-checking of participants' accounts recorded from questionnaires and interviews and discussion of discrepancies between these and actual behaviours are possible (Robson, 2011). In this way observations combined with interviews helps validate through triangulation evidence provided by other methods. That is, as Robson (2011: 317) argues: 'Observation can be used as a supportive or supplementary method to collect data that may complement or set in perspective data obtained by other means.' Gillham (2008) points out that rather more objectivity is assigned to observations in comparison with other research methods, however, this is a contested issue. In practice, it is difficult to maintain complete objectivity when recording what participants do because of a researcher's own subjectivity, and his/her selection of what is observed (Gillham, 2008:2; Blommaert and Jie, 2010: 17). That is, seeing is one thing; precisely saying what is seen is another. As O'Reilly (2009) notes, on-site inquiries enable participants and researcher to co-construct meanings of observed events in situ. I interviewed teacher and pupil participants to hear their perspectives of tasks used in classes immediately following sessions, in breaks between or after classes (see Silverman, 2006). Carrying out these interviews means

that subjective descriptions and interpretations of data can be re-examined through seeing as well as listening to participants and this helps the researcher to reconsider subjective accounts (Gillham, 2008).

However, observation is by no means trouble-free as a researcher's participation in a community gives rise to ethical and other methodological concerns (Cohen et al., 2011; O'Reilly, 2009), such as the impact of the researcher's participation on neutrality and reality of studied events, settings, and raises issues regarding participants' privacy (Blommaert and Jie, 2010). In fact, observations can vary in respect of the degree of participation (Gillham, 2008). This researcher thus took neither a full nor a non-participant role, was flexible regarding participation/non-participation as well as in selecting structured/unstructured observation. As Angrosino and Rosenberg (2011) argue, this allows the researcher to adjust in accordance with the observation milieu. This context-sensitive and process-oriented observations with flexible formats of structures can cater for ethical and methodological concerns emerging in the field, as Punch (2005:183) points out and is especially pertinent in educational settings (Wolcott, 1994).

3.6.2 Time frame for observational data collection

Unlike full ethnography, my engagement in each site was only three months rather than a long term ethnographic embedded situation (Cohen et al., 2011). I adopted this abbreviated version of observation due to time constraints. Even so, the in-depth understanding and thick description of studied phenomena were acquired by observations in multiple sites that drew on the multiple observational resources mentioned in Subsection 3.2.2 (see also Jeffrey and Throman, 2004:538-540).

During my three months, I immersed myself in the research sites and accessed various forms of data to gain insights regarding the English taught and learned in classrooms. Three English modules (Freshmen English; Oral Training 1; Oral Training 2) in U1 and eight groups of (non-) English Major students were observed in one private and two state universities (U2 and U3). Conducting consistent observations in multiple sites adopts the concept of the 'compressed time mode' for ethnographic projects proposed by Jeffrey and Throman (2004: 538-540) which involves intensive and consistent immersion in multiple sites.

Ideally, on-site interviews should be conducted immediately after observations (e.g. O'Reilly, 2009). Nevertheless, most of my on-site interviews were not carried out straightaway after the observation session because my participants had their own busy schedules (e.g. students and/or teachers needed to go to other classes directly after my observation) and breaks between the observed classes were too short to interview my participants, being only usually ten to fifteen minutes long. Taking the open approach and demonstrating flexibility in data collection (see Subsection 3.2.2), I wanted to negotiate times for holding the on-site interviews. Through negotiation, they were conducted at time negotiated with the interviewees rather than immediately after the classroom observation.

The first type of on-site interviews took place in classrooms directly after the observed classes or during breaks but only when the timing suited the participants and the topics to be addressed did not require long discussions. These only constituted a few of all of the on-site interviews due to the pressures of having short breaks and interviewees' schedules, as stated above. The other and major approach to the rather brief on-site interviews was to carry them out in combination with the main interviews that I discuss in 3.7. In fact, I combined the focus of the on-site and main semi-structured interviews because most interviewees wanted to be interviewed only once and suggested this as a way forward, when I approached them. These longer interviews which covered the issues focussed on in the post observation sessions along with the probes for the main semi-structured interviews were usually conducted in quiet spaces in cafes within or near the campuses. Next, I explain three types of data collected during observation.

3.6.3 Observational data- three forms

Three kinds of observational data were collected, including classroom observation recordings, my field notes, and brief on-site interviews. Firstly, approximately 65 hours of classes given by five university lecturers were audio recorded with their consent. One objective of audio-recording observations in classrooms is to keep records and transcripts further allowing me to reconstruct what happened in research sites. Audio-recordings also helped me to reflect on my written field notes, by either adding details or clarifying issues. On a practical level, these transcripts document what participants have done and said, in the form of verbatim quotations and direct transcripts. As Patton (2002: 302-305) and Silverman (2006: 91-92) suggest, these let the researcher analyse observational data as well as field notes.

Secondly, I took descriptive and interpretative field notes as my observations proceeded, moving between descriptive, focused, selective, and interpretive observations, as Cohen et al. (2011: 465) describe. Appendix 3.2 offers examples of field notes which provide invaluable data because they provide various levels of description. They mainly cover contextual facts (Cohen et al., 2011), comprising descriptive information concerning physical and contextual settings of observations (e.g. classrooms, seating), participants (e.g. number, names), as well as the times and dates of observation. These notes also contain my insights into critiques and initial analysis of the observed teaching and learning. Lastly, my field notes serve as the foundation for the thorough data analysis as they can be used for integration purposes with other forms of data or resources (Laine, 2000:147). I took a critical view towards what was being observed. That is, I challenged participants' practices by drawing on my knowledge about lingua franca perspectives of English for communication and other relevant theories. This interpretive stance when writing field notes parallels Blommaert and Jie (2010) and O'Reilly's (2009) suggestion that fieldwork is a developmental device (Mason, 2002:99) used for (re)formulating

the researcher's understanding of settings, documenting resources available in situ, and challenging the researcher's own theories via reflexivity.

Finally, observation data was generated through holding the brief on-site interviews with teachers and students immediately after the observed class had finished. On-site interviews focused only on the topics, events and practices that had emerged from my observation of the class.

3.7 Interviews

The following addresses the key perspectives that informed my interview design and the purposes of carrying out the interviews. I also provide information about how the interviews were conducted. For the purposes of this study, and to clarify the execution of the two types of interviews, the specifics of the interviewing are presented in the relevant chapter alongside the presentation of the captured data.

3.7.1 Purposes and two types of interviews

Interviews can supplement observations for the following reasons: 1) participants' past experience cannot be recounted through observation (Rubin and Rubin, 2005), 2) interviews grant accurate analysis and interpretation of observational data (O'Reilly, 2005), and 3) interviews can immediately address focal issues (Bryman, 2008). Therefore, semi structured interviews were adopted as the third research instrument in this study.

Traditionally, interviewers play an active role in generating questions while interviewees take a passive role by providing information (Holstein and Gubrium, 2012). Where interviewees act as passive information providers, generating new knowledge about issues relies on posing the appropriate questions more than interviewees' elaboration on the topics. However, these roles can be far more extensive when interviews are interactive (Legard et al., 2003; Richards, 2003) with researcher-respondent bilateral engagement. Under this lens, the aim is to create space for both parties to produce co-constructed interview data through negotiation, as Holstein et al. (2012) and Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) advocate. During these situations, questions emerge that lead to 'unexpected or unanticipated answers' (Cohen et al. 2007:357), 'ideas and suggestions on a particular topic', and solutions for questions that arise (Legard et al., 2003:142). Building on this, the aim was to co-construct new knowledge about teaching and learning English for real-world communication through bilateral engagement (see Subsection 3.2.2).

As Kvale and Brinkmann (2009:48) argue, a Socratic exchange permits interaction aiming to provoke informants into justify their opinions on issues. In this way, interviewees can express their critical opinions and data can be interpreted from the participants' own critical perspectives. In a similar vein, Mason (2002: 65) proposes a 'stimulus-response' exchange whereby the interviewer's knowledge on specific issues can serve to stimulate in-depth discussion. These two models were used to develop an

interview approach that provoked interviewees' thoughts on how the English that is taught and learned in classrooms is applied to communication outside. These stimulus-response interviews engaged participants' and/or the researcher's critical perspectives. Deviating from this traditional interview scenario, I aimed to obtain individual, co-constructed, and critical opinions from interviewees. The richness of the semi structured interviews was enhanced by drawing in multilateral perspectives including those of the researcher (Johnson, 2002: 106).

I interviewed participants to address a range of topics. These interviews were carried out to extend and go further than the handful of post observation, brief, on-site interviews about classroom based observed practices, as discussed in Subsection 3.6.3. The interview schedule for these main semi structured interviews contained probes about: participants' teaching and learning experiences in the past, their conceptualisation of the linguacultural resources available to teach/learn English for real-world communication, and their ideas and theories of teaching English in support of or against communicative use whilst employing their available materials.

For ethnography-informed research, O'Reilly (2005: 131) indicates that it is common for a researcher to 'turn an individual interview into a group discussion because others turn up'. Instead of insisting on the individual interviews, O'Reilly (2005:131) suggests to researchers that this kind of group interview is more like a discussion group in which interviewees exchange ideas regarding the discussed subjects that they all experienced together, relate the same topics from multiple perspectives in accordance with their individual opinions or experience, and provide information that cannot be gained through the traditional individual semi-structured interview (see O'Reilly, 2005:131). This group interview also allows participants who have 'had shared similar experiences' to openly and frankly discuss about their experiences. Within the ethnographic research paradigm, Beitin (2012: 249) concludes that the interaction of interviewees who turn up for the interview together allow them to 'build a broad narrative that consists of similarities as well as difference in their relationship to the topic.'

However, this kind of group interview requires interviewers to control and manage the interviewee-interviewee rapport as well as interviewer-interviewee interaction in compliance with the interview guide (O'Reilly, 2005). To prepare myself for group interviews with students from the same class in the same university, piloting of individual and group interviews were conducted to train myself to control interview events as O'Reily (2005) suggests before the main fieldwork (see Subsection 3.4.1). For the main study, I conducted five group interviews with students, as they turned up as a group of two, three, and four. All the members of each group of students was being taught by the same teacher when the group interview data was collected. Echoing Beitin's (2012:248) point about holding group interviews to collect multiple perspectives, these students presented similar and diverse opinions on the focal pedagogical topics in their group interviews (see chapter 5). As discussed in Subsection 3.2.2, multiple perspectives are collected to triangulate the data analysis and interpretation (see also Beitin

2012:248). It should be noted that, individual interviews constituted the majority of sessions with students and all interviews held with teachers were one to one.

3.7.2 Combing structures, strategies/questions, roles of interviewer, and data analysis

Flexibility in the interview structure is essential for conducting interviews that fit the research circumstances. Flexibly structured interviews permit emerging issues to be addressed (Bryman, 2008) and interviewees to explore focal topics and issues on their own terms (Richards, 2003). This flexibility encourages production of collaborative constructing of the studied world by interviewees and interviewers (Richards, 2003) and allows interviewers to show sensitivity to the dynamics of each interaction (Mason, 2002). Referring back to observations, as already described, the brief on-site interviews helped make sense of what had been observed and heard in and out of classrooms (see Subsection 3.6.1) (Mason, 2002).

When conducting my semi-structured interviews, diverse types of questions helped me to adjust the structure of the interview schedule according to circumstances and the flow of each conversation, as Patton (2002: 347) suggests. Conducting the interviews in this way enabled me re-structure interviews and re-formulate questions to achieve my purposes. The questions include open-ended questions to allow discussion of issues, follow-up questions/probes to ask for interviewees' elaboration on answers, prompts to extend on previously-asked questions, and reflective questions to get interviewees' opinions (Patton, 2002; Richards, 2003). Generally, I began each interview with standardized questions to frame the general issues, followed by questions listed in my interview guide. I carried on the interview in a conversational manner to look at emerging issues or particular events that I or the interviewee wanted to make clear. The structure of each interview became less rigid as it proceeded. Appendix 3.3 covers the content of topic guides for interviews with the participant teachers and students.

3.7.3 My dual roles as interviewer

Participation and membership by the researcher as a "quasi-member" in studied contexts attaches depth to interviews (Angrosino and Rosenberg, 2011). My dual role associated with this investigation is described as follows. I was formerly a teacher and student of English in Taiwan thus shared similar learning and teaching experience as well as linguacultural backgrounds as the participants. Thus I had pre-existing knowledge about teacher/student participants. My insider understanding of participants and their teaching and learning history enabled me to show empathy towards interviewees when they discussed how they perceived and interpreted the aforementioned phenomena. Interviewees in turn could comprehend this interviewer's questions as we had shared experiences and membership in the studied communities.

3.7.4 Interview process, data, and analytical approach to data analysis

Legard et al. (2003) state that recording interviews enables researcher to engage repeatedly in listening to interviewees and to probe deeper into the emerging issues. Audio-recording affords an accurate record of interviews (Johnson, 2002; O'Reilly, 2005), including, for this study, the language used by respondents which can be used to shed light on the EFL experiences of interest. Taking notes, a reasonable alternative means of recording narratives, might distract interviewees and/or force them to slow down or pause, thus influencing the flow of conversation. Audio-recording allows the interviewer to engage with and motivate respondents to speak, and to establish an appropriate atmosphere, which are all necessary for good interviews (Legard et al., 2003). Lastly, recording interviews enabled me to better attend to the power tension between informants and myself and any sensitive issues which need to be dealt with spontaneously. All these factors, unless attended to, could hinder performance and subsequently impact on the robustness of the data collected (Cohen et al., 2011).

All interviews were recorded with the consent of interviewees. All began with an introduction of the research and its purposes, confirmation of permission to record the session and clarification of interviewees' questions. In total five interviews with teachers and 25 interviews with students were carried out. Five interviews with the five teachers were one-to-one. Altogether, 25 interviews with students were carried out and 20 of them were one-to-one and five were group interviews. Among these interviewed students, six were English Majors and 22 non-English Majors. All the interviews with teachers and students were carried out in the language (Mandarin) preferred by the interviewees. Taking the open approach of ethnographic research enterprise to carry out the fieldwork, I used the same interview guide to interview students who turned up as individuals or arrived in a group. By doing this, I could avoid restricting the interviewees' voices regarding the topics, whether they were participating in an individual or small group interview. At the same time, I could give space to each interviewee in the group for the opportunity to exchange ideas with the other participants if they felt they wanted to engage in a discussion. The length of each interview varied according to the format (i.e. the on-site, individual and group type) and the interviewees. The on-site interviews took the least time while the group interviews lasted the longest. Overall, the interviews lasted from between 40 minutes and one hour.

I undertook internal triangulation whereby there is data comparison and contrast within one type of data as well as external triangulation which involves data comparison and contrast among different sorts of data (O'Reilly, 2005) I compared and contrasted interview data; individual interviews, interviews with students and teachers. For instance, I compared the interviews with students taught by different teachers (e.g. contrasting the views on English language use held by English and Non-English Majors) as an internal triangulation approach to data interpretation and student and teacher opinions on the same topics (e.g. comparing their views on use of materials for teaching) as an external approach. As Mason

(2002) indicates, contrasting and comparing strategies during data analysis allows for consistency to emerge between types of data and unearths corroboration of data. Regarding this, the on-site interviews not only provide participant's accounts of the observed learning, teaching, and use of English but also can elicit how participant and researcher's perspectives are consistent. The interviews also enabled me to discuss observed teaching and learning practices by drawing on the accounts and perspectives of the other participants in the same or different research sites. Using the combined interpretations collected from participants from diverse sites, the researcher drafted a collective schema of the studied phenomenon and their cultures. In sum, an interpretative approach to analysing the interview data was adopted as described below.

3.8 Data management and ethical considerations

Next I discuss how the data sets were managed and introduce the analytical framework. Analysing the data is further discussed in Chapters 4, 5, and 6. I address the ethical issues and how the two research questions are answered by drawing upon the analysis of each data set.

3.8.1 Managing the qualitative data to establish a framework for analysis

Regarding transcription of data, this centred on content. As Roberts (1997) suggests, I used a suitable transcription system for interviews and classroom observations by adapting Silverman's (2006:398-399) Simplified Transcription Symbols. One noteworthy point is that this set of conventions is open to re-tailoring so as to address further needs of transcription, analysis, or interpretation, thus permitting flexibility, as indicated in Subsection 3.2.2.

I transcribed all the recordings of interviews and the classroom observations. The reasons for this are based in the fact that this process helped me familiarize myself with these data through intensive, repeated listening to recordings. Familiarity with transcripts enabled me to generate initial codes (Gibbs, 2007) and identify emergent insights into specific issues (O'Reilly, 2009). This process highlighted issues of interest: e.g. recurrent listening and oral training as potential themes or categories in my analysis. Lastly, going through the transcripts helped me reconstruct the situations in which texts were produced and helped me to dissect the meaning of participants' utterances and actions in context (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009:180).

The analysis of the teacher questionnaire (open ended) responses, interviews and classroom observation was carried out through thematic analysis. Informed by open approach of ethnographic enterprise, ideally, 'a complete tabula rasa approach' (Gibbs, 2007:46) should be employed to process and analyse qualitative data in order to yield openness to what is taught and learned inside of classrooms. However, taking an entirely open approach to data analysis is not possible because the researcher's perspectives (Bryman, 2008) as well as the established literature/studies shape the data analysis to various degrees

(Gibbs, 2007). For my study, I accepted that it was evitable that I incorporated my subjective perspectives on the investigated issues, pertinent literature on ELF perspectives reviewed for this study and critical education theory into my data analysis. Nonetheless, the open approach (see Subsection 3.2.2) was still employed in order to capture what participants had expressed by themselves about English teaching/learning. At the same time I aimed to avoid my assumptions about participants' views and/or minimize the possibility that I could impose my perspectives on participants' accounts of their teaching/learning experience and practices.

To keep a good balance between being open to local people's opinions on the studied subjects as well as to the theoretical framework of the data analysis, Gibbs (2007) suggests analysts employ a data-driven approach along with the concept-driven one to collaboratively analyse qualitative data. According to this author, the data-driven approach focuses on openness to the emergent themes in order to explain the investigated phenomenon. The concept-driven approach encourages analysts to commence data analysis working from existing themes generated from, for instance, the extant scholarship and move towards novel themes emerging from data.

Taking Gibbs's (2007) concept-driven approach to process the interview data, I drew upon the emergent pedagogical issues of the two questionnaire surveys and the literature review to code the interview data. Simultaneously, the data-driven approach was employed to analyse interview data in order to avoid making any assumptions about participants' beliefs about English language and its use, such as the entrenched ENL dominance or deeply-rooted beliefs about ENL English (see Subsection 2.3). These two approaches are integrated into the thematic analysis. To analyse the collected qualitative data, I applied Richie et al. (2003) and Spencer et al. (2014) five phases of data management to establish a thematic analysis framework and generate codes. Below, the phases and their practical application to the interview and classroom observational data are elucidated. To address the research questions from theoretical and practice perspectives, the data form the interviews and classroom observations were coded separately, but using the same thematic approach that was established for the study.

Familiarisation

According to Richie et al (2003), the first phase of thematic coding is familiarization, allowing the researcher to submerge in all data resources collected from multiple research sites. For my research, the first phase of thematic analysis was to familiarize myself with data sets via re-reading and reviewing the transcripts and other data resources, such as my field notes.

Identifying a framework

The second phase focuses on developing a conceptual framework in order to classify the qualitative data (Richie et al. 2014). These classifying categories were synthesized and generated from the topics

introduced in the sources deployed in the study. For my study, these materials refer to the reviewed literature (i.e. NES linguacultural representation, resources, and dominance), research questions (i.e. teachers and students' conceptualization of English language teaching, learning, and use), and data resources (i.e. the two questionnaire surveys outcomes, interview guides, observation and field notes). Drawing upon the topics introduced from these follows the concept-driven approach to thematic analysis, as mentioned above. The list of codes is then amended and recoded and the full list of data analysis was produced with three categories and 31 subcategories (see the list in Appendix 3.4).

Labelling

The thematic analysis draws attention to the content of interviews and classroom observation through counting, which is the strength of content analysis (Franzosi, 2004). The verbatim text of interviews, on-site interviews, and teaching/learning practices were labelled by the theme references (i.e. pedagogical decisions, linguacultural resources, theories, and practices) with the numerical evidence (i.e. frequency of the pedagogical topics mentioned by interviewees and practices carried out by participants) to support the labelling. Through meaning-based content analysis (Cohen et al. 2011), I considered the meaning of each specific piece of data, so that I could label each piece of data under a suitable category.

Charting

Richie et al. (2003) and Spencer et al. (2014) emphasize that charting is a stage of thematic analysis involving re–grouping text in accordance with similar characteristics and meanings assigned to each (sub)category. It was deemed appropriate to reorganize text under three key themes from perspectives of teachers and students on the curriculum, theories, and practices to support or challenge English for the real-world communication (Table 5.2). The charts were sorted by using a Microsoft Excel worksheet under the themes of curricular and pedagogical decisions about linguacultural resources for teaching/learning, linguacultural resources and representations available for listening and speaking training, the ideas of using linguacultural resources to teach/learn listening and speaking, and the use and results of using the available linguacultural resources. This was to synthesise each piece of interview as well as the observational data and bring the relevant topics to the fore under a specific theme. Next, I show how charting relates to addressing the two research questions and presentation of the data analysis (see Appendix 4.2).

Mapping and interpretation

The charting is firstly related to how the research questions are answered by dividing the themes into perspectives of teachers to answer research question 1 and those of students to address research question 2. Thus, all the chapters presenting the outcomes of the data analysis commence with teacher and are

followed with students' perspectives. Secondly, the charting was conducted according to the primary strengths of each research tool: interviews shed light on the participants' opinions/beliefs about teaching/learning and subsequently, observations to explore how participants realise their stated ideas about teaching/learning. I interpreted the outcomes from my analysis of the observed teaching and learning practices concerning how teachers and students actually use linguacultural resources to support or challenge English for the real-world communication. The following table indicates how each data set covers the content of the two research questions.

Table 3.1 A summary of data sets and research contents

Data set and chapter	Matched across to research question content
Chapter 4 Teacher and student questionnaire surveys,	Provides macro-level analysis of curriculum to contextualise ideas (chapter 5) and practices (chapter 6) of teaching and learning in support of/ against real-world communication
Chapter 5 Semi-structured interviews with teachers and students	Offers micro-level analysis of participants' conceptualisation of, and their curricular decisions regarding, linguacultural input resources, including the selection of materials and the deployment of materials for teaching and learning
Chapter 6 Critical analysis of observed classroom practices	Provides practice-based observation evidence from classroom realities to support or challenge participants' narratives about linguacultural resources and input delivery

Through the different levels of analysis inherent in this study, I seek to provide responses to each research question from the contextual (macro) as well as individual (micro) perspective. For example, data can be gathered from the universities' policies and faculty materials, as well as the teachers and students. The micro level analysis of participants' opinions involves the interview data (chapter 5) and classroom observation data (chapter 6). At the same time, the interview data analysis (chapter 5) might also provide evidence to support or challenge the observed classroom practices (chapter 6) and the system in which the practices are embedded (i.e. the macro milieu).

3.8.2 Ethical considerations

The potential participants[4] were supplied with an information sheet and consent form (Appendix 3.5) for the research during the recruitment meeting with students, whereby the research was explained, along with an opportunity for discussion and questions. Both the consent forms and information sheet were given institutional approval from the University of Southampton's Research Governance Office. For the participants I explained the nature and aims of the project in non-technical terms, making it clear that participants could take part in this research in more than one way and that participation is

[4] To avoid potential negative consequences for research participants, I explained why they had been selected and approached, as well as what their participation would contribute to the project in jargon-free language at individual or group recruitment meetings.

flexible and at their convenience. Time was provided for potential participants to reflect on whether they would like to be involved. Those who wished to do so were then asked to sign consent forms and retain a copy of the information sheet and a copy of the consent form, which contained my contact details so that they could contact me to clarify issues or withdraw from the study. In this way, participants had the right to decide whether to take part, plus the right to withdraw from the research right up to the submission date for my thesis. Regarding recruiting teacher participants, some of them were identified and contacted through obtaining their publicly available email addresses at the institutions, whilst others were recruited through chairs or teachers of university/college departments. The procedure for obtaining their written informed consent was the same as that for students, but carried out on an individualised basis.

During the data collection, I respected the participants' opinions and comments on issues related to classroom English and their language use without imposing my views on their responses, classroom activities and language practices. All the pertinent ethical guidelines were taken into account during the different stages of data collection and presentation in compliance with the University of Southampton's ethical regulations and procedures. All the institutions and participants' names mentioned in data were anonymized and I was the only person with access to the personal information in the collected data. I was fully responsible for ensuring appropriate storage and security of all the study information, including the data and consent forms.

3.9 Summary

This chapter has considered the theoretical framework underpinning the research design and data collection/analysis. The research sites, the recruitment of participants, and the procedures adopted to collect data have been explained and justified. I have explained how I designed, conducted and analysed the two questionnaire surveys, the various different interviews and classroom observations. Lastly, I have discussed data management and ethical considerations. In the following chapters the outcomes of the data collection and subsequent analyses are presented and discussed.

Chapter 4 Questionnaires on students and teachers' perception of English language education

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of one questionnaire survey held with 190 students and another with five teachers. The questionnaire surveys are important for this research for the following reasons. First, the literature (see Sections 2.3 and 2.6) discusses the necessity of first examining the curriculum in order to understand the curricular decisions on what to teach and as well as whether NES linguacultural resources and input dominate EFL teaching/learning before offering any pedagogical suggestions regarding linguacultural dominance. Second, these two surveys allow me to understand the research contexts of the three universities in more depth. Thirdly, the questionnaire surveys assist me in focusing down the research into specific aspects of teaching and learning English for communication, such as on the major linguacultural resources and the forms of input.

For the student questionnaire survey, the closed-ended questions concerned their past ELE experience, learning contexts, and English language curriculum; while the open-ended questions are raised to gain information about their views on classroom practices. The teacher questionnaire survey contains closed-ended questions to understand teachers' teaching, their teacher training background information and the curriculum. The open-ended questions in this case address topics concerning their practices, such as the curriculum, materials, teaching activities, and teaching objectives. Overall all the participants' responses provide contextual information regarding the teaching/learning contexts in which English is taught and learned and what cultures are introduced to classroom practices to constitute the mainstream ELE. The student and teacher questionnaires are presented in Appendix 3.1.

A convenient, non-random sample was used for recruiting students based on my access to their teachers. Students from as many disciplines as possible were sampled, including students from 42 departments/programmes of 13 faculties in one private and two state universities (Table 4.1). Further details can be found in Appendix 4.1. For the second survey, teachers who taught different ELT modules were recruited: four teachers who taught 162 non-English Majors following Freshman English and one other who taught 28 English Majors the Oral Training courses. The Oral Training and Freshman English were compulsory courses comprising two to three-hours per week, depending on each university's curriculum. Students from U2 constituted the majority of student participants.

Both English and non-English majors taking different ELT courses were recruited for four main purposes. First, comparing and contrasting both groups' (English and non-English majors) collective perspectives would allow understanding of how specialist linguist students and non-linguists perceive ELE and its use. Second, gaining collective perspectives from multiple groups can better account for the overall perception of English teaching, learning, and use in Taiwan. Third, findings from EFL learners in assorted disciplines taking Freshman English could have pedagogical implications for

teaching general communication to EFL learners in different disciplines. Fourth, students taking Oral Training were sampled to inform ELT professionals of teaching/learning speaking from ELF perspectives. Table 4.1 below outlines the students' professional studies, the English language courses studied, and number of teachers who taught their courses.

Table 4.1 Data on student respondents

University / Information	U1 (private)	U2 (state)	U3 (state)
No. of Respondents' Faculty	1	9	3
No. of Respondents' Students	28	131	31
No. of Respondents' Programme or Department	1	31	10
Respondents' Major	English	Non-English	Non-English
No. of Respondents' Teachers	1	3	1
Investigated taught Modules	Oral Training	Freshman English	Freshman English
Compulsory(C)/optional(O) modules	C	C	C
Teaching/learning hours per week	2	3	2

Section 4.2 below begins with the quantitative analysis of students' responses regarding ELE. I then move on to the content analysis of teachers' answers (Section 4.3). Each starts with background information about each group and moves on to factual information about contexts and learning as well as teaching practices. In Section 4.4, I summarise the two questionnaire survey results and discuss the implications for the subsequent interview and classroom observation data collection and analysis that follow in chapters 5 and 6. There is a brief overview of the researched contexts as well as the specific emergent topics (Section 4.5).

4.2 Questionnaire regarding students' perceptions of English language education

Table 4.2 gives a summary of the background information of all student participants grouped according to their location: U1, a private university, and two state universities, U2 and U3.

Table 4.2 Background information on student respondents

Universities	U1	U2	U3
Age range	18-20	18-19	18-19
Nationality	Taiwanese majority, a relatively small number of students from Macao and Indonesia	Taiwanese majority, a small number from Macao, Hong Kong, and Latin America	Taiwanese majority, one from Macao
Major	English	Non-English	Non-English
Years of study	First and second-year students	First-year students	First-year students

Tables 4.1 and 4.2 illustrate that student participants comprised 190 students, aged 18-20 from the three universities. Taiwanese nationals formed the majority, with a few respondents, ten in total, being from Panama, Paraguay, Indonesia, Hong Kong, and Macao. Two foreign students are English Majors from

Macao and Indonesia and they study English language in U1. Both are of Chinese ethnicity, speaking fluent Mandarin. Among English Majors, there were 16 second-years and 12 first-years, about 15% of all respondents. 168 freshmen who are non-English Majors undertook the questionnaire survey. In U2, seven foreign students participated in this survey and they are from Macao, HK, and Latin American countries. Those from Latin America cannot speak Chinese fluently and use English for communication. Students from Macao and HK can communicate well in Chinese. Only one foreign student from Macao studied in U3 and she could speak good Chinese.

4.2.1 Learning experience in Taiwan and abroad

Figure 4.1 presents Taiwanese students' length of ELE and intercultural experience.

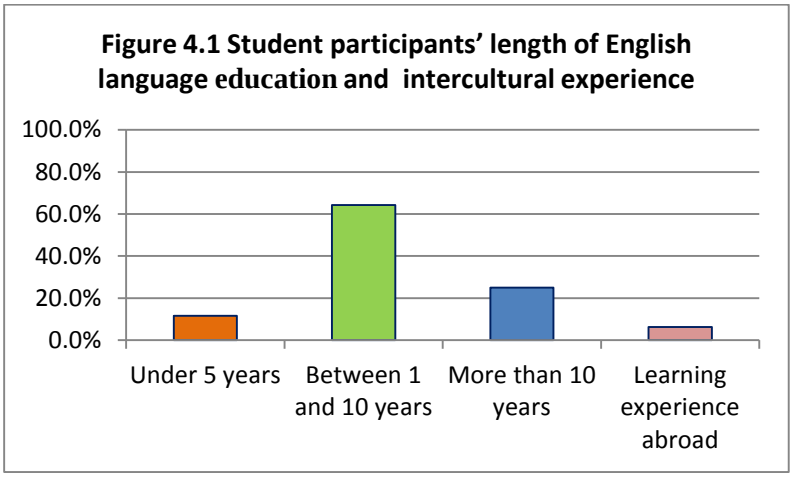
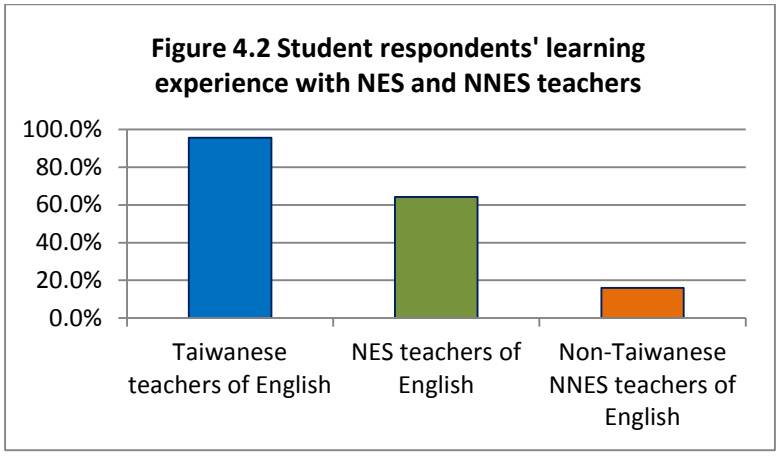


Figure 4.1 shows 64.2% of students indicating 5-10 years of learning experience. Only 11.6% of respondents said that they have learned English for less than five years. It is important to note that international students constitute the majority of these. About one-fourth said they had learned English for more than ten years. It can be seen that most of student respondents are fairly experienced EFL learners.

In response to the question about studying abroad, relatively few students had studied English language abroad (only 6.3%, excluding the international student respondents). This indicates that English majors have more sojourner experience than non-English majors and on the whole most Taiwanese students learn English within their domestic ELT system. This result indicates that students have limited international experience in using their English. The lack of lingua franca use of English also suggests that students by and large gain knowledge of English language use from the English language education (ELE) system in Taiwan.

4.2.2 EFL Teachers

Figure 4.2 demonstrates Taiwanese students' learning experience with teachers of English from various linguacultural backgrounds.



The above figure shows that 95.6% of 190 students had been taught English by Taiwanese teachers. Of note is that 64.2% of them were taught by NES (Native English Speaking) tutors. Only 16% of the total learned from non-Taiwanese NNES teachers. This concurs with Canagarajah (1999) and Holliday's (2005) assertion that local teachers play the leading role in ESL/EFL contexts, such as in Sri Lanka and several other EFL countries, and indicates that NES teachers have a significant role in Taiwanese EFL education while in contrast, non-Taiwanese NNES teachers only play a bit part in EFL classes. The linguacultural input resources offered to Taiwanese students are mainly from Taiwanese teachers of English who may have varying capacities regarding these. The intercultural experience of the respondents was apparently with NES teachers in the classroom, and the least with non-Taiwanese NNES tutors. When the teachers' English serves as a linguistic input resource, these students had exposure to NES English and opportunities to use English to communicate with NES teachers inside of classrooms. The results suggests the possibility of Taiwanese teachers' English dominating the classroom discourses and the English of teachers from non-native English speaking backgrounds may be lacking. Students had the least exposure to English delivered by non-Taiwanese NNES teachers.

4.2.3 Shifting learning goals: from past to present

This section analyses and compares past and present learning aims of respondents to reveal how the priority of different learning objectives may change before and after university level studies.

Table 4.3 Student participants' past and present learning goals

Goals \ Student type	English majors	Non-English majors	Overall %
Communication (past)	25.00%	22.84%	23.15%
Communication (present)*	89.29%	68.52%	72.11%*
Examination (past)*	71.43%	68.52%	93.16%*
Examination (present)	50.00%	96.91%	57.37%
Access to information (past)	17.86%	58.64%	13.68%
Access to information (present)	50.00%	50.62%	50.53%

(* indicates first priority goal)

Table 4.3 shows how students (grouped by English Majors, non-English Majors) ranked their past and present learning goals according to importance. The goals listed on the survey from which respondents could select were; examination, English for the real-world communication, and access to information. Students were able to choose more than one option and some respondents also noted other learning objectives. In terms of main learning goals before entering university, the most popular was studying English to pass exams, with 93.2% of respondents overall listing this as their priority. Only 23.2% learned English for communication (second most popular) and around 14% to access information (third). Regarding current priorities at university, the most popular learning goal learning was English for communication, which was listed by 72.1% and indicates a 48.9 percentage point increase. Examination purposes were ranked as the second most popular by 57.4% as compared with. 93.2% reporting this as their previous priority. The percentage of respondents whose learning target was access to information had increased significantly from 14% to 51%.

On the whole, there were broad similarities between these two groups English and non-English Majors. Both groups had learned English primarily for passing examinations before university. This was true of about 97% of non-English Majors but only 71% of English Majors. In terms of present goals, both groups prioritised communication, with 58.6 % of non-English Majors and 50% of English Majors still studying English for examinations. As many as 89% of English Majors indicated that their present learning goal was communicative purposes, about 20 percentage points higher than for non-English Majors. It appears that English Majors' current learning goals in general prioritised communication rather than examinations, as compared with non-English Majors. While some students' clearly currently prioritised learning English for communication, a high percentage also prioritized examinations. This shows, based on the responses of the students surveyed for this study, studying English for examinations purposes still perpetuates in Taiwanese EFL education at tertiary level.

4.2.4 English language proficiency tests

Figure 4.3 shows the students' experience in attending various types of English language proficiency tests and their willingness to attend the language proficiency tests in the future. Testing has historically dominated the teaching of English because to enter university and to graduate, students have to show

their competency meets the required standard. As one of the interests in this study is the orientation of students towards learning English, it is important to investigate the impact of the examination environment on their goals.

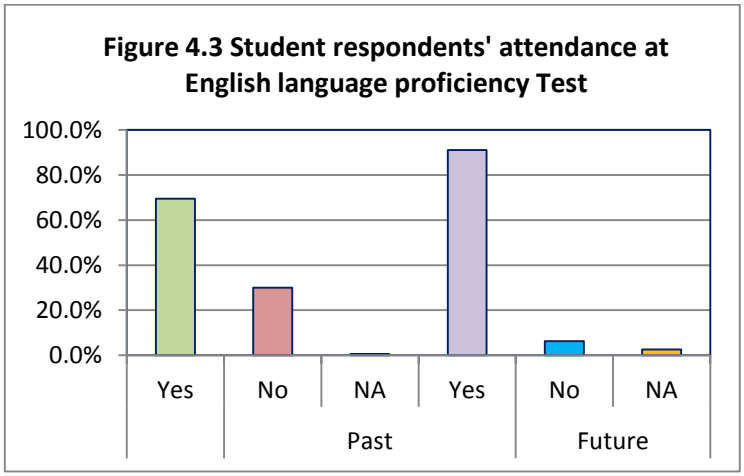


Figure 4.3 shows that nearly 69.5% of respondents had taken English language proficiency tests in the past. Less than one-third (30%) had had no such experience. Most respondents (91.1%) said they would attend a test in future and less than 7.0% indicated they would not. A high proportion of respondents that took tests indicated they did so in order to prove English proficiency for different reasons, e.g. school admission and graduation. A high percentage of students wish to attend tests in the future suggesting the possibility of their studying English for examination requirements rather than for other purposes, such as communication.

Table 4.4 shows English and non-English Majors' experience of and views on language proficiency tests in relation to purposes of taking examinations.

Table 4.4 Students' participation in and views on English language proficiency tests

Experience and opinion	Experience of taking English language proficiency tests		Students' opinions on taking English language proficiency tests in the future	
Students / Answers	English Majors	Non-English Majors	English Majors	No
Yes	71.4%	69.1%	100%	89.5%
No	28.6%	30.3%	0%	7.4%
N/A	0%	0.6%	0%	3.1%

The table shows that there seems to be no significant intergroup difference. 71.4% of English and 69.1% of non-English Majors took such tests in the past. All English Majors and 89.5% of non-English Majors stated that they wished to take them in future. A mere 7.4% of non-English Majors did not consider taking a test in future, and 3.1% did not answer this question, implying uncertainty about whether they would or would not take them, or in fact whether they needed to do this again in future.

Table 4.5 Reasons for taking a test- past and present motivation combined data

Graduation requirement	32.6%
Applying for school abroad	15.8%
Job requirement	9.5%
Assessing their English level	8.4%
Internationally-recognised test	4.7%

Table 4.5 presents student respondents' stated reasons for taking an English proficiency examination. The top three reasons give related to future career, e.g. graduation, admission, job requirement, with the fourth reason given as wanting to measure their competence. When given the option of making a comment regarding this, no student mentioned whether or not attending or preparing for the tests could or could not relate to their learning English for communication.

4.2.5 Respondents' language learning models and resources

Table 4.6 illustrates the main learning resources and/or models that Taiwanese students reported using for language acquisition.

Table 4.6: Student respondents' learning model(s)/resource(s) by popularity

	Primary and secondary learning model(s)/resource(s)		**190 respondents**
Type of students / Models	English Majors	Non-English Majors	Overall proportion (%)
Teachers	15	131	77.98%
Classmates	20	35	20.83%
None/N/A	0	9	5.36%

Table 4.6 illustrates respondents' learning resource(s) by popularity. In order of popularity, these were teachers, classmates and teaching materials, echoing Ellis's (2012) recognition of teacher, students, and materials as providing input. Students were asked to give reasons to justify their choices. The data show that overall a Majority identified English teachers, particularly Taiwanese, as their primary learning models/resources, echoing my point in Subsection 4.2.2 about Taiwanese teachers of English having a leading role in the EFL classroom. Their English served as the major linguistic input resource. Only five respondents specified NES (foreign) teachers as models in their questionnaire answers, even though as many as 64.2% have been taught by NES teachers of English (see Subsection 4.2.2 above). A relatively low overall percentage (20.9%) regarded classmates as a primary learning model although this was the reverse with English Majors, more of whom viewed their classmates as a primary learning model. Some of the respondents indicated that those who speak good English serve as learning models, though none elaborated on what 'good English' meant. Respondents indicated teaching materials (e.g. textbooks) as the third main model.

4.2.6 Teaching-learning content and materials

In terms of teaching and learning content, 45% of the respondents recognised grammar as the most frequently taught content. Other identified foci of teaching and learning content included, in order of decreasing frequency, words and phrases, pronunciation, reading, writing, and speaking. Just over half of the respondents (57%) pinpointed speaking as the least commonly taught skill, and listening as second least. Other aspects (cultural issues, vocabulary, conversation skills) were also mentioned.

Table 4.7 summarises the major listening and speaking materials identified.

Table 4.7 Student participants' use of speaking and listening materials

Listening materials	**Speaking materials**
Audio CDs of textbooks: 41.05%	Textbooks: 27. 89%
Mass media: 35.26%	Speaking tasks/activities in class: 23.68%
Audio English language magazines: 12.63%	No answer(s) or None: 18.95%
Listening test materials: 8.42%	No use of such materials 14.21%

Referring to the above (Table 4.7), the identified listening materials were varied but frequently used types included audio CDs of textbooks (indicated by 41.1% of students), mass media (online resources, TV and radio programmes, music, films- as reported by 35.26%), audio recordings/broadcasting of English language learning magazines (12.63%), and listening test materials (8.4%). Of the 67 respondents who said that their teachers used mass media to enhance listening, over half (36 participants) indicated that they used the American sitcom *Friends* for listening training. In sum, audio CDs of textbooks, the American sitcom *Friends*, and audio materials of English learning magazines served as the most popular listening materials in decreasing order. There was less uniformity when it came to the reported speaking materials with no one type being recognised by more than one-third of respondents. Some 28% agreed that textbooks were used most often for teaching speaking while 23.7% pointed out that speaking activities/tasks were frequently used for oral training but did not specify sources. Some 14.2% stated that no speaking materials were used. Overall, the content of input for listening and speaking training is textbook or material-based.

Nearly one-fifth (19%) of respondents left this question unanswered (N/A), showing uncertainty about the received oral training and materials. It appears likely that irregular or occasional use of speaking materials and training gave rise to this relatively high proportion of "None" or "N/A" answers. Other possible explanations include avoiding answering "None," having forgotten what materials they used, or teachers introducing too many materials for students to identify. Other speaking materials that were identified included English learning magazines, online resources, university English language programmes, and test materials. Unlike the regular use of listening materials, inconsistent use of speaking material was observed.

4.2.7 Future learning objectives in the studied classrooms

Table 4.8 Future learning objectives

Future Learning Goal	%	Specific examples
Communication	68.42%	Three learned English to communicate with NS (one with British, two with Americans).
Skill(s) identified as focus of learning	17.37%	In all, 22 named reading skills as focus of their future learning.
Exam(s)	7.37%	
Purpose/need-dependent	7.37%	Learning English for job, business, graduation, study, grades, and general use.
To acquire NES-(like) level of English	6.32%	Eight of twelve students (English Majors) indicate their learning target is to acquire NES-(like) competence.

This section considers students' future learning objectives, as demonstrated in Table 4.8. Respondents reported communicative use of English as their primary future learning objective. The percentage doing so (68.4%) was slightly lower than had done so for present goal (72.1% – see Table 4.3). There was a drop of 50 percentage points in the proportion of students stating learning for examinations as their future goal. This might indicate a shift in their desired learning goal from examination preparation towards communication-oriented learning. Likewise, the very few respondents who stated their future goal was to learn for communication purposes, specified that they wanted to learn basic, flexible, applicable and comprehensible English rather than NES English.

Approximately 7% of respondents agreed that learning goals were purpose-/need-oriented; their objectives were to fulfil job, study, graduation, language use requirement or business requirements. Lastly, a minority (12 students or 6.3%) indicated attaining NES (-like) English as their future learning goal. Most of these were English Majors, probably reflecting that their professional study/expertise is in English.

4.3 Questionnaire regarding Taiwanese teachers' perceptions of ELT: analysis of the second questionnaire

The next section investigates teachers' perceptions of English for the real-world communication. First, their background information is given. Then, analysis focuses on theories/concepts that informed teachers' practice, their understanding of teaching contexts, and their perceptions of classroom practices.

4.3.1 Teachers' background

Table 4.9 Teacher participants' background information

Teacher	Grace	Victor	Lindsay	Christy	Alex
Education and sojourner experience	PhD in L2 writing and literacy, the US	Linguistics, MA, Taiwan; 1 year exchange in the US	Translation and Interpretation, MA, the UK	Management, MSC, Taiwan; Translation and Interpretation, MA, the UK	TESOL MA, taking PhD in SLA, Taiwan
University	U1	U2	U2	U2	U3
Course	Oral Training 1, 2	Freshman English	Freshman English	Freshman English	Freshman English
Students' Majors	English	Non-English	Non-English	Non-English	Non-English
Nationality	Taiwanese	Taiwanese	Taiwanese	Taiwanese	Taiwanese

Table 4.9 summarises the teachers' background information, focusing on their expertise as well as the courses that they taught. Participants included two males and three females, all full-time teachers were in their late twenties to early forties. Teachers were assigned the pseudonyms Grace, Victor, Lindsay, Christy and Alex to protect their identities (see Subsection 3.3.2). All identified themselves as Taiwanese teachers of English, who speak Mandarin and/or Taiwanese as a native language(s), confirming that English is not their mother tongue. These teachers are the individuals who are interviewed and observed as part of the current study. They were given the survey to complete while the researcher was carrying out her initial classroom observations. Furthermore, in order to understand the context in which they were working, and because the teachers were all unknown to this researcher, it was deemed appropriate to ask them to complete the questionnaire before holding the interview. The schedule of questions for the questionnaire survey was based on the literature review themes and also information about the curriculum and other documents that some of the settings provided. These teachers and the students were sharing the community in which the teaching and learning were taking place so the questions asked to both parties were focussing on the same activities and materials, etc. but evidently were approached by the two sides from entirely different perspectives.

4.3.2 Theories and concepts adopted to support teaching practice

Table 4.10 shows the theories or concepts that inform the teachers' teaching practice.

Table 4.10 Summary of teacher participants' key theories/concepts of teaching

Teacher	Key theory or concept to inform teaching
Grace	CLT, Whole Language, Social Constructionism
Victor	I try to encourage students to speak, not to be afraid of making mistakes
Lindsay	CLT
Christy	When I plan oral training for my students, I don't have those courses or theories/concepts in mind.
Alex	Listening, Speaking, SLA, Form-focus instruction

Table 4.10 shows that teachers prioritised methodology-related theories/concepts, such as Second Language Acquisition (SLA), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Whole Language Teaching (WL), Social Constructionism, and Natural Approach, as well as listening and speaking training. Two teachers indicated CLT and how to teach skills as key teaching approaches. SLA and ELT-related theories/concepts were identified as the second and third most useful. Teachers affirmed the usefulness of SLA theories, such as form-focus instruction, "error treatment" in language teaching, and language input and output. For instance, Victor emphasized how he encourages his students, allowing them 'to speak and not to be afraid of making mistakes'. Alex and Victor both regarded how to make teaching listening and speaking useful, showing the skill-based approach to teaching. Christy mentioned no particular teaching theory/concept supported her teaching. She explained, 'when I plan oral training for my students, I don't have those courses or theories/concepts in mind'. It is possible that Christy took an open approach to teaching, allowing incorporation of myriad theories in accordance with teaching/learning purposes. From the information she gave in the survey, it is clear that she has had no ELT/TESOL training, perhaps leading to her uncertainty about answering using ELT/TESOL terminology. Most teachers referred to multiple useful theories concerning ELT/SLA apart from Lindsay and Christy. It seems that Grace, Victor and Alex's teaching theories were more related to conventional ELT/TESOL teacher training (methodology, SLA or ELT-related modules) thus suggesting that traditional approaches were helping to form their theory for classroom practice.

4.3.3 University syllabi and language policies

In this section, I discuss teachers' teaching practice in relation to the curriculum in their contexts. This section begins by looking at medium of instruction to explore available language use resources inside of the classroom. Table 4.11 shows how teachers use English to teach.

Table 4.11 Percentage of teaching practice in English language

Teacher	Participants' self- identification	Researcher's observation
Grace	100%	100%
Victor	60%	45%
Lindsay	80%	98%
Christy	40%	55%
Alex	70%	95%

Teachers were asked to estimate the percentage of time they used English and Mandarin to teach. The ratio of teaching in English ranged from 40-100% (Table 4.11). The findings show a trend toward use of English over Mandarin, with most respondents using English as their primary instruction medium. Only Christy thought Mandarin was her prime language of instruction. Teachers' self-reported values did not always correspond to what this researcher saw in each of these teachers' lessons during the three-month period of classroom observations (See chapter 6). For instance, Victor was observed using English to teach 20-25% less frequently than he claimed. Conversely, 98% of Alex's teaching was in

English, based on my observation, compared to his claim of 70%. Similarly, Lindsay and Christy were both observed using English 15% more of the time than they stated.

Actual use of English may have differed from the values shown in Table 4.11 given the limitations of teachers and this researcher's retrospective estimation and memory. Teachers' estimation may have been also influenced by contextual factors, such as their degree of conformity to the university syllabus requirements. U1 and U2's language syllabi stipulated the language(s) of instruction, including those for English language courses. Grace explained that her whole-English teaching was due to the English-only policy of U1's Foreign Language Department. Similarly, Lindsay explained, 'based on U2's curriculum, 80% of lectures are supposed to be in English for students of level B, 60% for students of level C', meaning 60% of Christy and Lindsay's teaching and 80% of Victor's delivery should have been in English because they are teaching level B students who are not English Majors. U3 did not have any guidelines concerning English as the primary language of instruction and in this study applied to classes involving non-English Majors. By contrast in U3, Alex's teaching showed remarkable consistency with the concept of target language only usage in the English language classroom even though the university had made no directions regarding the use of English for teaching. These results show various levels of conformity to syllabi concerning language(s) for instruction.

Inside these teachers' classrooms, Mandarin and English was used for instruction but with varied frequency, and in dissimilar quantity, for different functions, and to different student groups. The teachers stated in their questionnaire responses that their Mandarin-English code-switching was aimed at ensuring students' comprehension of teaching content. They also indicated that they used Mandarin to teach grammar and vocabulary as well as to manage the class, such as making announcements and grouping students. For example, Alex emphasised that '…it (the use of Mandarin) saves me some time to explain vocabulary; paraphrasing is more pedagogically desirable, but it just takes too much time and it does not guarantee full comprehension'. Christy also explained that, 'my students' English proficiency is not high enough. I need to constantly rely on Mandarin.' These examples illustrate teachers' recognition of Mandarin's pedagogical functions in ELT and their ambivalence towards whole-English classes. In response to the open-ended question about languages for instruction in use, the teachers failed to mention any other contextual and linguistic resources to assist in teaching English for communication.

As indicated, the use of Mandarin and/or English is context-dependent. For the majority of teachers, it was essential to use English as a classroom lingua franca, because among the five teachers, only Alex never had to teach international students. Lindsay and Christy used English more than Mandarin. They used it as a classroom lingua franca for intercultural exchanges in light of their international students' (lack of) Mandarin proficiency. Christy also stated that she used Mandarin due to the fact that some Taiwanese students with limited English language proficiency were unable to understand her teaching

in English. This result suggests that the Taiwanese teacher's English serves as the major English language input resource through lectures.

In response to the question about another curricular agency (i.e. tests), four of the teachers understood their students' English requirements for graduation. They also knew which English language proficiency tests granted them exemption from the mandatory English language courses. University websites also listed certain scores in TOEFL, IELTS, TOEIC, or the GEPT (General English Proficiency Test: national English language proficiency test). Only Grace was uncertain.

Regarding textbooks, four teachers claimed that they could select the textbook and went on to explain their textbook selection criteria. Grace was not allowed to choose the textbook for her classes. Knowing whether or not the teacher can make this decision is important because if they can make their own selection, they may or may not be inclined towards adopting a resource that is more focussed on communication. The results to this question showed the following. The criteria by which teachers selected textbooks are listed in order of the most frequently mentioned aspect: 'interesting, motivational' topic(s) or content, 'interactive' exercise, activities, or discussion, 'authentic, practical, or colloquial' use of English, and 'four-skills' training. It appears a range of different criteria were used by these teachers to evaluate and choose textbooks and none of the criteria is directly addressing resources to support English for communication. Aside from textbooks, all teachers indicated the use of the following supplementary resources in decreasing order of frequent use: English language learning magazines, test preparation textbooks, grammar/writing-related textbooks, online news, YouTube, TV series, and films. Teachers prioritised English language learning magazines and test preparation materials as primary and secondary supplementary resources. Students also listed English language learning magazines as the main supplementary resource (see Subsection 4.2.5). Although teachers did not recognise that test preparation textbooks were used as one of the main supplementary materials, their students identified such materials as being used by teachers to develop listening (see Subsection 4.2.6).

4.3.4 Classroom practices for communication purposes

Table 4.12 Summary of teaching principles of teacher participants to teach English for communication

Teacher	Perceptions and beliefs
Grace	Provide them an authentic context for speaking. The topics discussed should be related to their lives or current engagement. That way, they can get more actively engaged in the context.
Victor	To encourage students to speak, not to be afraid of making mistakes
Lindsay	Listening and speaking
Christy	Listening comprehension, more chances to speak
Alex	Pair/group work; Listening strategies, communicative strategies

Table 4.12 shows which fundamental aspects of ELT for communication teachers prioritised. The consensus among five teachers is that communication involves speaking as well as listening, despite the fact that listening comes second in teaching English for communication. These teachers were not explicit about how listening and speaking interacts to aid or hinder communicative language use in classroom practices in their questionnaire responses. The section below considers teachers' use of activities to develop students' speaking ability (Table 4.13).

Table 4.13 The most frequently used speaking activities

Teacher	**Speaking activities**
Grace	Ask students to answer questions/asking students to clarify or explain/lead classroom discussion.
Victor	I didn't put too much emphasis on speaking this semester, but I use role play to train their speaking.
Lindsay	Information gap
Christy	Speech and presentations
Alex	Group/pair work

Frequently adopted classroom activities for oral training included: group/pair work, role play, Q&A between teacher/student and/or among students, group discussion, conversation, speech, presentations, and information gap. In general, the speaking activities that the teachers listed can be classified as teacher-student interaction, student-student interaction, and individual speaking practice that moves toward student-centred training. Unsurprisingly, the teachers' role in speaking training was initiating speaking tasks (e.g. discussion), asking questions, providing information, and assessing students' speaking. It seems that teachers' reasons for the choice of the speaking activities they use were more focused on developing students' speaking ability and less about how the activities can help teachers teach English for communication or help students learn it. Teachers tended to focus on teaching for learning and were not explicit about whether they aimed to teach for language use.

Table 4.14 below shows the most frequently used listening activities.

Table 4.14 The most-frequently used listening activities

Teacher	**Listening activities**
Grace	N/A
Victor	I design questions for them to answer while listening to a reading passage. The questions can help them to focus on listening, and help them know better 'what to listen to.'
Lindsay	Note-taking
Christy	Listening quizzes
Alex	Predicting, anticipating, and inferencing can be quite helpful for them to cope with comprehension questions

Table 4.14 shows the most frequently used listening activities employed by teachers to train students' listening. In contrast to oral training, teachers took a dissimilar approach to listening development of students. Alex indicated his teaching focused on students' listening skills: e.g. predicting, anticipating,

and inferencing. Victor wrote his own listening materials to guide students' focused listening to a text. Grace gave no opinions on teaching listening, probably because she did not teach it. Most teaching focused primarily on while-listening tasks but Victor used comprehension questioning as a pre-listening activity to assist listening for specific information or items heard and then checked back. It seems teachers' use of these activities focused on students writing down what they heard as the products of learning, rather than using activities to engage students in responding to what they have heard, which is more associated with the process of learning. Thus, to gain a better understanding of how students learn listening for communication, it is necessary to look at how students respond to what they hear. The next section explores teachers' ideas about how they anticipated students applying their learned English to real-world communication in the future.

Table 4.15 Teachers' views on students' learning and future use of English

Teacher	Perceptions and beliefs
Grace	I hope they can use English to think and to communicate comfortably in their future workplaces or study.
Victor	I think the ultimate goal of my teaching is to cultivate their interests in English, I hope that after they leave my class, they would really spend their own time learning English spontaneously.
Lindsay	Get a job, go travelling, and study abroad.
Christy	Use for workplace communication or communicating with outsiders. Inspire them to learn/love English even if English courses are no longer compulsory.
Alex	For pleasure and academic purposes

Table 4.15 indicates teachers' ideas of what they anticipated students do with their English language outside the classroom. As to language use, Grace, Lindsay and Christy expected their students to use English at work for communicative purposes and to pursue a career. Grace, Lindsay, and Alex believed that their students might use English for academic purposes or further study in other countries. Grace and Christy supposed that their students would use English to communicate. Grace did not specify with whom her students would use English. Lindsay thought her students would probably use it when travelling. Apart from language use, teachers expected students to continue learning English. Victor, Christy, and Alex hoped their teaching could help students maintain such an interest. Victor, Lindsay, and Alex hoped that their teaching had made students sufficiently interested in English to carry this on in the future.

4.4 Questionnaire: outcomes and discussion

In 4.4.1, I summarise the outcomes of two questionnaire surveys. Referring back to the literature in Chapter 2, I consider the assumptions about EFL contexts, teaching, and learning. After that, I discuss the outcomes of questionnaire survey analysis in order to understand my research context as well as consider the implications of these two surveys for collecting and analysing interview and classroom observation data.

4.4.1 Outcomes of the questionnaires

I have analysed two questionnaire surveys and presented the analysis in Sections 4.2 and 4.3 above. From this analysis, six key issues are emergent. I present the analysis of two questionnaire surveys in Table 4.16 (see Appendix 4.2), illustrating six emergent issues. Some of the issues relate to the contexts in which teaching and learning practices are investigated and others pertain to the practices. This aims to understand participants' teaching and learning English for communication at theoretical and practical levels. Having gained awareness of these emergent issues, the focus of the interviews and observation fieldwork can be honed in an appropriate direction.

The first issue targeting the conditional situation for the teaching of English for communication is concerned about the circumstances under which teaching and learning English for communication might take place and why. The second issue is about the identification of the primary available linguacultural resources for input in the studied contexts. The third issue pertains to beliefs about English language use in the real world and addresses how teachers and students conceptualise lingua franca communicative competence. Fourthly, the issue of textbooks and materials considers the how teachers and students select and use the available textbooks/materials and the underlying theories that support their choices and use. Under the heading classroom practices, it is possible to explore whether or not teachers and students' linguacultural awareness or knowledge is incorporated into their practices to reproduce or resist the presented linguacultural resources. Lastly, the matter of teacher training relates to the theories and ideas of teaching and practice that aid or hinder teaching English, and whether or not this relates to communicative purposes.

The outcomes of the questionnaire surveys (i.e. six pedagogical issues listed in Appendix 4.2) are discussed below in relation to the three curricular agencies that decide curriculum, namely, institutes (which includes their policy), teachers, and textbooks (Brown, 2012). I apply this to the discussion below because the curriculum is usually developed under assumptions about English language and its use, teaching and learning, and the resources available for classroom practices (Brown, 2012; McKay, 2003; Richards, 2010). This discussion focuses on addressing these assumptions identified in the literature review (Sections 2.3, 2.6, 2.8 and Subsection 2.2.3) to avoid simply reproducing them in this current study. By doing this, I can also gain contextual information about what linguacultural materials and listening and speaking activities are utilised to learn/teaching English for communication. Lastly, this information helps my research focus on pedagogical issues which are related to linguacultural dominance and the forms of responses given to it by teachers and students. In sum, the analysis of the two surveys is important because the data enable me to understand whether or not teachers and students teach and learn for communication and/or other purposes. In addition, the information on the primary resources available for classroom practices also allows me to investigate teachers and students' conceptualisation of the available linguacultural resources, theories used to support the selection and

use of these resources (see chapter 5) and teachers and students' actual use of these resources and its impact on their teaching and learning inside the classrooms (see chapter 6) from an ELF perspective.

4.4.2 Questionnaire surveys: discussion

Referring back to Section 2.6, one assumption found in reviewed studies is the examination-oriented curriculum in the Taiwanese EFL context (Chen and Tsai, 2012) which results in researchers overlooking the possibility of teaching and learning for multiple purposes in EFL contexts. Another assumption is that the curriculum determines the introduction of one variety of English into students, showing the lack of students' exposure to other kinds of English (Matsuda and Friedrich, 2012; D'Angelo, 2012; Chang, 2008; Chang, Y., 2014) (see Sections 2.3 and 2.6). Thirdly, the dominance of NES linguacultural norms and resources is claimed to prevail in teaching contexts (Alsagoff et al., 2012; Jenkins, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Matsuda, 2012a; Sharifian, 2009). However, little literature provides evidence on how the dominance of NES is formed and becomes prevalent, i.e. through which linguacultural resources, under which teaching/learning circumstances, and why this happens. It is contended here that it is important to address these underlying issues before undertaking my main investigation into the linguacultural dominance of English that is carried out through holding interviews and observing classroom practice in order to avoid reproducing the problems found in the extant literature. Firstly, collecting in the questionnaire survey data about the key linguacultural resources used for learning and teaching is useful because it allows me to focus specifically on the key forms of resources and inputs that may lead to linguacultural reproduction occurring as a result of there being linguacultural dominance. Secondly, the information about the adopted learning models and materials might point towards potential sources of linguacultural dominance. Finally, the questionnaire data assist in clarifying the ideas and activities employed in materials-based teaching/learning that serve to introduce and potentially reinforce the NES form of English inside classrooms.

4.4.2.1 Context: conditional learning and teaching situations and institutional decisions in the university sites

One pedagogical decision made by the institutes is setting English language proficiency requirements for the student participants to pursue in their undergraduate studies. Thus students may prioritise English language proficiency tests as a learning goal along with learning English to communicate. As discussed in Sections 2.4 and 2.6, scholars from the fields of ELF, applied linguistics and Taiwanese policy contexts have criticized the custom of setting English language proficiency requirements for graduation on the grounds that it encourages students and teachers to teach and learn English for the examination, rather than for communication purposes (Chen and Tsai, 2012). According the analysis of the student questionnaire survey data, about 72% of them, especially English Majors, desire to learn English for communication (see Table 4.3 in Subsection 4.2.3) with up to 68% of these students wishing to learn English for communication via their current English courses (see Table 4.8 in Subsection 4.2.7).

For these 190 surveyed students, learning English for examination and communication is not necessarily contradictory as some researchers have claimed. As for the teachers, four out of five anticipate their current teaching will help students use English for various communicative purposes. Overall, despite the examination-based curriculum, overall, it appears that teachers and students still wish to teach and learn English for communication.

The policy of the investigated institutes in two cases (U1 and U2) promoted an "English-only" or "English-primary" approach to teaching English (see Table 4.11). The heavy reliance of Grace, Lindsay and Alex on their English to teach is in alignment with their institutional prescribed target language only policy. Target language input is an approach based on an assumption about language learning through maximising students' exposure to English presented in the classroom (Ellis, 2012). Regarding this, the students reported that their most important learning models, resources (see Subsection 4.2.5) and teaching are all textbook- or material-based (see Subsection 4.2.6). As Canagarajah (1999:144) has argued 'English-only' conventions combined with a lack of critical language awareness may lead to the reinforcement of certain monolingual forms of English, such as the teachers' English or the NES English that is presented in materials. This implies that the instructional language (English) is likely to focus students' attention acutely on the English language resources provided by teachers or through the teachers' textbook-based teaching. Moreover, delivering classes through the English only medium by Taiwanese teachers could allow little space for alternative kinds of spoken English (e.g. that of the students) or ways of learning and using English.

Regarding this and to achieve a critical examination of curriculums, Brown (2012) advocates an ELF as an effective approach to take to challenge ELT. In keeping with this view, it is clear that it is important to investigate whether the teachers and students in the three universities evaluate the linguacultural representation in materials particularly when deciding on the input for delivery as well as how the linguacultural perspectives drawn upon by teachers and students to evaluate these materials are consistent with ELF. To probe this, teachers and students are interviewed about their beliefs about the linguacultural representations in their chosen materials which prompt their decisions (see chapter 5), and actual practices demonstrated in classroom sessions (see chapter 6).

4.4.2.2 Practice: the interaction of teachers, materials and students

Another two curricular agencies, teachers and textbooks are discussed along with students' perspectives because the three interact to create learning opportunities (Ellis, 2012). From the discussion on the conditional context presented above, and the results of the questionnaires administered to participants, it has emerged that the linguacultural resources for input are primarily teachers' English and the English language and cultures presented in the chosen materials. This is because the teachers were encouraged to use English to deliver and their teaching depended on the materials that they brought to the classes. Given that teachers are NNES and their teaching is material-based, resources/input received by students

are very likely to be NES dominant. From this it is essential to look at how the chosen materials are evaluated as primary input resources and the underlying theories that participants use to support this evaluation.

In the data, it was reported that the five teacher participants tended to consider listening/speaking skills as useful for communication (see Table 4.12) and they anticipated their students were learning to use English to communicate for various purposes (Subsection 4.3.4). To understand how these five practitioners teach English for communication, it is necessary to look at the teaching and learning of listening and speaking, despite these two skills being identified as the least taught in the Taiwanese ELE system, both by students (Subsection 4.2.6) and by scholars (Chen and Tsai, 2012; Ke, 2012b).

The data also shows that listening and speaking training remains material-based (see Table 4.7) and that teachers tend to use certain listening/speaking materials from the textbooks (Subsection 4.2.6) and some other activities (Subsection 4.3.4) to provide this training. One question arising from this result that requires further exploration concerns the nature of the English and the cultures presented to students by their teachers and in their textbooks. As discussed in the literature review, textbooks can determine the content of teaching (Akbari, 2008a, 2008b) and it is necessary to note that teachers' pre-existing beliefs about linguacultural representation help them decide on what to teach and how (Subsection 2.3.1). Likewise, students' beliefs about the received linguacultural resources tend to determine the ways in which English is learned (Section 2.4). It follows that it is necessary to grasp teachers and students' beliefs about the available linguacultural resources in the textbooks so as to understand their views on the linguacultural content. Further, comprehending use of the chosen linguacultural resources in listening and speaking activities is important. For capturing the former, I interview teachers and students to understand their rationales and for the latter, I observe classroom practice.

Lastly, in the literature review the work of Kumaravadivelu (2003:538) was examined and his claim that the 'concept of method as the organizing principle for L2 teaching and teacher education' was noted. Table 4.10 presents the five teachers' responses to my open-ended question about useful teaching methods/approaches supporting their teaching. None of them mentioned any sociolinguistics-related concept or theory in relation to teaching, such as World Englishes (WE) or English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). This may be due to the absence of ELF-related input in teacher education (see Subsection 2.3.2) and/or the fact that two of these teachers said that they had not received teacher education (see Subsection 4.3.2). This lack of insight regarding theory or methodologies reported in the survey underlines the importance of looking at teachers' approaches to teaching English for communication purposes.

4.5 Chapter summary

The analysis and presentation of two questionnaire surveys have helped me understand under which circumstances linguacultural dominance may occur and the issues arising from this understanding can be taken forward for further examination in the following chapters. The information obtained from these two surveys has also given a picture of the research contexts in which the teaching and learning to be investigated takes place. In the next chapter, chapter 5, the interview data are presented and analysed.

Chapter 5 Interviews with teachers and students

5.1 Introduction

In chapter 4, I analysed the two questionnaire surveys and discussed the results. As indicated in Subsection 4.4.2.2, some specific topics are explored in greater detail through holding interviews with student and staff participants. To this end, in this chapter I present the analyses of interview data captured from five teachers and 28 of their students. The analyses focus on the aspects of which English and cultures are chosen for teaching and learning, and which linguacultural resources are used in which teaching/learning circumstances as well as how this is achieved. This chapter aims to provide some insights into teacher and students' conceptualisation of listening and speaking training, the available linguacultural resources for the aforementioned training, and the theories and ideas underpinning the teaching and learning of speaking and listening when using available materials for communicative purposes.

As stated in chapter 3, I conducted five one-to-one semi-structured interviews with teachers. These interviews took place after carrying out two observations of each one's teaching. The justification for this arrangement is as follows. Firstly, it enabled me to revise my interview guide according to each practitioner's specific teaching contexts and practice. Secondly, my questions concerning teacher and student beliefs about English language and its use could be modified appropriately, that is, in light of what emerged from the observed context and practice-related teaching and learning. This decision is in keeping with maintaining an open approach to fieldwork where flexibility allows the researcher to respond to research contexts (Subsection 3.2.2). With regards to student participants, I only interviewed those students whom I observed in the classes with the five teachers. For this research, 28 students participated in my interviews either individually or in groups (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1 The information about student interviewees who learned English from the five teachers

Teacher	Grace's students	Christy's students	Lindsay's students	Victor's students	Alex's students
One-to-one	2	4	4	2	3
Group	2	0	0	2	1
Total Interviewees	6	4	4	8	6
Sum	20 interviews with students were conducted, including 15 one-to-one and 5 group interviews. Altogether, 28 students joined my interviews.				

Appendix 5.1 explains the use of a transcription convention system to represent extracts. To address ethical considerations (see Subsection 3.8.2), pseudonyms for teachers (e.g. Grace and Victor) and their students, (e.g. GS1 and VS1) have been adopted throughout. Appendix 5.2 contains examples of shortened interview transcripts: one with a teacher and another with a student. In this chapter, I first consider how thematic content analysis was employed to analyse the participants' narratives and how

the interviews were coded (see Subsection 3.8.1). Subsequently, the analysis of the interviews is presented.

5.2 Thematic content coding and analysis

By drawing on the reviewed literature, Silverman's (2006) advice regarding content analysis, as well as the results of the questionnaires in chapter 4, I established a framework to analyse the interview data. First, I looked back at the issues emerging from the questionnaire data and noted that curricular decisions associated with the ELT contexts in which classroom incidents take place could help to shape ideas regarding teaching and learning (see Appendix 4.2). These had been identified by student participants in the survey as forming three major linguacultural input resources and models (Subsection 4.2.5). In addition, listening and speaking training were identified by teachers as the most relevant classroom practices concerning English for communication in their survey (Subsection 4.4.2.2). Initially, matters relating to the former were grouped under the main theme *ELT and learning contexts*. Then I listed under the theme of *teaching practices* the subcategories pertaining to the realisation of listening and speaking training and the rationale for these.

During the charting phase, I re-grouped the (sub) topics in accordance with similar meanings from teacher and students' perspectives. Through the first stage of coding 31 subthemes emerged and these were organised into six main subthemes (Appendix 3.4). Referring to the findings taken from chapter 4 that NES dominance mainly exists in textbooks, I re-coded these 31 items and this stage focused on materials-related topics that address the curricular and pedagogical decisions. These also focussed on teachers' theories that they used to underpin their selecting and use of textbooks and as well as students' perceptions of the received linguacultural input. I cross referenced the codes of the teacher interviews with those of the student interviews. Checking the emergent common themes supported the interpretation of each data set and thus achieved triangulation which helped ensure consistence and robustness of the analysis (Section 3.1). Three main themes and six subthemes were the final product of this coding process and these are displayed in Table 5.2 below.

In brief, theme 1, ELT contexts, addresses the curriculum. Theme 2 focuses on materials and covers participants' conceptualisation of linguacultural resources in the materials regarding teaching and learning in relation to the real-world communication. Theme 3, principles of using materials to teach/learn, pertains to how teachers and students evaluate their use of chosen resources or materials to implement classroom practices. The three themes are linked in the following way and are thus treated in this order in this chapter. Theme 1 offers contextual description that assists with the interpretation of themes 2 and 3. Theme 2 provides theoretical background to support the interpretation of theme 3. Accordingly, theme 3 can be considered as a synthesis of the preceding themes as I contend that pedagogical decisions on what to teach/learn and how this is achieved are determined by teaching

contexts (Johnson, 1995) as well as teachers and students' beliefs about the available and potential input materials (Richards, 1998).

Table 5.2 The themes applied in the analysis of the interview data

ELT contexts	**Materials**
1. Curriculum • Orientations of university curriculum • Decisions on textbooks	**2. Teaching/learning materials** • Perspectives on linguacultural representation • Real-world English versus English presented in the classroom
3. Principles of using materials to teach/learn • Teachers' perspectives on using linguacultural input resources • Students' perspectives on using linguacultural input resources	

Below I present the outcomes regarding the interview data analysis. The chapter outline is as follows. The curriculum is covered in Section 5.3, materials are considered in Section 5.4 and the principles of using the chosen materials to teach and learn are addressed in Section 5.5. For each theme, first the data captured from teachers is analysed and this is followed by data collected from the student participants.

5.3 ELT contexts: Curriculum

I present the analysis of orientations of university curriculums in Subsection 5.3.1, assessing whether or not the curriculum or syllabus is communication-based so as to support teaching and learning. Given that textbooks serve as one of the major input resources as discussed in Section 2.5 and in the survey in Subsection 4.2.5, I consider in detail in Subsection 5.3.2 the textbooks decided on by the university authorities or the teachers themselves in order to identify what these demonstrate regarding teaching and learning.

5.3.1 Orientations of university curriculum

In Subsection 4.2.6, teaching English for communication was identified by the teachers, but it remains to be seen whether in fact listening and speaking training is actually incorporated into classroom practices. Whether or not teaching and learning English promotes or hinders communication is gauged according to whether teacher and student decisions encourage or discourage listening and speaking training. The results provide insights into the focus of the curriculum, revealing whether or not teachers and students decide to teach and learn English with communicative language use, under the prevailing (non)-communication-based curriculum regime.

5.3.1.1 Teachers' orientations

According to the five teachers' responses, the curriculums in U1, U2, and U3 are skills based and indicate the different skills that each university curriculum aims to focus on. Table 5.3 below illustrates the skill(s) that each university claims to focus on for the following courses: Oral Training 1 (OT1

henceforth), Oral Training 2 (OT2 henceforth), and Freshmen English (FE henceforth).

Table 5.3 The orientations of university curriculum according to the teachers' interview data

University	**Skills in the Curriculums**
OT1 and OT2 in U1 (English Majors)	Speaking
FE in U2 Non- English Majors	Reading
FE in U3 Non-English Majors	Listening and speaking

Table 5.3 shows that the university curriculum, decided top-down by the university powers, supports teachers' wishes to teach listening and/or speaking for communication in U1 and U3 as these two skills are prioritised. When teachers decide to teach showing conformity to the university curriculums, they might be developing students' listening and/or speaking for communicative language use. However, in the case of U2, the reading-based curriculum probably fails to give teachers any scope for teaching listening and speaking for communication. In U2, teachers need to decide to teach listening and/or speaking instead of or in addition to the prescribed reading. Under any of the described teaching scenarios, apart from the curriculum specifications, each teacher's choice becomes crucial. Table 5.4 below illustrates the skill(s) that each teacher claimed to prioritise and the rationales for their decisions, as discussed in the interviews.

Table 5.4 Summary of the skill(s) focussed on and rationales for choosing them

Teacher	Skill(s) focus and the rationale for focus of teaching
Grace in U1	**Speaking:** 1. **Speaking** training is the focus of pre-determined syllabi provided by her department. 2. This syllabus and **textbooks** provide activities to facilitate students' speaking. 3. Grace agrees that OT1 and OT2 give students opportunities to speak to convey meaning.
Christy in U2	**Four skills:** 1. **The available materials** are four-skill based. 2. **Listening** is the first step for students to respond in English to communicate. 3. Students need training to assist them in communicative uses.
Lindsay in U2	**Four skills:** 1. There are good four-skill **materials** for her to choose and use. 2. Teaching four skills gives students balanced skill-based training. 3. There was insufficient speaking training for students at the secondary level. 4. She believes that giving students opportunities for and getting them to become used to **listening to and speaking** English is her way to prepare students for use of English in the future.
Victor in U2	**Reading: 1.** He decides to teach students reading because of the university curriculum. 2. He assumes his students have had insufficient listening training so they need it. 3. He wanted to make good use of learning **materials**. 4. He emphasized speaking is not prioritised. 5. He indicated that teaching English for communication is an ambitious objective for a three-hour a week FE course.
Alex in U3	**Speaking and listening:** 1. Emphasizing **listening and speaking** corresponds to the university curriculum. 2. He decided to teach students speaking in order to establish students' confidence with use of English. 3. Teaching/learning **materials** are available for this training.

Table 5.4 shows that, overall, each teacher chose to focus on listening, speaking, or listening as well as speaking. These teachers' decisions establish a link to communication-based pedagogy as was noted in Subsection 4.4.2 of the survey analysis. In other words, their choices to teach listening and/or speaking open up the possibility of English for communication-aware pedagogy, despite the fact that the curriculum in U2 does not readily support this. Teachers also cited other reasons for choosing listening and/or speaking. That is, students' needs in terms of communication. For instance, Grace reported that

she was teaching speaking because she adheres to her department syllabi but she also commented that 'this course is an opportunity for students to practice speaking English for communication'. In U2, Christy claimed that 'listening to understand is the first step to help students communicate' and that students need to practice speaking English for communication. Lindsay argued that creating opportunities for students to listen to and speak English is the main objective of her teaching in order to let her students 'get used to listening to and speaking English' for future uses, such as studying abroad. In U3, Alex decided to teach speaking in order to enhance the students' confidence in their English usage. By contrast, Victor's choices regarding teaching listening are more related to carrying out skills-balanced teaching and making the best use of the chosen textbook, rather than communicative language use. As he said, 'teaching English for communication is currently not my goal'.

In addition, the availability of materials also shapes these teachers' pedagogical decisions on which skill(s) to teach. They have textbooks to support them when teaching listening and/or speaking. Victor indicated he can make use of the audio CDs of the chosen textbook, even though this text is not primarily listening-based. Only Lindsay does not have these kinds of materials but she draws upon other resources (Subsection 5.4.2.1). The kinds of materials selected for teaching listening and speaking are considered in more detail below in Subsection 5.4.2.

Above, it can be seen that all teachers chose to give students listening/speaking training, that is, English for communication (Subsection 4.3.4). In other words, teachers' decisions to teach listening and/or speaking created the opportunities for communication-aware training. Next, I consider students' perspectives on the curricular decisions pertaining to aiding or hindering their learning English for communication.

5.3.1.2 Students' orientations

Referring to the points raised above, it emerged that English Majors in U1 and non-English Majors in U3 learn communication-aware skills because their particular curriculum is listening and/or speaking-based. In the case of U2, non-English Majors still learn English for communication because their teachers decided to include listening and/or speaking in spite of the university curriculum being reading-based. In contrast with teachers' good understanding of university curriculums, all 28 students stated that they did not know the specified orientations of their university curriculum. However, all of them knew that the FE course for non-English Majors and OT1 and OT2 for English Majors were compulsory elements.

In U1, all the English Majors agreed that they knew they needed to pass OT1 and OT2 in order to graduate. Despite this motivator, the interviewees did not rule out communication as a reason for learning English. GS1 commented that 'it would be better if what is learned in the university can be useful outside'. All these participants' responses largely concurred. Their reported purpose for learning

speaking from OT1 and OT2 corresponded with their communication-based learning goal reported in the survey (Subsection 4.2.3) and their anticipation of what they want to learn from the courses (Subsection 4.2.7).

Many of the 22 non-English Majors in U2 and U3 reported that the Freshmen English course was compulsory so obtaining the credit(s) from this course was a priority. As VS1 mentioned, 'if we (non-English Majors in U2) fail this course, we have to re-take the course or attend the supplementary course in our third or fourth year in order to graduate'. Another reason given by some non-English Majors for not learning English for communication is that they do not have this need and there are no immediate contexts for them to use English in. For instance, AS1 indicates 'learning English does not necessarily guarantee that I can use it…and even if I learn how to use English, I don't need to use English to communicate now and I have no communicative occasions for me to use English'. AS1's point suggests that English for communication is not necessarily an achievable target or a priority for the FE course students. It appears from the interviews for non-English Majors, the key motive for learning English is to graduate, with their communicating being secondary. This result contradicted the student survey where 68.52% of respondents identified English for communication as one of their present learning goals (Subsection 4.2.3) and as priorities for both the OT and FE courses (Subsection 4.2.7).

It is evident that the interviewed English Majors' decisions regarding learning speaking are consistent with Grace's teaching objective (Subsection 4.3.4), this teacher's practice (Subsection 5.4.1.1) as well as the focus of their university curriculum (U1). On the contrary, in U3 non-English Majors' learning, according to their responses was not so communication-oriented, which is inconsistent with the communication-oriented curriculum (Subsection 5.4.1.1), but still in U3, Alex's teaching objective is communication oriented. (Subsections 4.3.4 and 5.4.1.1). In U2, students' learning and the university curriculum did not seem to be communication-oriented. Among the teachers in U2, Christy and Lindsay's pedagogical decisions on teaching listening and speaking and resources were in fact geared towards communication skills training. Victor's decision to not offer speaking training but to include some listening also diverged from the prescribed curriculum.

When English Majors in U1 and non-English Majors in U2 and U3 were asked about the specific training necessary for learning English for communication, most confirmed that their teachers have the professional knowledge needed to make good pedagogical decisions for them. For instance, GS1 pointed out 'teachers have more ideas to help us speaking and listening'. Victor's student (VS1) indicated 'I think teacher (Victor) has better knowledge about and expertise in what students should learn than we (students) have'. From the students' points of view, their learning listening and speaking for communication was almost entirely teaching-dependent. When I asked them a further question about what skills are helpful to prepare them with English to use to communicate, the English Majors wanted to focus on learning speaking and the non-English Majors indicated that they wanted more listening

and speaking training to be able to communicate. The analysis above suggests students' beliefs about listening and speaking skills are fundamental to their learning English for communication. This result echoes teachers' view on teaching English for communication in Subsection 4.3.4.

The analysis above shows that not all student interviewees set out to learn English for communication which is contrary to the views collected in the questionnaire survey (Subsection 4.2.7). Regarding the English Majors' learning speaking for communication, this appears to be a decision reached by both the teacher as well as her students. The development of non-English Majors' learning for communication heavily relies on the decisions of the curriculum and teachers to give listening and/or speaking training. As regarding training for communication, both English and non-English Majors had limited knowledge about which training was helpful to assist them to learn English for communication and instead, they relied on their teachers' competency in this matter. Both the English Majors and non-English Majors will appear to still learn skills for communication, as long as their teachers put listening/speaking-based training into practice.

5.3.2 Decisions on textbooks

This section analyses how the textbooks are chosen for the classes in order to support listening and speaking training. Before presenting teacher and student perspectives on the chosen textbooks, I provide some background information about the texts used. Table 5.5 on p.83 lists the chosen textbooks for OT1 and OT2 in U1 as well as for FE in U2 and U3. The information summarised in Table 5.5 is used to interpret the analysis of evaluation and/or choices of textbooks and assists in my analysis of use of these materials that is presented later in chapter 6.

Table 5.5 The chosen textbooks

Course and Teacher	Whose choice	Skill(s)	Textbook	Publisher, Author(s), year of publication, and edition
OT 1, Grace	Department	speaking	*Communication: Made Simple*	Pearson Longman, Paulette Dale and James C. Wolf, 2006, The Third Edition
OT 2, Grace	Department	speaking	*Communicating Effectively in English: Oral communication for non-native speakers*	Heinel Cengage Learning, Patricia A. Porter and Margaret Grant, 1992, The Second Edition
FE, Christy	Teacher	all four skills	*American Headway 3*	Oxford University Press, Liz and John Soars, 2009, The Second Edition
FE, Lindsay	Teacher-following curricular guideline	reading	*Reading Explorer 3*	Heinel Cengage Learning, Nancy Douglas, 2010, The First Edition
FE, Victory	Teacher-following curricular guidelines	reading	*Reading Explorer 3*	Heinel Cengage Learning, Nancy Douglas, 2010, The First Edition
FE, Alex	Teacher	all four skills	*Smart Choice 2*	Oxford University Press, Ken Wilson, Student Book 2, 2007, The First Edition

5.3.2.1 Teachers' decisions

Table 5.5 indicates that Grace reported that the department chose the two speaking-based textbooks for her to use to teach OT1 and OT2. Unlike Grace, the four teachers of FE courses could choose their own text to use to teach listening and/or speaking. In U2, Christy selected a four-skill textbook, establishing a loose connection with the reading-based curriculum. In U3, Alex chose a four-skill textbook because of the listening and speaking-based curriculum, and the skills that he wanted to focus on. By contrast, Lindsay and Victor chose a reading-based textbook in full alignment with U2's reading-based curriculum. Regarding this, Lindsay explained 'I wanted to meet the university's requirements'. Although they chose textbooks that could not offer teachers direct support for delivering listening and/or speaking training, they both referred to other materials that they used for these purposes. Lindsay uses some additional textbooks and online materials and Victor explained that he used the American sitcom '*Friends*' and adapted the *Reading Explore 3* to write his own listening materials. From Lindsay and Victor's point of view, adapting materials and seeking alternative resources are necessary for teaching listening and speaking.

The rationales for choosing their textbooks are discussed next. All the teachers recognised that topics covered in texts and the skills that are addressed are the two major criteria to consider when choosing textbooks. If the chosen textbook is not listening/speaking-based, teachers (i.e. Lindsay and Victor) still

adapt the reading-based textbook or use supplements in order to achieve listening/speaking training. The above demonstrates these five teachers' level of determination to teach speaking and/or listening skills for communication because the chosen textbooks or, where necessary, the adapted and alternative materials that they employ in their classes, are listening and/or speaking-based.

5.3.2.2 Students' decisions

Regarding textbook choices, most students reported that they did not choose textbooks during the secondary as well as tertiary levels of their education. Only Victor's students indicated that he had offered them the opportunity to choose one from among three books that had been pre-selected by him. All the other interviewees' textbooks were either chosen by the department (i.e. for the English Majors in U1) or by their teachers (i.e. for the non-English Majors in U2 and U3). Thus, only a minority of students had any say in choosing the learning materials, and even then these were from some pre-selected options. Despite being offered the opportunity to choose their learning materials (textbook), Victor's students did not seem to appreciate it. Out of the eight of his students whom I interviewed, only one agreed that they should get involved in choosing and she was aware of the difficulties associated with putting this idea into practice. The others expressed the view that students do not need to choose or are not qualified to do this. For instance, one (VS2) indicated 'I just pay the money and get the book', showing his views regarding the irrelevance of learners being asked to evaluate resources before starting their course.

I asked about other resources provided by U1, U2, and U3 regarding developing the skills for listening and speaking. The available curricular resources for listening and speaking can be divided into: self-learning programmes, other additional English language courses, and listening and speaking with international students/staff.

The student interviewees indicated that their universities implemented self-learning programmes providing students with four-skills learning resources or test preparation materials. GS6, for instance, reported that 'the self-learning programme in U1 is optional for English Majors'. According to CS2, 'the self-learning programme is compulsory and constitutes 5% of the overall result of my learning from FE course. … It [using these resources] is just 5% so I use them only when I have time'. AS2 indicated that 'the self-learning programme is compulsory and self-learning constitutes 20% of my overall result of English learning from the FE course. There, they have plenty of test preparation materials for us to study but I think these may not be so helpful for communication. I don't go (to use the resources) often'. From the above, it appears that although the available resources are listening/speaking-related, both English and non-English Majors need to be self-motivated to use the curricular resources for self-listening and speaking training. AS2 and CS2's comment on self-learning resource suggests that non-English Majors in U2 and U3 may not use these resources on a regular basis partly because this does not necessarily help them to pass the FE course or is useful for communication

purposes. The further underlined the possibility that students rely on the resources from the OT and FE courses for improving their listening and speaking skills.

Secondly, it was reported that U1 had set up a common room (English Z) where English is used to interact among home and international students and staff. The interviews with the English Majors shows that they all used English with international visitors, staff and students, for various purposes, such as casual chat or organising events. One of Grace's students (GS2) said, 'I went to English Z and we had to use English especially when the foreign teachers were there'. U2 also implements a similar English learning programme (English C) where international students were recruited to practice speaking English with home students. Among my interviewees, not all of them joined this programme. As CS1 pointed out, 'I don't have confidence with my English. Even if I book in, I may not speak and may not be able to understand them [internationals]. Also, I am very busy with the main subject'. U3 does not provide non-English Majors any programme to listen and talk to international students, staff or visitors. Apart from U3, the universities established English language use contexts for students to practice their speaking. Moreover, it appears that English Majors tended to make good use of the opportunities to practice listening and speaking, but this type of arrangement is not necessarily a useful learning scenario for non-English Majors.

Thirdly, English Majors have other compulsory and optional English language courses to support their listening and speaking practices. GS3 pointed out that 'I had a listening course and other courses offering us opportunities to listen to and speak in class although they do not focus on speaking training'. The FE courses in U2 and U3 were the only English language courses to support this training, as LS1 reported, 'we had only three hours for learning English per week'. Clearly, English Majors gained more support to learn listening and speaking through a range of university supplementary courses.

This investigation of the data regarding the ELT contexts indicates that students generally did not choose materials for listening and speaking. English Majors thought the OT courses gave them their primary support for speaking practice and at the same time, they used language-based opportunities (e.g. associating with international peers) and the resources from other English language courses to facilitate their communication-aware skills. In contrast, non-English Majors' listening/speaking training appears to be heavily FE course-dependent because the self-learning programmes in U2 and U3 are not necessarily listening/speaking-focused. Moreover, not all of the interviewed students in U2 made the best use of the available additional opportunities to practice speaking English. English Majors along with their department and university have co-created more communication-focused ELT contexts in contrast to the non-English Majors working in conjunction with their teachers and universities.

Above, under the first analytical theme, ELT contexts, I have presented how communication-aware ELT contexts have been co-established based on the university curriculum, teachers' pedagogical

decisions, and students' reaction to educational provision. These features are revisited while I am discussing the next theme: materials.

5.4 Materials

Previously in Subsection 4.3.3, four out of the five teachers said they used English as the instruction medium to teach the OT1, OT2, and FE courses. Students also indicated their teachers and/or peers' English as a learning resource or model in the survey responses (Subsection 4.2.5). In this section of the chapter, the three major learning models/resources are addressed i.e. how English is presented in textbooks, spoken by teachers, and produced and used by students. They constitute the key learning and teaching materials. Materials form the basis for this element of my thematic analysis because teachers and students' use of English to teach and learn listening and speaking are, as previously mentioned, materials-dependent. In other words, they are dependent on what is brought to the classroom. Recall that the linguacultural dimension refers to the linguistic and the cultural knowledge being transmitted in the materials in use.

The section commences with teachers' perspectives on linguacultural dimensions of the English language resources presented in textbooks/materials, teachers' English language resources, and English spoken by students. I then move on to consider students' resources/materials. After this I discuss teachers and students' evaluation of the linguacultural representations in relation to their perception of the linguacultural reality of real world communication.

5.4.1 Perspectives on linguacultural representation in materials

Subsection 5.3 revealed that listening and speaking training offered by five teachers is mainly textbook-dependent, whether it is the text prescribed or chosen for the course, or exacts taken by the teachers from additional sources. This finding motivates me to explore what linguacultural resources are represented in the textbooks used as input resources. Then, I consider other potential input resources incorporated into textbook-based resources that teachers use to carry out listening and/or speaking training.

5.4.1.1 Teachers' perspectives

During the interviews, the five teachers identified a prevalence of American culture in the chosen textbooks and supplementary materials that are utilized for listening and speaking training. For instance, Victor indicated, 'US cultures or English in Taiwan is mainstream, hum, in fact, we recognize that it is (US culture/English)'. The non-English Majors' teachers agreed that ENL (English as a native language) quality of English was usually presented in the audio resources provided alongside the chosen textbooks. For example, Christy described the English presented in the CDs indicating that 'my students will notice that the English presented in the CDs is ENL English'. Alex and Christy both emphasized

that ‘American accents are well-established’ in aural teaching materials. The teachers appear to have a strong awareness of how US/ENL linguacultural representation and resources dominate the selected materials but seemed to accept this as inevitable.

In order to give further insight into the dominance mentioned above, the teachers’ responses to US/ENL-related representation in the textbooks for listening and speaking training are analysed. Firstly, Grace noted that ‘the textbooks were written for non-native speakers, so they will emphasize this [US-related resources]….If my students [English Majors] go to English speaking countries, they might find them [US-related information] useful. This is not bad’. Victor thought that presenting American accents to his students was not necessarily problematic because ‘[his] students are not English Majors. If they can get used to the American accents, if they can understand it [US English], I mean, if they can understand 30% to 70% of American accents, for me, they [his students] are making good progress in English language learning’. Referring to US-based Taiwanese ELT, he assumed that ‘they [his students] have access to American English, from different levels of schools, that is, I feel this [American English] is more acceptable to them’. Alex pointed out that ‘if my students have better English and time is allowed, I will consider introducing them to other different kinds of accents’. The opinions demonstrated above show that the three teachers do not think that the US/ENL-related nature of the resources is necessarily inadequate or inappropriate for their students’ current learning or, perhaps, their future language use.

These teachers did not challenge the US/ENL-related resources available for listening and speaking education. Grace’s comment above suggested that judging the usefulness of the presented resources depended on whether students use English in ENL-related contexts. Moreover, Victor and Alex appear to hold the view that introducing non-English Major students to the concept of linguistic variation regarding spoken English could only be put into practice when students have managed to cope with one kind of English first. For these three teachers, their pedagogical decisions on introducing US/ENL or non-US/ENL resources were made based on their assumptions about students’ needs at present and their potential language use in the future. These decisions were also made based on the teachers´ understanding of the students’ competence to evaluate US/ENL related resources. Finally, the non-English Majors’ teachers would perhaps consider introducing their students to other forms when time permits.

By contrast, Christy and Lindsay showed considerable resistance to the monolithic approach to linguacultural representation and resources in the textbooks. Christy not only criticized the US/ENL dominance but also emphasized the potential consequences of only giving US/ENL-related resources to her students. On this issue she commented that ‘I feel some students become too picky to listen to other [e.g. non-American] accents’. As a result, she said that her students told her that ‘they only understood AmEng’. She opined that students could benefit from listening to ‘various kinds of spoken English’. In a similar vein, Lindsay highlighted that ‘students may not understand others, if they are

only used to the English presented in class'. She mentioned that one of her students asked her 'why can he only understand my English [Lindsay's English]' and this raised her awareness of the potential problems of exposing students to just one kind of English. Apparently, Christy and Lindsay felt the need to challenge the dominance of US/ENL-related or use of only one kind of linguistic representation in the resources at the expense of others. Their awareness further led them to re-examine learning and teaching English within or beyond the prescribed perspective of the textbooks and teachers. Regarding this, Lindsay indicated that '…learning English is not equal to learning everything about the US. Equations cannot be applied to delineate the link [the former to the latter] in this case'. Thus, she decided to make a practical change in a speaking activity, which is presented in the next chapter.

According to the teachers, the dominant US/ENL English representation and resources portrayed in the textbooks chosen for training were inevitable and purposefully selective. This representation further led to teachers' reactions for or against the US/ENL-related nature of the resources. In some cases, this nudged them into making a decision, regarding whether they should maintain the status quo or consider possible changes. This further highlighted the importance of teachers' decisions on how any dominant language and cultural resources presented to students should be processed and reinterpreted in order to teach students beyond any particular dominant linguacultural perspective.

The cultural representations in textbooks for listening and speaking training were noted by the teachers. Grace was responsible for teaching English Majors. Her reaction to the US-related topics for students to practice speaking began with the question, 'why can the topic [the US-related topics] only be discussed by people from one country or one culture?' Then, she stressed the importance of taking into consideration 'whether students are interested in and have sufficient knowledge to elaborate on the presented culture-related topics'. By this, Grace meant that US-related topics could be discussed by her students only when they have sufficient resources or knowledge about these topics and the competence to talk about them. Based on Grace's comments above, on the one hand, she balanced her stance on the use of US/ENL or non-US/ENL resources with the proviso that users were sufficiently competent and had the capacity to apply these aforementioned resources to practice speaking adequately. Grace expressed a well-reasoned deeply felt belief that she should discarded any of her own preconceptions about what are the appropriate linguacultural resources for education. That is, she was convinced that it was the students' judgment regarding which resources were valuable for their training. This was because Grace accepted that she could not predict her students' future experiences or life course and thus could not pre-judge what was or was not going to help them in terms of learning English for communication purposes. All these issues led her to focus her teaching on whether students are sufficiently competent to deal with any available resources.

Subsequent to Grace's narrative, the views of the teachers of the non-English Majors were examined with respect to how the cultural representation and resources in textbooks affected classroom practices.

Christy gave an example of how British literature-related topics in a speaking activity (e.g. *American Headway 3*, pp. 22-23) were inadequate for training. She reported that 'some students do not know [the characters and plot of] Romeo and Juliet by Shakespeare'. Alex encountered a similar problem when using *Smart Choice 2* to teach listening and speaking. He pointed out that 'the text presents a Mexican holiday [*Smart Choice 2,* p.34]. Some cultural representation was really specific and unfamiliar to me. I needed to Google it and could not find any further information about it, such as one kind of Brazilian food and a Mexican holiday. I never ate that Brazilian food and I could not even talk about it with my students'. These two examples highlight how the cultural representation in the designated textbooks hampered the training and did not necessarily support listening and speaking. In light of this, it is necessary to enquire whether and how the language, cultural representation and resources can be processed when teaching communication-related skills in various teaching contexts. This matter is probed in the next chapter.

Next non-textbook materials, i.e. teachers and students' own produced English are presented as input resources. According to the teacher questionnaire survey (Subsection 4.3.3), they reported that they used English as the medium to teach OT and FE courses in accordance with their department and university language policy and their individual pedagogical decisions. In chapter 4, Table 4.11 illustrates a high percentage of use of English by teachers and similarly students recognized teachers as their primary learning model or resource (Table 4.6). Building on this outcome, the following explores how teachers employed English as their instructional language in communication skills training.

All teachers agreed that their English served as a vital learning resource inside the classroom. On this issue, Grace articulated her rationale for using English to teach the OT courses: her use of English allowed 'students to observe and listen, just for a while, and gradually they will understand how to speak English to us [teachers]'. Christy's made the following point about her use of English; 'to stimulate students to listen and respond to the teacher's English', but at the same time, she noted that 'listening to and responding to my English or not depends on the students'. Lindsay, expressed the view that ideally, in order to 'let them [her students] get used to [listening and speaking] English', she hoped that, 'they [her students] should listen to English and speak English to their peers and me.' Victor stressed his English was an input resource, indicating that he would 'repeat the listening content of the played audio materials' if his students needed it. Alex related his use of English in speaking activities, emphasizing that 'I try to use Q&A as much as I can' in order to enable students to interact with him in English.

In sum, the teachers' use of English is not simply for instruction purposes. Firstly, their use can give students examples of how English can be used to interact. Secondly, the teachers' English is represented as one kind of language resource available for students to listen to and interact with. This echoes

students' views that this forms a primary learning resource/model (Subsection 4.3.5). Lastly, through using English, teachers create opportunities for listening and speaking training.

Regarding teachers' evaluation of their students' English as potential resources for other students to develop their listening and speaking, Grace observed that her students listened to 'their peers' talk and make comments'. Christy emphasized that 'students as audience, cannot just sit there and listen. They should pay attention to what their classmates say and respond'. As mentioned, Lindsay hoped her students would listen to her and the peers' English and then speak. Victor commented that, 'my students are not English Majors. The teacher [himself] is the only one that they [students] count on for resources. Who else? Your question restrict [me and my students'] answers'. Alex highlighted that he was able to give his students' resources because he is 'an English Major' but remarked that his non-English Major students 'have limited contact with other language resources' and 'may not have colleagues or other English Majors to imitate'.

Above it was primarily suggested that Grace, Christy, and Lindsay put emphasis on their students' language contribution by getting students to make "comments", "responses", and "speech". This implied that these teachers recognized students' verbal reactions as worthwhile input/output resources. Moreover, Christy and Lindsay noted that the described listening and speaking training is an ideal teaching scenario providing that the students are willing to use English autonomously with the teachers. In contrast, Victor and Alex appeared to consider their students were the receivers of language resources, because these students were not English Majors and needed to rely on teachers for learning resources. It is thus reasonable to assume that the language resources in these two teachers' classroom practices mainly come from the teachers and the chosen materials. This is because their students' language and cultural resources i.e. their contributions, were not so highly valued or might not be as abundant as those in the other teachers' classrooms.

5.4.1.2 Students' perspectives

Since students' learning is largely teacher and/or textbook-based (Subsections 5.3.2.1 and 5.3.2.2), it is vital to understand how students relate these learning resources to learning. Hence, I asked students to recall what linguacultural resources were introduced to them in the textbooks that they had used for learning English in the past. Then, I asked students to compare their previous and present experiences. By doing this, I could capture students' feedback on the linguacultural representation and resources in the textbooks for OT and FE courses for communication skills training and bring this information to the fore.

All students agreed that the US/ENL-related linguistic input resources in textbooks or audio materials were common among all levels of schools in Taiwan. For instance, CS2 mentioned that 'the audio resources were always recorded by foreigners [foreigners as meaning American or British people]'. As

CS1 highlighted, 'I think that everyone had received a similar listening training through the audio CDs of textbooks'. As to the resources for speaking, students all pointed to textbooks. They claimed that the texts were written in AmEng and took this AmEng-based input for granted. Regarding this issue, VS5 asked me in turn 'isn't using the US-based textbook to learn English common [to all schools and colleges]?' This illustrates the extent of students' use of AmEng-based input resources when carrying out listening and speaking where this training is offered.

In general, all the interviewed students pointed to the US-based cultural representation and resources in their earlier experiences. For instance, AS2 reported that 'the school textbooks mostly presented US-related holidays or education, such as Christmas, Thanksgiving, and American high schools' despite the fact that the culture presented to the students appeared inappropriate to their society. To underline the incongruity of the cultural resources, LS3, recalling his high school days said: 'our textbook mentions the Thanksgiving [Halloween] holiday. We did not have pumpkins in City X [the southern Taiwanese city where LS comes from]. … So the teacher decided to let us use watermelons [instead of pumpkins] to make lanterns'. Clearly, the consensus among students was that the US textbooks based on American cultural customs and practices are acceptable and not unusual in any way.

LS4 explained that 'our high school teachers did not use English to teach' and AS1 confirmed this when she said that 'the teaching of English was to prepare us for the examination. Maybe, err…, the teacher had no time to speak English to teach. Her teaching focused on the content of textbooks'. Other students agreed that using English to teach or learn was not common in high schools. Despite the lack of listening and speaking training at the secondary level (Subsection 5.3.1), the majority of the resources for listening and speaking training comprised the audio CDs and textbooks in those situations where training was offered. It is reasonable to assume that the English presented in audio CDs probably constitutes the kind of English that is most familiar to students.

Based on the above, I further consider how students related the linguacultural resources in the textbooks to listening and speaking training. All students noticed the increase of listening and speaking activities in the selected textbooks/materials. GS5, for instance, mentioned that 'there were far more speaking activities in the textbook than in the textbooks that we used at high school'. CS4 also indicated 'I felt this text [*American Headway 3*] meets my personal needs. It contains reading,…everything. It has more listening and speaking activities. …For me, the listening is very suitable for my levels of English'. All Lindsay's students mentioned that Lindsay did not use the text, *Reading Explorer 3*; 'Lindsay lets us listen to a website called ESL' and 'uses the handout from other textbooks for us to practice speaking' (LS4). VS3 indicated that '*Reading Explorer 3* contains a lot of interesting events taking place around the world' and noted 'we used the audio CDs of this textbook for listening activities'. AS4 found that *Smart Choice 2* 'contains lot of interesting topics for us to listen to and speak about, such as movies'. Overall, the students observed that there were more listening and speaking activities in

textbooks/materials for the OT and FE courses than those in the textbooks that students had used previously at school. In sum, the training at university level remains textbook-based (Subsection 5.3.1.1), regardless of whether these were the books selected by the university/departmental authorities, the teacher's own choice of core text for the course or were the supplementary materials they found and adapted or selected directly from other textbooks. It can be concluded that textbook-based linguacultural resources were the primary ones used for students to practice listening and speaking.

Regarding the use of the language resources, some English Majors indicated that OT courses focused on speaking. One of them, GS5, reported that 'we did not use any CDs. We only listened to the teacher and our learning partners' English'. Apart from Lindsay's students, the non-English Majors indicated that CDs were the primary listening resources. They also agreed that people who have ENL backgrounds recorded these CDs. For instance, CS2 observed that 'English pronunciation by native speakers' was presented in the audio CDs. This resonates with Christy's understanding of how her students perceived English presented in the CDs (Subsection 5.4.2.1). Victor's students pointed out that Victor used a typically American sitcom (*Friends*) for listening training, as it was clearly demonstrating American English for them.

Regarding Lindsay's listening training, her students pointed out that different listening resources were used and one of them was the online listening website: ESL. LS1 outlined the resources from this, **'**the website [ESL] provides different audio resources for listening, such as the people's talk at the airport. A bit difficult. I could not really understand. … There were conversations on a lot of different social occasions. ….'. Lindsay's use of web-based resources for listening training made a change to her students' long term exposure to CDs-based listening resources that they had used through their secondary education. It also offered them listening training beyond the US/ENL perspective of the English prescribed by the CDs, which could mean it reflects several kinds of ENL or US English used in real-world communication.

The above primarily revealed that English Majors' listening resources comprise their teacher's and their classmates' spoken English; whereas for the non-English Majors they comprised the audio CDs and/or supplementary materials. The former's resources emerge from on-going classroom practices whereas the latter's are prescribed and presented mainly by textbooks. Secondly, the dominant use of audio CDs for listening training inevitably meant that the US/ENL-related English and the associated cultures were reintroduced to students. This indicates that this linguacultural reinforcement perpetuates across different levels of English language education in Taiwan in particular from the secondary to tertiary levels. Victor's use of *Friends* as his listening resources allowed the US-based orientation to be re-reinforced in his students' learning in addition to that already laid down by the use of CD-based resources. With respect to speaking, the above comments have pointed to the students' awareness of ENL-based resources used for this activity.

By comparing the university teachers with those teachers who had taught them at high school, all interviewed students reported that the lecturers' extensive use of English provided them with more opportunities to listen to and interact with teachers in English as part of the OT and FE courses. For English Majors, GS6 pointed out 'all teachers in our department use English in teaching and this is a tradition of the English Language Department'. This student was assuming that listening to teachers' English was a common learning activity. Most of Lindsay and Alex's students pointed out that their teachers offered them whole-English class. Highlighting the interaction function of the teacher's English, LS4 indicated that 'when we want to talk to her [Lindsay], she replies in English. So we have to speak English to her [to get a response].' AS1 reported that 'Alex really does not use Mandarin. He speaks only English to us…When I understand his English, I feel motivated'. Christy and Victor's students described their use of English and Mandarin was balanced but was still more than that of their high school teachers. CS1 commented that 'at least, I sit here listening to her [Christy's] English…the more, the better', thus speaking highly of Christy's use of English as a listening resource.

Although some students indicated that they did not necessarily understand all of the teacher's spoken English in each class, all students agreed that the teachers used more than their school teachers or in some cases, only English to teach them. They also regarded the teachers' English as a good learning resource with it being integrated into listening and speaking training. As a whole, teacher English represented another linguacultural resource for students to practice listening and speaking in additional to those already discussed above.

An important consideration is the students' own English as a potential linguacultural resource for listening and speaking. All English Majors indicated that most of their classroom learning partners' English was good and they got help from them. For instance, GS1 mentioned that one of her classmate's English was good: 'I felt student P's English is very fluent, with clear pronunciation. And I like to listen to the content of his talk…very interesting, perhaps it also has something to do with his personality. His English is better than mine …many people's [in her class] English is good…and I would like to know how to make as clear remarks as student P'. This example showed GS1 not only paid attention to her learning partner's language use, but also targeted his English as one of her learning role models. Most of the non-English Majors expressed the view that they learned English mainly from their teachers and textbooks, but they indicated that they could get help from their learning partners, if necessary. When asked what other resources were available AS4 exemplified that 'I will ask friends, if I cannot understand his [teacher's] English' to help with listening. Only a very few non-English Majors referred to their peers' English as learning role models. For example, LS3 said that 'his/her English is not grammatically correct, but very fluent…He does not speak very fast and people just pay attention and listen to him. He could express his ideas very clearly. I hope I can speak like that'. For English Majors, their learning partners' English served not only as a learning resource, but also as a role model. By contrast, the non-English Majors tended to regard their learning partners' English as a subsidiary

reference, only to be used when they needed help. Since the training is generally teacher-dependent (Subsection 5.3.1.1), students' English as a linguacultural resource is similarly likely to be teacher-dependent.

5.4.2 Real-world English versus English presented in the classroom

This subsection considers teacher and student evaluation of how the presented English linguacultural resources as discussed above are related to the students' lives and their language use. The analysis focuses on evaluating the three identified resources by considering whether the resource(s) reflect real-world communicative language based on the participants' teaching, learning, or language use experience.

5.4.2.1 Teachers' views

From the data analysis it emerges that the teachers decided on the relevance of the presented English language and cultures to students' real-world lives according to their personal judgement on the extent to which these resources related to the students' lives and interests. Through examining the interview data, two approaches taken by teachers to decide on the relevance of the presented English can be identified. The following begins with Grace's remarks and this is followed with those from the other four teachers.

Referring back to Table 4.12 (Subsection 4.3.4), Grace articulated her beliefs about teaching English for communication, arguing that 'the topics discussed should be related to their [students'] lives or current engagement'. In the interview, she elaborated on this issue, indicating that 'if the students do not like the topics provided by the textbook, then they should choose their own'. To this end, she suggested that 'students have to find their own resources to learn [to speak]'. She stressed that 'I cannot tell my students to speak about a particular topic, it is only my choice of topic'. Grace's comments implied that the textbooks had limitations, because they did not necessarily provide students with the resources relevant to them. In this case she suggests that students have to evaluate the available resources in order to consider whether the textbooks provide relevant resources and, if not, decide whether alternative resources are necessary. Her most strongly held opinion is that alternative resources must be decided on by the students themselves in order to establish the link between these resources and their language practices. Once students have their own resources, whether or not these are obtained from textbooks, Grace believed that 'the students get involved in each other's talk, they are engaged in real-world communication contexts'. From Grace's point of view, the real-world resources for students are sought out, evaluated, decided on and subsequently applied by students. In her words, the relevance of the language and cultural resources deployed to allow students to practice their speaking can only be judged by them, and not by teachers.

Regarding relevance, Lindsay reported that 'the content of this text (*Reading Explorer 3*) is not so relevant to students' lives at the moment, no concrete linkage' and said that her students 'may not be interested in those topics [covered in the textbook]'. To discuss the content of textbooks with me, Christy compared *Reading Explorer 3* and *American Headway 3*, emphasizing that the content of the former was more relevant to her students' lives than that of the latter because the former offered students topics that 'students know about in their daily life, such as Starbucks'. As for the textbook that Christy was using in her teaching during my observation (*American Headway 3*), she reported that '[the English language presented] is not something about what Mary says or what happens to George. We don't know these people [Mary and George] and [the linguacultural representation] of the content in the textbook is simulated'. Victor emphasized that 'the textbook [*Reading Explorer 3*] is actually irrelevant to [students'] real-life language use. But if …for example, today, I used *Friends* (.), the conversations presented in *Friends* are close to students' real-life experience'. Alex expressed the view that *Smart Choice 2* contained 'content that my students can understand….the topics and characters are related to what happens in the real-world…Yes, closer to students' lives'. However, Alex also recognized the limitations of the chosen textbook, exemplifying that 'many things [presented in textbook] are new to them [students] or they cannot even get information from watching TV or movies. These are irrelevant things to them'.

The examples mentioned above portrayed Christy and Lindsay's feedback on the textbook *Reading Explorer 3*. Regardless of whether or not the cultural aspect of the resources was useful to students was, in the end, down to the teachers' subjective judgment despite the practitioners offering a professional rationale for the decision to use a particular textbook. However, it should be noted that all the teachers recognized the limitations of the linguacultural resources in the textbooks with regards to their students making linkages with real-world language use. Seeking alternative resources to the chosen textbooks was applied to resolve this problem and Victor's use of *Friends* is an exemplary solution. The findings above show that the non-English Majors' teachers identified the weak connection between the students' potential real-life language use and the linguacultural resources. However, they did not go as far in their commentary as Grace who drew attention to how students themselves should connect the somewhat irrelevant resources to students' potential language use. She also explained that it was for the students to decide whether or not the resources were relevant to their language use, and if not, select and apply relevant ones. In Grace's opinion, she, and other teachers, were not in a position to make this decision for students. This was not the position taken by the other teachers who took on the responsibility for evaluating the relevance of the linguacultural resources to students' real-world language use and initiate changes in order to address this issue. It can be seen that the main difference between these perspectives lies in the approach. There is the student-centred approach (i.e. that adopted by Grace) and the teacher-centred one (i.e. that taken by the teachers of the non-English Majors) for addressing the degree of connectivity of the presented English language as found in the resources, to real-world language.

5.4.2.2 Students' views

Next, I cover the students' perspectives on how they related the contents of presented English language resources to real-world language use. During the interviews, it became clear that the students had a lack of contexts in which to use their English (Subsection 5.3.1.2). Thus I let students draw on any language learning and usage experiences to help them elaborate on the linkage. I noted that most students compared the English presented in the textbooks with the teachers' and their own, so I present their comparisons below.

English Majors mentioned that listening and speaking training is common practice at U1 throughout OT courses (Subsection 5.3.1.2) and also in other curricular resources (Subsection 5.3.2.2). These English Majors agreed that their and the teacher's use of English inside the classroom was similar to their use outside, to a greater or lesser extent. The primary difference concerned the topics covered with interlocutors. GS2 exemplified that 'some topics presented in textbooks are too serious to talk about with my friends at student hall@@'. Another difference noted by the interviewees was that speaking competency was important to pass the OT course. To this end, GS4 pinpointed that she needed to 'prepare for speaking' and 'prepared nothing to talk to friends about, we just talk'. In order to prepare a speech for the course, the students agreed that they should choose and/or refer to the English prescribed by the textbook and/or other teachers (not Grace). As GS3 reported, Grace 'keeps letting us [students] speak, speak, speak'.

English Majors felt that the selected and presented resources were not necessarily relevant or useful for real-life language use, despite there being some similarities. Inside the classroom, these English Majors decided to practice speaking in keeping with the prescribed language and cultural resources given in the textbook or by teachers, in order to pass the OT course, even though their teacher Grace did not instruct them to do this. Outside of the classroom, English Majors needed to evaluate whether the resources presented in textbooks were useful and relevant to the content and purposes of their language use in non-classroom contexts. The examples above suggested that English Majors were capable of judging this regarding relevance to their actual language use, independent from their teacher Grace. This backs up Grace's point discussed above that students rather than their teacher should decide what resources to draw on and whether these are useful for the real-world communication. English Majors are also aware of the discrepancy between the English language resources presented to them inside the classroom and those they draw upon to use English outside, further leading to their re-evaluating the resources when applying them to actual language use.

Most of the non-English Majors drew on the English presented in the audio CDs of textbooks to articulate their views on real-world language based regarding their own language use or that of others. Table 5.6 provides some examples of non-English Majors' responses to the English language presented in and out of the classroom.

Table 5.6 Non-English Majors' perspectives on real-world English versus the English presented in the classroom

CDs versus English spoken by teacher and students	Teacher's versus others' English
CS1: It is like what I think English language should be [based on the textbook] is **different from the way I used it** [in the real-world communication.] **LS2: '**the English by **international students** for instance, is different from **the English presented in CDs** and '**teachers' English**.' **VS4**: 'I feel that the English is **deliberately pronounced clearly** in order to be recorded and let **students of different levels hear** [clearly]. **AS4**: Different. I think it is not teacher's problem. It is **CD's problem**. Because in order to record, they [the speakers] **do not speak like the ways we speak**. Yeah, teacher's English sounds like the English that is used to **converse with people** and **doesn't sound like a listening test**.	**CS3:** 'I felt I can understand teacher's [Christy's] English. How to put it? Hum, that is **teacher's pronunciation is not problematic**….**Every teacher speaks differently**' **LS4:** 'The English presented in CD is different from hers [Lindsay]. **I can ask her when I cannot understand**.' **LS3: Lindsay's English is very clear**. I don't know whether she (Lindsay) is a teacher. I met some foreigners in our extracurricular club and **they speak English with different accents**. **VS1:** 'My teacher's English is very fluent. But he **speaks slowly in order to make us understand**, to give lectures.' **AS1**: He uses all English to teach, explain the more difficult words. He also **uses a simple way to talk to us**. His English is **AmEng**'

Table 5.6 shows that all non-English Majors noted that the English presented in the audio CDs differed from the English spoken by their teachers (e.g. AS4), by other people that the students knew (e.g.LS2, VS4), and themselves (e.g. CS1). It can be concluded that the English presented in the CDs is different from the English spoken by people in the real-world settings, that is, teachers and the students themselves. Students also identified the following limitations of CDs: presenting a deliberately clear pronunciation for learning, speaking clearly as if it is English designed for tests, and finally, not speaking as if holding conversations in the real-world (e.g. AS4). Moreover, they noted that their teachers' English was different from that used by international students (e.g. LS3) and by some other teachers (e.g. CS3). Students reported teachers often altered their English to help students understand (e.g. AS1) and used English to interact with people (e.g. AS4) or with the students (e.g. LS4). Both students and teachers did not speak the same kind of English presented in the CDs with some students noticing that their teachers' English was AmEng-like; Alex and Victor's students described these two teachers as having American accents.

Some of the above comments indicate that the English presented in the classroom CDs contrasted with the teacher's English in terms of authenticity and the interactive nature of the teacher's use of English. That is, the former was purposefully recorded for students to listen to, learn or to be tested with whereas their teacher's English was used to interact with students or help make them understand. Clearly, the English presented in the CDs had a tenuous link to English used for communication by people in the real-world but teacher's English had a somewhat stronger link to real-world language use. Overall, from the students' point of view, CDs presented a specific kind of English, which reflected little relevance to the actual language use exhibited by teachers and other people that they knew, thus highlighting the mismatch between real-world English and the presented English.

Non-English Majors could have experienced considerable exposure to the English presented by audio CDs via their teachers' use of this material for listening training. That is, the CDs served as the primary listening resources, as mentioned (Subsection 5.4.1.2) in the context of their communication-aware learning is teaching-dependent (Subsection 5.3.1). This further underlines that non-English Majors' listening training is less real-world communication-focused, largely owing to the disconnection described above. Whether, and if so, to what extent, the non-English Majors are sufficiently competent to deal with this mismatch remains to be clarified along with how teacher-led training can help with resolving this issue.

Above, under the second analytical theme, materials, I have considered how three major linguacultural resources were presented to students for listening and speaking training. I have also discussed the link between the real-world English and the presented English language resources and the potential implications for listening/speaking training. These issues will be explored further in the discussion of theme 3: principles of using materials to teach/learn.

5.5 Principles of using materials to teach/learn

Section 5.4 revealed that all teachers had materials available to teach communication skills and exercised a choice regarding using them. Teachers also recognised the limitations of the linguacultural representation and resources in the chosen textbooks with respect to teaching listening and speaking (Subsection 5.4.1.1) and the possible challenges there were when trying to connect the presented English to real-world communication (Subsection 5.4.1.2). In light of these outcomes I consider each teacher's primary principles adopted when using the chosen textbooks and their plan to fulfil their stated teaching objective. Subsequently I analyse students' priorities regarding communication skills training.

Johnson (1995) and Richards (1998) have emphasized that teachers made pedagogical decisions on what to teach and how to do this depending on the availability of materials to use, what they decide to teach as well as whether the teaching contexts are favourable for realising these decisions. Following this line of thought, above I have considered the five teachers' decisions on listening/speaking skills to teach for communication (i.e. teachers' decisions on what teach), what textbooks/materials they used for communication training (i.e. teachers' choice of the materials), and more generally, the ELT contexts that support training (e.g. the establishment of teaching contexts backing up teachers' pedagogical decisions). Clearly, what has not been considered so far is how to teach and learn when using the chosen materials and put what they have decided to deliver into action in their given teaching contexts. To address this matter, I need to explore teachers and students' fundamental principles adopted to implement the teaching/learning of communication skills.

5.5.1 Teachers' perspectives on using linguacultural input resources

When I asked each teacher to identify the main purpose of using the chosen textbook to teach communication skills, I observed that it was to create opportunities for their students to listen to and practice speaking English. Focusing on speaking, Grace indicated that by creating 'more opportunities for students to speak and practice, they would gradually feel it natural to speak English spontaneously'. In order to encourage students to speak English, Christy indicated that 'I should let my students try it [to use]. If they cannot really speak English, that is OK. I can offer them support, such as telling students that I would say things like this. … However, it is the students' choice if they want to take my advice and use the opportunity [on the suggested language use]'. Lindsay noted that 'there were very few opportunities for them [her students] to practice listening and speaking [before her students' undergraduate level of study]. So I need to introduce a change [to this issue]'. Citing the same reason as Lindsay, Victor reported that 'they [his students] did not have listening and speaking training before. So I try to give them opportunities to have more listening practice'. Drawing the attention to interaction, Alex believed that 'at least, … interacting with me [through Q&A], students have the opportunity to learn [listening and speaking]'. In brief these teachers prioritised the aim that teachers should provide the opportunity for students to practice listening and speaking as the cardinal step to put communication skills training into action. Below, I consider how these teachers planned to bring this forward.

I observed that all teachers planned to employ activities presented in the chosen textbooks or supplementary texts to give students communication skills training. Grace explained that 'for OT1, I can only use the pre-designed activities from the textbooks. All activities are department-selected. However, in OT2, I have the choice of many activities available in the textbooks'. For the FE course, Christy emphasised that 'some teachers may select the activities to engage in, but I will do all the activities [in *American Headway*]'. As mentioned earlier, Lindsay did not have a listening/speaking-based textbook to use so for speaking, Lindsay told me that she can 'use the speaking activity in this textbook and also refer to the activities in the others'. She also planned to use the online listening activities and audio CDs to help her students with listening training. Victor, likewise, did not have a listening/speaking-based textbook to use. So by adapting *Reading Explorer 3* and the American TV sitcom *'Friends'*, Victor explained that he wrote 'some questions to help students listen to audio materials carefully in order for them to answer questions'. Alex reported that he would mainly 'use the activities in the textbooks' and emphasised, he did not 'adopt other supplementary materials'. As indicated, utilising the activities in the textbooks is the generally accepted approach for listening and speaking training. These teachers chose to use or design their activities which primarily came from the chosen key textbook or from alternative textbooks, revealing their heavy dependency on these. This dependency may further encourage these teachers to use the US/ENL-related linguacultural resources embedded in the activities presented in textbooks.

However, it might not follow that teachers simply rely on the textbooks in their actual practices. It is necessary to explore whether the teachers are incorporating other resources when leading listening and speaking activities and, if so, the rationale for their pedagogical choices. To consider this, I need to scrutinise what kind of listening and speaking activities are chosen and employed in the classroom. Moreover, it is important to see how teachers let students draw upon and utilise the US/ENL-related resources in the textbooks to carry out the listening and speaking activities. This is investigated in the next chapter. It is of note that Christy drew attention to the students' decision to take advantage of the opportunities provided to learn communication skills. In light of this, I was motivated to explore the motives and priorities of these students when engaging in enhancing their listening and speaking skills.

5.5.2 Students' perspectives on using linguacultural input resources

Since the students had identified listening and speaking as the key skills for communication (Subsection 5.3.1.2), during the interviews I asked which aspects of listening/ speaking training they needed to prioritise if they set out to learn English for communication. Most reported that they hoped to be provided with more opportunities to practice listening and speaking. By referring back to their previous learning experience in high schools, English and non-English Majors gave me their opinion on what aspects of listening and speaking skills should be accentuated. GS6 claimed that 'we focussed on the reading skills because of tests. We do not have any opportunities for listening and speaking training. So I did not realise the importance of practicing other skills [e.g. listening and speaking] until I began my study in U2'. Having rather limited previous training in listening and speaking, CS1 described his difficulties in speaking by indicating that the 'very few opportunities [given to students to practice speaking in high school] have contributed to my hesitation to speak English. This fear is beyond words'. Then, he proposed a solution to help him overcome his fear, namely, that his teacher should 'give me opportunities, er, … kind of, force me to speak and this might be useful for me'. LS1 pointed out that 'before, the high school teachers have established the learning agenda [for us]; we study English towards the examination [The National College Entrance Examination does not include speaking test.]. …. At present, we need to have opportunities to practice speaking'. In recalling their insufficient training, VS2 stated that 'I have found myself in a quandary learning to speak, because I don't know how to practice speaking. Besides, I do not have any opportunities to practice either'. Relating to the learning contexts, AS4 indicated that 'yes, you know, I feel the learning environment, in [high] schools, we did not speak English to communicate. Then it becomes difficult to link English to communication. If there would be opportunities to practice speaking, I should be able to improve my English'. These comments captured from the students highlight the importance of being given opportunities to practice speaking and identify the urgent need for communication skills training, in particular with appropriate opportunities to practice their speaking.

Some students also emphasised they wanted opportunities for listening training. They thought that their needs for this were not as urgent as those for speaking, because they had received even fewer opportunities for speaking than listening training in the past. Prioritising speaking, GS2 mentioned 'before we did not have opportunities to practice speaking at all, so we need more practice now'. Some students claimed that they had acquired the CD-based listening skills, but they did not have any speaking experience. Regarding this, AS2 indicated that 'sometimes high school teachers played CDs. And we listened to the CDs. But we did not have any opportunity to practice speaking, perhaps…. is reading a conversation a kind of speaking practice? (…...) I think that it is only reading the conversation. It is not speaking it [to converse with others]'. This student's observation draws attention the weak linkage between mimicking or reading out a pre-determined dialogue and actually producing non-static, real-world communicative language. His argument condemns the prescribed approach to English used to develop students' speaking. AS2's question to me and his answer to his own question highlights the lack of real-world related speaking training. He further underlines the importance of adequate speaking training, and recognises his need for more satisfactory opportunities.

Overall, the students' priority for communication skills training resonates with that of teachers: creating and taking opportunities to practice listening and/or speaking. Students particularly valued opportunities for speaking training. For Victor's students, their need for practicing speaking may not have been adequately fulfilled, because as revealed previously, speaking training is not the focus of his teaching (Subsection 5.3.1.1). However, all teachers could help students with meeting their expressed needs for training in communication skill(s) when teachers themselves are in the position to realise their stated principles of using materials to create the opportunity for students to practice listening and speaking.

5.6 Chapter summary

The analysis of the interview data has been addressed through discussing the three themes. The outcomes of this have helped shed light on how the communication-aware ELT contexts have been co-constructed by the teachers and the students in accordance with the conditions set by the three universities' curriculums. With reference to the identified materials for learning, I have discussed the major linguacultural representation delivered to students contained in these input resources. I then considered the difficulties and advantages of using these resources to connect to real-world communicative English. Finally, the interview data analysis has shown that teachers as individual practitioners have each mapped out a possible avenue through which they can put the listening and/or speaking training into action. In the next chapter, chapter 6, the observational data are presented and analysed.

Chapter 6 Critical Content Analysis of Classroom Practices

6.1 Introduction

In Chapter 5, I have presented and considered the 20 interviews (i.e. 15 one-to-one and five in groups) with students and five one-to-one interviews with teachers. The outcomes of my analysis of the interviews about the communication-aware ELT contexts, the nature of the linguacultural resources used to teach English for communication, and the principles of using the available materials teaching all require further confirmation. To carry out this confirmation, in this chapter I present my analysis of the three final data sets, including the classroom observations, my field notes, and brief on-site interviews. The evidence and discussion presented provides practice-based observation evidence captured from classroom realities to support or challenge participants' narratives about linguacultural resources and input delivery (see Table 3.1). I take the opportunity to refer to the extant literature to discuss the outcomes with regards to specific curricular and pedagogical issues covered in the literature review chapter.

Under the theme ELT contexts, I recap the establishment of the communication-aware ELT contexts that focuses primarily on the classroom settings for OT and FE courses. To address the theme materials, I consider how the linguacultural resources in the materials are actually presented to students and employed by teachers for listening and speaking training. By doing this, I can consider the connection between the English taught and learned inside of classroom to that in the real-world. Lastly, for the theme of principles, I discuss how typical listening/speaking training is put into practice, by drawing on the available materials (Section 5.6) and in the established communication-aware ELT contexts (Table 5.2).

Scholars tend to assume that ELT in EFL contexts remain examination-oriented. This kind of ELT further hinders students from learning English for communication because it draws students' attention to NES normative learning and/or accuracy (Subsection 2.3.2). I observed that this assumption was made based on learning a single purpose; that is, learning/teaching English aims for either examination or for communication. In my study, the student questionnaire survey (Subsection 4.2.7) and the analysis of interview data (Subsection 5.4.1) showed teaching/learning English pursued multiple purposes. For instance, although FE course for non-English Majors may not be so communication-focused, teachers still decided to teach communication skills (Subsection 5.3.1.1) and students still wanted to learn English for examination purposes but without completely ruling out learning English to communicate (Subsection 4.2.7). It appears that from the participants' perspectives studying English for communication uses or examination ones do not necessarily exclude the other and the two goals can co-exist. Regarding this, the most that can be claimed is that the multiple purposes of learning or teaching could have contributed to a weak form of communication-aware pedagogy and/or lessened the opportunities to teach English from a lingua franca perspective.

Seidlhofer (2011) suggests that creating learning opportunities for learners to legitimate their language use should be prioritised in order to bridge the gap between English language of learners and users. The five teachers' common desire about teaching English for communication is to create learning opportunities for their learners to practice listening and speaking (Subsection 5.4.1.1). Another way to legitimate learners' use of English is to give students opportunities to exploit the multiple resources available in local contexts (Seidlhofer, 2011 and Pennycook, 2012). In light of this proposition (Subsection 2.4.2.2) and having established that there are three major input resources for SLA (Subsection 2.3.3), I focus in Section 6.2 on whether the learning opportunities for listening and speaking were created as teachers had claimed in the interviews and subsequently, in Section 6.2, I probe how students drew upon the available linguacultural resources to legitimate their use.

In regards to materials, Chapter 5 showed that teaching and learning was identified to be textbook-based. Furthermore, the five teachers recognised that the US/ENL-related linguacultural approach remains dominant and inevitable (Subsection 5.4.1). However, using NES-based textbooks does not necessarily suggest that all the teachers faithfully deliver the US/UK-based linguacultural input to students, or that they will force students to reproduce English that conforms to this (Section 6.3). Recall, for instance, that among the five teachers, only Victor and Alex insisted that AmEng should be prioritised for the current FE course (Subsection 5.4.1.1). Christy and Lindsay criticised the US/ENL dominance and Grace insisted her students should evaluate and decide which linguacultural resources are useful for themselves (Subsection 5.4.1.1). In any case, as scholars have discussed (Subsection 2.3.3), this issue should be addressed under theme 2 in order to provide insights into: 1) teachers' approaches to use the linguacultural resources in the textbooks 2) how these approaches have created what learning opportunities, and 3) the ways in which teachers and their students reinforce or resist the prescribed US/ENL-based English (Subsection 6.3).

Since the delivery of communication-aware pedagogy is not mainstream (Subsection 5.4.1.1), it becomes vital to identify any speaking activity or teacher-led critical engagement with the presented linguacultural resources in the chosen textbooks in order to understand how teachers raise students' awareness of instances where resources fail to address real-world communication. These practices (if any) are ELF-aware and illuminate 1) teachers' beliefs about how to translate their interpretation of English for the real-world communication into practice and, 2) the skills and theories that the five teachers applied to carry out the abovementioned practices (i.e. theme 3).

In this chapter, which largely focuses on the captured observations, I take the opportunity to re-examine the pedagogical suggestions made by scholars to address the curricular and pedagogical assumptions as discussed in the literature review (Sections 2.3 and 2.4). Moreover, I can consider the possibility of ELF-aware classroom practices as a pedagogical alternative to the conventional ELT for teachers and/or students (Jenkins, 2007, 2012). That is, in this chapter I scrutinise classroom practices in order to

identify the potential factors that encourage or discourage the ideas of teaching English for lingua franca communication. This is followed by a discussion of the theories that underpin each teacher's decisions and practices as well as the potential impacts of the mentioned choices and practices on developing students' English for real-world communication purposes. Lastly, the evidence generated from analysing classroom practices will be drawn upon to reconceptualise the established ELT and/or SLA that these teachers have adopted, adapted or applied. By so doing I explore the possibility of integrating a lingua franca perspective into the established ELT and SLA theories (as discussed in Subsection 2.3.2) instead of highlighting the contradictions and tensions between them.

As the classroom practices are co-constructed by teachers and students (Walsh, 2011) and the investigated students' learning is teaching-dependent (Subsection 5.3.1), it is unreasonable to analyse teaching and learning practices separately. Therefore, in this chapter I merge the analysis of teacher-led training and students' responses to the received training. I analyse students' commentaries on the received training, echoing the critical education research to gain insights into students' ideas of connecting the English presented inside of classroom to that in the real-world communication (Subsection 3.2.2). This highlights students' views on learning English from a lingua franca perspective (Section 2.4) which has been lacking in much of the research scholarship to date. Due to the absence of students' voices regarding their received training, as noted in extant critical education research (Subsection 3.2.2) and ELF research (Section 2.4), I pay particular attention to students' commentary on listening and speaking training to discuss their learning practices. By doing this, I can gain insights into students' responses to the connection of the English presented inside of classroom to that of real-world communication.

I carried out content analysis of classroom practices and below, give brief background information regarding the audio recorded teaching and learning that comprised my observations, as mentioned previously in chapter 3. Approximately 65 hours of classroom observation data from five teachers was obtained over three months. Table 6.1 on p.107 sets out this data including teachers and participants' pseudonyms, course title, the number of students in each group of students, the duration of observation of each group and the course textbooks used during the observation. The duration of classroom observation of each teacher varied mainly due to different access to each teacher's classroom due to course and teacher scheduling issues.

Table 6.1: Contextual information about the observed classes

Pseudonym[5]	Course title	Student group(s) and number of students	Duration of observation	Textbook(s) and supplementary materials and students' level of English language proficiency
Grace (U1)	Oral Training 1 (OT1) for Group A and Oral Training 2 (OT2) for Group B	Group A: 17; Group B: 13	Group A: 12 hours; Group B: 16 hours	Group A: *Speech Communication: made simple*; English Major Group B: *Communicating effectively in English*;
Victor (U2)	Freshmen English	Group A: 42 Group B: 13	Group A: 8 hours; Group B: 4 hours	*Reading Explorer* 3; non-English Majors level B in U2 (the most advanced in U2)
Lindsay (U2)	Freshmen English	Group A: 32 Group B: 8 home and 4 international students	Group A: 2 hour; Groups B: 3 hours	*Reading Explorer* ; non-English Majors level B in U2 (the most advanced in U2)
Christy (U2)	Freshmen English	32 home and 1 international students	10 hours	*American Headway ; non-English Majors level C in U2* (intermediate in U2)
Alex (U3)	Freshmen English	32 students	12 hours	*Smart Choice; non-English Majors, level D in U3 (the fourth level of in U3)*

Where teachers taught two groups, I have presented the data from only the group that I spent longest observing. For instance, I select data from Grace's teaching to Group B because I observed that group for four more hours than Group A. This sampling strategy is also applied to present the analysis of Victor and Lindsay's classroom practices. Data analysis of student groups with international students is presented to demonstrate how Taiwanese teachers and students taught and learned English in a group with international students and to understand participants' lingua franca use of English in relation to the English presented in the materials or by the teachers. Next, I present the critical content analysis of classroom practices under the three themes (i.e. ELT contexts, materials, and finally, principles of using materials to teach/learn).

6.2 ELT contexts: Curriculum

Regarding the theme of ELT contexts, in Subsection 5.3.1 it was revealed that there are communication-aware teaching contexts in the three universities, regardless of the orientations of the prescribed institutional curriculums. All the focal teachers decided to teach communication-aware skills and subsequently, they chose or adapted materials in order to support this choice. Subsection 5.5.1

[5] Teachers were assigned the pseudonyms Grace, Victor, Lindsay, Christy and Alex to protect their identities in order to address ethical concerns (Section 3.8). For similar concerns, students were assigned code names formed of the first letter of classroom, the second letter of their teacher's pseudonym, the third letter of the word 'student' and a number. For instance, CGS1 is the first of Grace's students to be represented in the classroom data, CGS2 the second and so on (Appendix 5.1). To add the letter C in front of students is to distinguish the students who I presented in the classroom practice based extracts from the students who I interviewed to present in this chapter. The students who I interviewed are still coded as GS1 and GS2 who stand for the first and second student interviewees who learned speaking from Grace. For example, GS1 does not represent CGS1. That is, the former refers to the first student interviewee of Grace's students; the latter to the first student of Grace whose engagement in Grace' teaching is presented.

demonstrated that teachers planned to use listening and speaking activities to teach communication skills. By drawing on the observations of how each teacher implemented their listening and speaking activities, this section illuminates how communication-aware teaching contexts have been co-constructed and communication-related skills training is put into action.

Five teachers put their plan to use listening/speaking into practice (Subsection 5.5.1) and Extracts 6.1 to 6.5 contained in Tables 6.2 and 6.3 (see Appendices 6.1 and 6.2) illustrate the examples of these teachers' practice. Referring to Subsection 2.3.3, some researchers have claimed that the use of textbooks may hinder teaching and learning from a lingua franca perspective (Seidlhofer, 2011). However, the extant literature remains unclear regarding how the reliance on or deviation from the US/NEL-related resources in the textbooks can work, so I focus on teachers' decisions with respect to their approaches to using the chosen textbooks or materials.

Albeit their teaching was textbook-dependent (Subsection 5.3.2.1), the dependence on the chosen materials varied among the teachers due to the different teaching contexts (e.g. students' levels of English language proficiency and different textbooks). After reviewing the field notes and revisiting the recordings of the classroom practices, it emerges that the teachers adopted two approaches in deploying textbooks. One was to take a reserved manner and the other, to take a forthright one. The former entails textbook-detached whereas the latter contributes to textbook-attached delivery. Taking either approach is not necessarily a define pathway always used by the teachers, for the purposes of this discussion, it merely illuminates how some teachers tended to rely on the textbook more than others. The textbook-detached approach adopted by Grace, Christy, and Lindsay (Table 6.2) (see Appendix 6.1, pp.202-203) and the textbook-attached approach taken by Victor and Alex (Table 6.3) (see Appendix 6.2, p.204) are presented in the appendices. I discuss each teacher's theoretical motives for their employment of the textbook approach (i.e. teachers' stated motives in the interviews), their actual use of textbooks (i.e. the audio recorded observed practices).

These three teachers announced in the interviews their intention to teach beyond the prescribed language resources presented in the textbooks. In practice, I observed that three teachers employed different strategies to help them teach and their students learn with detachment from the linguacultural resources presented in the textbooks. Based on the commentary in Table 6.2, I identified the following strategies used by them to achieve this. These strategies include: selecting key points to avoid teaching in full compliance with textbooks (i.e. Grace) (Seidlhofer, 2011), utilising multiple textbooks (i.e. Lindsay), touching lightly on the prescribed linguacultural resources in the textbook (i.e. Christy and Lindsay) (Seidlhofer, 2011; Leung, 2013), negotiating alternative ways of using English beyond the prescriptive scope (i.e. Christy and Lindsay) (Seidlhofer, 2011), critically evaluating and selecting the linguacultural resources to deliver (i.e. Grace, Christy, and Lindsay) (Widdowson, 2012; Pennycook, 2012), adapting rather than adopting the provided linguacultural resources by getting students involved (i.e. Grace,

Christy, and Lindsay) (Guariento and Morley, 2001; Widdowson, 1998). As can be seen, classroom teachers need to deploy a myriad of skills when taking a textbook-detached approach to teaching.

It emerges that these practices pertaining to textbook-detached teaching have successfully drawn the students' attention (e.g. Grace, Christy, and Lindsay's students) to their own resources to use for speaking in local contexts (Pennycook, 2012; Widdowson, 1998), to legitimate language use by Grace, Christy, and Lindsay inside of the classroom as users (Seidlhofer, 2011), and to alternatives to the prescribed ways of using English (e.g. as shown by Christy and Lindsay) (Widdowson, 2012). The above suggests that the detached approach could lead to students having less exposure to the US/ENL-related resources than in the situation where there is textbook-dependent teaching. This approach also has led to a more student-based and less teacher-led language acquisition in terms of utilising students' resources, increasing students' use of English, and encouraging students to apply different ways to use English. These outcomes resulting from textbook-detached teaching further highlight the importance of teaching from the following perspectives which have been identified by scholars as being in line with the ELF perspective: the more student-centred or less teacher-led approach (Canagarajah, 2013) (Subsection 2.4.2.3), language use/user-mixed (i.e. Grace, Christy, and Lindsay) (Seidlhofer, 2011) (Subsection 2.4.2.1), critical (to evaluate, adopt and adapt the resources) (e.g. Grace, Christy, and Lindsay) (Pennycook, 2012; Widdowson, 2012) (Subsection 2.4.2.2), and interactive to introduce students' own resources and to engage in language practices inside of classroom (e.g. Grace, Christy, and Lindsay) (Duff and Talmy, 2011; Leung, 2013; Walsh, 2011) (Subsection 2.3.3).

Next, Victor and Alex's more unreserved reliance on textbooks or supplementary materials is discussed (see Table 6.3 in Appendix 6.2, p.204). Victor expressed his clear intention to introduce AmEng and culture to his students (Subsection 5.4.1.1) despite the fact that his students' English language proficiency was evidently better than the students taught by Christy and Lindsay and thus could possibly been able to deal with variety. It is not surprising to see Victor teaching with complete attachment to the linguacultural resources presented in the US-oriented supplementary materials. Victor taught communication skills but his textbook-attached approach and long term use of US-based materials to reinforce US-related linguacultural input may hinder his students from accessing other multilingual resources beyond those contained in the textbooks.

By contrast, Alex was aware of the inadequate linguacultural resources in the chosen textbooks. He decided to maintain the status quo and focus on AmEng as he planned (Subsection 5.4.1.1). His critical awareness illustrated his first step towards adopting a lingua franca perspective on ELT. However, as he explained, he did not bring raising students' linguacultural awareness forward due to his students' poor levels of English. According to Alex[6] (Subsection 5.4.1.1), if he had the opportunity to work with

[6] Alex was the only teacher who told me that he had learned about the concept of ELF by reading Jenkins (2000) in one of his MA modules (sociolinguistics).

'English Majors' (i.e. stronger students who have a higher English language proficiency than his students), he would introduce the 'multilingual nature of English' to his students. Further, in his opinion, teaching English with a lingua franca perspective was not just about the teacher's willingness as Alex expressed the view that contextual factors, such as the students' level of English and class size determines whether or not an ELF perspective can be introduced to classroom practices. Alex took a fundamental step to incorporate ELF perspective into his teaching by raising his students' awareness of the inappropriate linguacultural resources presented in the textbook which is consistent with some scholarship (Galloway, 2013; Matsuda, 2012). However, after flagging this up, to his students Alex returned to the status quo of rolling out the established US/ENL-based ELT practices.

I identified that the strategies for Victor and Alex involved their adopting rather than adapting textbooks in terms of their ideas of teaching and/or linguacultural resources, the way of using materials (e.g. long term, continued use of one kind), and teaching with faithful adherence to the presented linguacultural resources. Although they were critical, they did not put this into practice (Subsection 5.4.1.1) as there was little translation of their critical awareness of the dominant AmEng slant and awareness of their input of one kind of English. It is possible to advance two reasons for their preference for this approach to using the textbooks. One key issue appears to be their beliefs about their students' English being not ready which leads to an emphasis on teacher-led teaching (Subsection 5.4.2.1), which potentially stops teachers from developing their students as lingua franca users of English (Canagarajah, 2013). A second reason could be their apparent satisfaction with a certain resource. However, even if they do critique a resource in Alex's case he failed to address in his practice the identified limitations. This impedes students from learning to use multiple resources to prepare them for lingua franca use of English (Pennycook, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2011). Finally, it can be said that little attention was paid to students' language use and rather more to their learning. Taking this stance regarding teaching English in the classroom may further limit preparing students with lingua franca use of English (Seidlhofer, 2011). Overall, exposing students to one kind of English and taking one particular approach to using the resources presented in textbooks have kept Victor and Alex from trying out other approaches to using textbooks, resources, and managing teaching (see Tripp, 2012).

The analysis above echoes my review of two approaches to the use of textbooks in Subsection 2.3.3. As Richards and Rogers (2001:95) indicate, the use of textbook may 'impose a particular body of language content on the learners, thereby impeding their growth and interaction'. If so, it is likely that Alex and Victor's students' use of English could be restricted to the English presented to them in the textbook or the *Friends* TV sitcom. To the contrary, the textbook-detached approach confirms the points made by Leung (2013) and Guariento and Morley (2001) regarding allowing teachers to introduce other non-textbook linguacultural resources to engage in activities. To be specific, the selective, flexible, and evaluative ways adopted by three of the teachers when using textbooks allowed opportunities for their students to display creativity in using their language and the resources available (Pennycook, 2012;

Seidlhofer, 2011). Evidently, the latter approach allowed teachers Grace, Christy and Lindsay more space to enable students to use their own resources. In contrast, the former may have created learning opportunities to reproduce the prescribed language, which may not correspond to the multilingual nature of English language used in real-world communication as has been described by advocates of ELF (Jenkins, 2015).

As discussed in the last chapter, students' learning is teacher-dependent (Subsection 5.3.1.2). Further, it became clear that English Majors knew how to seek out and find their own resources while most non-English Majors relied heavily on their teachers' introduction of linguacultural resources into classroom practices (Subsection 5.3.2.2). Despite this dependency, some non-English Majors still believed that textbook-attached learning was necessary and should be set as the learning goal whereas English Majors chose to follow textbook-detached learning. For instance, GS5 indicated that 'we did not read every page. We had no idea what the whole textbook is about. Grace only picked some points to teach. After knowing the mentioned points, I am lazy to read the textbook again'. VS2 clearly pointed out his learning goal, '… learning towards that goal. Namely, I imitate the English presented in the audio CDs'. CS2 emphasized 'the English [presented in the CD] should be prioritised otherwise there will be linguistic deviation. Through learning, people may gradually speak English which is different from the original. … [For the original he meant that] English pronunciation by native speakers'. It appears to be the case that once teaching is textbook-detached this can encourage textbook-detached learning whereby the opportunities for incorporating lingua franca perspectives to teaching and learning English increase. Regarding this, from the above, English Majors' learning appeared to be textbook-detached while that on non-English Majors can be described as textbook-attached. The former might have encouraged students to use some of their own resources and own English. As would be expected, the latter has contributed to non-English Majors' dependence on the prescribed English given in the textbook which for some, has gone as far becoming their own learning goal (e.g. VS1 and CS2).

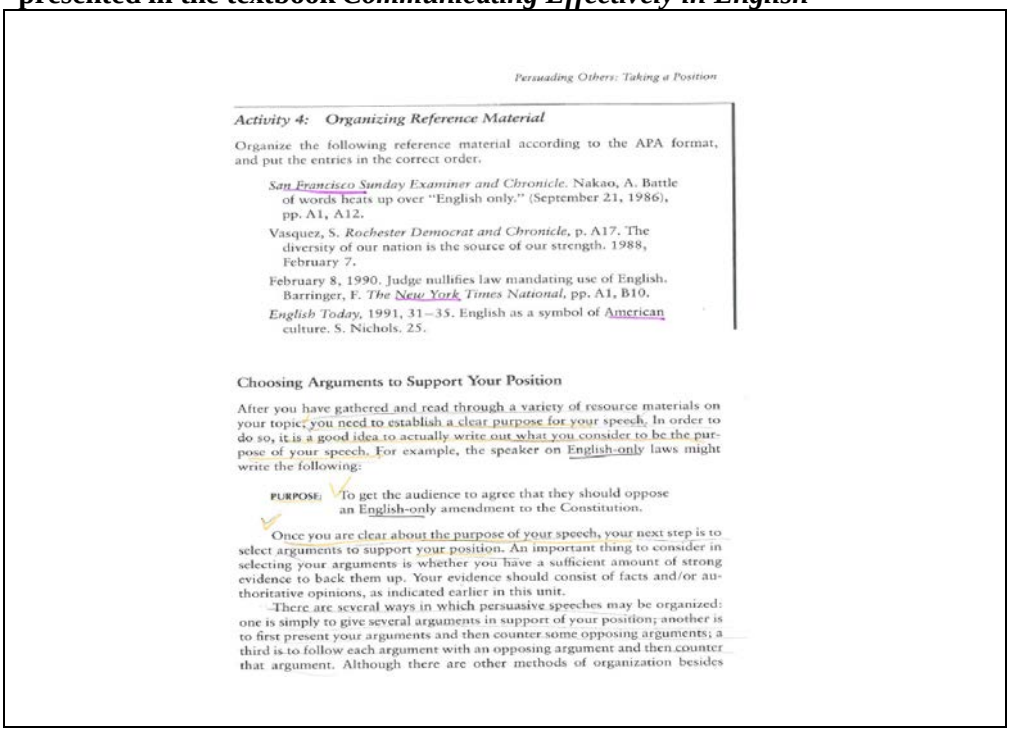
6.3 Materials: teaching and learning materials

This section, addressing the theme of materials, delineates how the described US/ENL-related linguacultural resources in the textbooks were actually presented to students as the input resources for communication skills training. Since teachers recognised the inevitable US/ENL linguacultural dominance (Subsection 5.4.1.1) and planned to employ the listening/speaking activities given in the chosen textbooks (Subsection 5.5.1), I examine how teachers use the aforementioned resources to carry out listening and speaking activities. Further, to consider the second aspect of the theme of materials I address the ways in which this connects to real-world communication. I analyse how the described resources are presented to students in activities. Then I consider the ways in which teachers and students' own English is introduced into classroom practices as elements of linguacultural resources. Lastly, I

discuss how the presented resources are drawn together to teach/learn English potentially might be used by students for real-world communication.

First, I exemplify how the US/ENL-related linguacultural resources are represented in the chosen materials including the textbooks and then re-presented to students through teachers and students' use of them in classroom practices. Figure 6.1 gives an example of how the textbook for the OT2 course presents the US-based linguacultural resources to English Majors for speaking training.

Figure 6.1 An example of Grace' use of an US-related linguacultural resource presented in the textbook *Communicating Effectively in English*



Persuading Others: Taking a Position

Activity 4: Organizing Reference Material

Organize the following reference material according to the APA format, and put the entries in the correct order.

San Francisco Sunday Examiner and Chronicle. Nakao, A. Battle of words heats up over "English only." (September 21, 1986), pp. A1, A12.

Vasquez, S. *Rochester Democrat and Chronicle,* p. A17. The diversity of our nation is the source of our strength. 1988, February 7.

February 8, 1990. Judge nullifies law mandating use of English. Barringer, F. *The New York Times National,* pp. A1, B10.

English Today, 1991, 31–35. English as a symbol of American culture. S. Nichols. 25.

Choosing Arguments to Support Your Position

After you have gathered and read through a variety of resource materials on your topic, you need to establish a clear purpose for your speech. In order to do so, it is a good idea to actually write out what you consider to be the purpose of your speech. For example, the speaker on English-only laws might write the following:

PURPOSE: To get the audience to agree that they should oppose an English-only amendment to the Constitution.

Once you are clear about the purpose of your speech, your next step is to select arguments to support your position. An important thing to consider in selecting your arguments is whether you have a sufficient amount of strong evidence to back them up. Your evidence should consist of facts and/or authoritative opinions, as indicated earlier in this unit.

There are several ways in which persuasive speeches may be organized: one is simply to give several arguments in support of your position; another is to first present your arguments and then counter some opposing arguments; a third is to follow each argument with an opposing argument and then counter that argument. Although there are other methods of organization besides

Grace used this US-based resource to teach English Majors how to make a persuasive speech; that is, students were instructed to speak for or against the English-only legislation in the USA. Under this exercise, if students decide to use this topic they need to have some knowledge about the English-only laws[7] and the contexts in which the laws were initiated and implemented.in America. This example of a representation confirms that the US/ENL-based resources were invariably introduced to students in theory (i.e. represented as a kind of learning resource) and in practices (i.e. textbook-based teaching and learning). In the field notes I wrote 'different topics are covered (e.g. criminal rape, mercy killing, voluntary work, aliens, junk food, sex education, divorce rate, high school life, working experience, recycling, cram schools, eastern vs. western medicine, etc.) (Appendix 3.2). I observed that none of the students chose to argue about the topic presented to them and Extract 6.6 below illustrates how CGS3

[7] The English–only laws are also known as the English-only movement to establish the official status of English language in the US and the impacts of implementing the laws on the US immigrants' lives had stimulated intensive debates in the US.

and CGS4 drew upon their own resources to prepare for their debate instead of using the one provided in the textbook.

Extract 6.6 Grace's students' use of their own resources

1	CGS1	你高中的時候有 sex education 嗎 <did you have sex education in high school>?
2	CGS2	Err, 好像有。<Hum, I think (.) yes.>
3	CGS1	What did you learn from that?
4	CGS2	Hum, @@@ don't have sex too early.

Extract 6.6 shows how Grace's students responded to the resources presented in the textbook. CGS1 chose a topic which could be discussed and elaborated on by Taiwanese, even though there is a prescribed topic (see *Communicating Effectively in English*, page 111). In order to practice speaking, CGS1 gained resources from one of her learning partners, such as drawing on CGS2's high school experience (ll.1-4). In addition, GS1 commented on the resources provided in the textbook, 'some of the topics are useful and I made progress. Others do not mean much to me although I would still like to explore them. Yet, they [the given topics] are simply outside my scope of experience. Therefore, I prefer themes which are more relevant to us [students] and we can talk [as much as we can]'. In the interviews, the other English Majors and Grace (see Subsection 5.4.1.1) agreed with GS1's remarks on the need for students to re-evaluate and judge whether the presented linguacultural resources are suitable for them to practice speaking. CGS1's response to the provided US-related topic is a case in point.

Referring to Subsection 5.4.1.1, Grace stressed her belief about the need for an open approach to any linguacultural resources presented in textbooks and the importance of creating opportunities for her students to evaluate and select any useful resources by themselves. On this issue, in class, Grace suggested to her students, ' …, if you have any other good, you know, topic you really want to, you know, deliver**,** it is all welcome. OK. If you don't really have any idea, so you can go back to this, page 111, to refer to anything, which one maybe can give you some ideas, OK? Or if you still don't have ideas, maybe you decide from one out of this list and choose to reframe your topic. OK'. Grace's suggestion above shows her openness towards any linguacultural resources. Her advice on exploring the useful resources illustrates her intention to develop students' competence to exploit the available resources (Subsection 5.4.1.1). Her theory and practice of teaching students to become resourceful speakers of English shows is consistent with Seidlhofer's (2011) proposal about teacher openness to resources for language use (Subsection 2.4.2.1) and Pennycook's (2012) advice on developing students' ability to manipulate different resources in order to be able to communicate (Subsection 2.4.2.2). Moreover, Grace's student-dependent approach to fostering students' competence to explore useful resources and communicate also resonates with Canagarajah's (2013) recommendation about developing competent speakers of English by discarding teacher-led pedagogy.

Similar findings are identified with respect to the US/ENL-related linguacultural resources represented in the chosen textbooks used by the non-English Majors' teachers to teach listening and speaking. Below I provided one example of linguacultural representation to students in U2 and another to students in U3.

In U2, I analysed Victor's use of an American TV sitcom for two reasons. Firstly, Victor valued this AmEng resource because this material allowed his students to focus on one kind of English, AmEng (Subsection 5.4.1.1) and the use of English presented in *Friends* was claimed by him to be close to his students' lives (Subsection 5.4.2.1). Secondly, US linguacultural dominance can be considered from a slightly different perspective by analysing non-textbook materials. To this end, I referred to website information about *Friends* and examined the potential linguacultural resources that *Friends* could provide students. The storyline of *Friends* is about six friends, living off of one another in New York and all the six main actors have US/ENL linguistic backgrounds. When this American sitcom is introduced to the classroom as listening material, it is reasonable to predict that US-related linguacultural input is unavoidable because of the type of English used by the actors and the contexts in which they act out the story and converse with each other. Extract 6.7 demonstrates how the US/ENL linguacultural resources were presented to Victors' students for listening enhancement.

Extract 6.7 The US linguacultural resources present to Victor's students

1 2 3 4	Victor	Ok, the next line. Rachel says, well this has a story, this has a story. Has 跟 story 中間加一個 a <Please add the definite article 'a' between has and story.>. This has a story. 我少打一個 a…<I did not type 'a'.> Ok, here we go. (Victor plays audio material to continue listening training)‖
5	CVS1	But I have some questions in the handout that I don't have the answers yet.
6 7	Victor	That's all right. You can read questions first and if your answer is **incorrect**, {I'll tell you.}
8	CVS1	{But this sounds awkward.}
9 10 11	Victor	It doesn't matter. If you don't know the answer, just (.) let me know and I will **provide you answers**.‖Ok. She said that the apartment is already what? (.) ((CVS2: subletted.))他說 <He said> subletted, right. Subletted *(sic).*

The following were consistently interwoven in Victor's teaching practice: playing audio tracks from *Friends* (ll.1-4), checking answers in accordance with the linguacultural norms provided in materials (ll.6-11), explaining listening/speaking materials (ll.10-11), and encouraging students to learn the English spoken by the characters in *Friends* (l.11). As a result of his teaching being routinised in this way, the presentation of the US linguacultural resources for listening training was repeated. This further led to little space for negotiating linguacultural alternatives. I also observed that Victor emphasized the importance of accuracy through correcting his typos in his handout (l.3), insisting on correct answers from his student (l.6) and, from himself (l.11). This emphasis underlines that his use of linguacultural resources from *Friends* was in strict conformity with the English presented in this TV sitcom.

Victor gave several reasons to explain his use of *Friends.* In terms of language, he emphasized that the 'colloquial' English presented is 'suitable' for his students and the language is close to 'students' real-life language use' (see Subsection 5.4.1.1). In terms of cultural resources, he explained, 'I did not take the cultural representation in *Friends* into account. I know it is American, very American. Even so, it is not easy to choose inclusive materials….integrating multiple layers of cultural input is not my consideration'. Referring to Subsection 5.4.1.1, Victor did not claim to introduce non-American English and this analysis supports the point that he did not aim to introduce non-American cultural resources either. This decision underlines that his goal is that his students focus on one kind of English only, that is, AmEng (Subsection 5.4.1.1) as well as just one culture, that is, an American one. Simultaneously, Victor was aware that he 'should not reinforce this mainstream (US) dominance'. In this case, lingua franca awareness regarding English usage and knowledge of the existence of other cultural resources did not bring about the deployment of alternative resources. Seidlhofer (2011) and Baker (2015a; 2015b) have opined that teaching in a manner that strongly adheres to NES English and cultures may yield little space for developing ELF-aware pedagogy (Subsection 2.3.3). Victor's decision on the linguacultural resources illustrates a good example of maintaining US linguacultural dominance which at the same time, has led his teaching to be poorly aligned with ELF.

The students' attitudes towards the use of *Friends* were mixed with two broad reactions being discernible. VS4 reported that 'I made progress [in listening to *Friends*]'. VS5 also felt that listening to '*Friends*' was helpful because 'at least the accent is clear' for him to listen to. Although VS6 agreed that listening to *Friends* was useful, VS6 still hoped he could understand 'what (Rafael) Nadal said [about his match]' With regards to this, VS5 said that he could not understand Nadal's use of English to comment his match on *ESPN* even after many years of listening training, including the training received from Victor that was based on *Friends* and other CDs. VS1 pointed out, 'there are other movies in addition to *Friends* that could be used in the lessons'. VS3 concluded that 'speaking of the relevance [of the linguacultural resources] to our lives, I think the [linguacultural] content must be something that takes place in our lives. However, this definition cannot be applied to everyone… because everyone has different experiences'. VS3's comments aligned with Grace and her students' opinions, namely, that the relevance of linguacultural resources should be evaluated and judged by students themselves and cannot be the same for everyone.

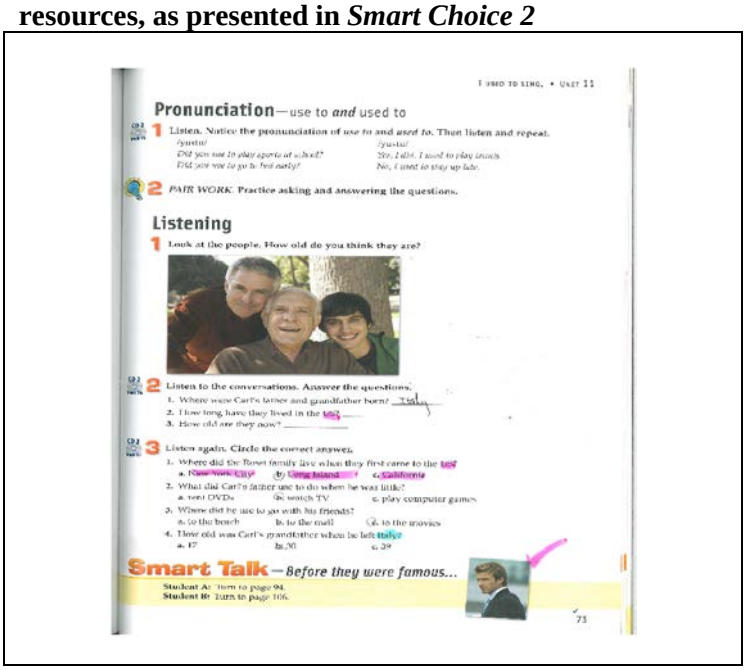
In Victor's case, I noted that the use of AmEng linguacultural resources in the materials is not only inevitable but also intentional, further leading to the reinforcement of the US linguacultural input. Students' responses to the input resources either agreed that the input was useful, enabling them to listen and understand the presented English or disagreed saying that this linguacultural exposure did not really help them understand other forms of English (e.g. Nadal's English (VS5)) and reduced their opportunities to listen to other linguacultural resources.

As can be seen from the situation with Victor's teaching, some students argued for one single form of input material whereas other would have preferred multiple input resources. This mixed response suggests that the relevance of presented linguacultural resources to students' real-world language use is difficult to judge. That is, it cannot be determined by textbook writers, teachers, or researchers and is in fact down to the students themselves. Grace's open approach highlighted the need for students to connect any resources that they draw on to their own real-world language use and there cannot be a one-size fits all in terms of linguacultural representation and lingua franca use of English. It follows from this that it is not possible to anticipate all-in-one input resources that are relevant to all students (Ellis and Shintani, 2014) and as a consequence, fostering students' critical engagement in evaluating the provided resources and seeking out their own preferred alternatives (Yu, 2015) should be facilitated, as Grace suggested above.

For the context of U3, the US/UK-related linguacultural resources presented to Alex's students for listening and speaking practices are shown in Figure 6.2 below. For discussing this linguacultural representation, I focus on the analysis of teachers and textbook writers' perspective on learning AmEng.

Figure 6.2 below shows representation in *Smart Choice 2* (page 73). The listening activity is designed for students to listen to the story about an Italian immigrant family's life in California. On the same page, Wilson (2008), the author of *Smart Choice 2*, refers to information about UK/US celebrities and included a speaking activity for students to hold with each other. Later I will return to how Alex put this speaking activity into practice (Section 6.4). It was not a surprise to find that these US/ENL-related resources were presented to Alex's students to practice their listening and speaking.

Figure 6.2 An example of US/UK-related linguacultural resources, as presented in *Smart Choice 2*



Pronunciation — use to *and* used to

1 Listen. Notice the pronunciation of *use to* and *used to*. Then listen and repeat.

2 *PAIR WORK.* Practice asking and answering the questions.

Listening

1 Look at the people. How old do you think they are?

2 Listen to the conversations. Answer the questions.

1. Where were Carl's father and grandfather born? Italy
2. How long have they lived in the US? ___
3. How old are they now? ___

3 Listen again. Circle the correct answer.

1. Where did the Turet family live when they first came to the US?
   a. New York City b. Long Island c. California
2. What did Carl's father use to do when he was little?
   a. rent DVDs b. watch TV c. play computer games
3. Where did he use to go with his friends?
   a. to the beach b. to the mall c. to the movies
4. How old was Carl's grandfather when he left Italy?
   a. 17 b. 30 c. 39

Smart Talk — *Before they were famous...*

Student A: Turn to page 94.
Student B: Turn to page 106.

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As can be seen below in Extract 6.8, Alex's use of CDs for *Smart Choice 2* exposed his students to the English presented in them (e.g. l.4 and l.9). It is of note that Wilson (2008) indicated that 'Smart Choice is a four-level course for adult and young adult learners of American English'. Following this point, Alex's choice and use of *Smart Choice 2* meant his students heard AmEng and could use US/UK related cultural resources for speaking (Extract 6.11 see Appendix 6.4, p.206). This is consistent with Alex's decision to let his students commence learning just one kind of English first (Subsection 5.4.1.1). When I asked Alex about the use of any supplementary material, he indicated that *Smart Choice* was the primary material and he sometimes referred to the teacher's guide, thus showing his reliance on the textbook for practical ideas and the content of his teaching. Extract 6.8 below displays Alex's use of the audio resources attached to the textbook to teach listening. Hence, it is evident that exposing students to other kinds of English language resources was not considered in Alex's FE course.

Extract 6.8 Alex's use of the US-based linguacultural resource given in the textbook for listening training

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	Alex:	Ok a(:)nd today we are going to the second part of unit 11 so(:) please turn to page 73, ok 73. (.5) Ok, we are going to cover er the rest listening part. And you can see on page 73. This is a picture of grandfather, father and son. OK. This is about interview about family history. OK. … So firs-, first time, ok, you are going to listen to the CD er **twice**. But the first time you will [==] the questions in part 2 ok. "Where were Carl's father and grandfather born?" So basically you [=] figure out in the listening where they born? Carl's father and grandfather, they born in different [==], different countries ok. Question 2 "how long have they lived **in the US**?" How long? Ok, number 3 …. Now just listen to the CD **for the first time**. For the first time, you just figure out, you just **find the answers to** the three questions. Ok, ready?

Like Victor's students, the U3 students (i.e. Alex's) held a range of views towards the English presented in the audio resources of the textbook. To avoid repetition, I focus briefly on a point that Alex's students raised in addition to those already covered. For some of Alex's students, the textbook demonstrated to them the English they needed for examination purposes. Referring to Subsection 5.4.2.2, AS4 problematized the English presented in the textbook highlighting the purpose of studying English for passing tests rather than 'to converse with people' (Table 5.5). Alex's students were aware of the tenuous linkage of the presented English to the English that is used for the real-world communication.

Overall, with regards to students, the English Majors' responses to the presented linguacultural resources demonstrate their critical skills to first evaluate and then apply other resources. The observation about English Majors' competences to find other resources that are relevant to their lives resonate with Canagarajah' s (2013) views on learners' strategies to deal effectively with presented linguacultural resources (Subsection 2.4.2.3). With respect to linguacultural resources given in textbooks relied on for students' language acquisition, Canagarajah (1999) argues that 'students seek connections to their cultural and social context from visuals and narratives that lack local relevance'

and CGS1's practice and GS1's point of view aligns with his perspective. On the contrary, it was found that non-English Majors were generally less critical about the linguacultural resources for practicing listening and speaking. However, most non-English Majors were aware that specific kinds of English and cultures were repeatedly introduced to them through the textbooks. Some of non-English Majors mentioned some other potential resources, such as English spoken by an international sportsman and the English that people use for conversation in the real-world (e.g. VS1, VS6, and AS4). Some others felt satisfied with what was available to them. Nonetheless English Majors have evidently acquired better critical skills than non-English Majors which points to the importance of introducing critical engagement activities to develop the evaluation skills of non-English Majors, who in this study formed the majority of learners.

With respect to the theme of materials, I found that the US/ENL linguacultural resources were usually and perhaps in some cases, inevitably presented to students in the listening and speaking activities that emerged from teacher and students' textbook-dependent teaching and learning. The intensity of dependency varied slightly between the teachers but was a dominant feature. Drawing on SLA scholars' (Ellis, 2012:115; Gass et al., 2013) conceptualisation of input resources available to learners as 'what learners are exposed to' (Subsection 2.3.3), it can be said that the student participants in my research have had consistent exposure to the US/ENL-based linguacultural resources. This has been reinforced through the textbook-dependent teaching as well as teacher/materials-dependent learning observed in practice. Consequently, the US/ENL-based linguacultural prevalence was retained through teachers selecting the US/ENL-based materials, presenting and representing the US/ENL linguacultural resources to students and using these to teach and learn inside classrooms.

The textbook-based teaching and learning did not necessarily help students with real-world language use. Under this lens, the linguacultural resources represented in the chosen textbooks have evidently established a tenuous link to the real-world language use as students identified. Students had noticed that the prescribed English in their textbooks was different from the English spoken by their teachers, international classmates and their own. They also indicated that they could not produce the language prescribed by the textbooks (Subsection 5.5.2). In other words, the prescribed English in the textbooks was beyond students' competence to produce. In turn, this highlights the importance of suggesting that students attempt textbook-detached learning, which echoes the ELF concern about teaching English that adequately prepares students for lingua franca use (Seidlhofer, 2011).

As indicated in Subsection 2.3.3, the majority studies on ELT materials from the perspective of WE have focused on how the represented linguacultural resources are inconsistent with regards to real-world communicative resources but failed to address how this impacts on teachers and students' understanding of English language use. The above analysis of materials indicates that monolingual and/or monocultural representation and resources for teaching and learning come primarily from textbooks

used in Taiwanese EFL contexts because the other two key input resources (i.e. teachers and students) do not have an US/ENL background. This highlights the importance of understanding how US/ENL-related ELT materials should be used to achieve an ELF-aware pedagogy.

6.4 Principles of using materials to teach/learn

Above in my discussion of the two themes ELT contexts and materials, the mismatch between the represented linguacultural resources in ELT materials with those present in real-world communication has been identified (see Ke, 2012b; Matsuda, 2012b) and the US/ENL linguacultural dominance entrenched in textbooks (see Gray, 2010) has been established. Moreover, I have unearthed the fact that the five teachers and their students were aware of the linguacultural dominance and the inadequacies in the chosen textbooks. However, the teachers were in the situation where they inevitably re-introduced this dominance to some degree in their practice. In this section, the first issue covered is teachers' reactions to the US/ENL linguacultural dominance and the textbook inadequacy. Teachers' rationales for what resource input to deliver and the impact of their chosen resources on students' English language acquisition and/or use are examined from an ELF perspective. My analysis commences with two specific approaches taken by teachers to deal with the US/ENL linguacultural resources (Table 6.4 and Table 6.5) (see Appendices 6.3 and 6.4, pp.205-206). The first focuses on Victor who unconditionally accepted the linguacultural resources presented in the textbooks and the second features those teachers who critically evaluated the linguacultural resources in front of their students using this as a learning opportunity in their classroom teaching (i.e. Grace, Christy, Lindsay, and Alex).

Extract 6.9 (see Appendix 6.3) shows that Victor did not comment and/or alter the linguacultural resources provided in *Friends*. Victor unreservedly accepted the US linguacultural resources, aligning with his wish to teach AmEng (Subsection 5.4.1) and his refusal to incorporate multicultural input (Section 6.3). His belief about teaching students US/ENL language and cultures was counter to the multilingual, multicultural perspective regarding ELT practices in EFL contexts (Jenkins, 2012; Kirkpatrick and Sussex, 2012). He also does not appear to acknowledge the possibility for critical resistance to the AmEng dominance (Canagarajah, 1999, 2013; Pennycook, 1994, 2010b). In addition he seems to make no attempt to bridge the gap between classroom English and the real-world communication (Ranta, 2010).

Victor explained to me that his students 'had received this training for almost a year' as illustrated in Table 6.3 (Section 6.2) (see Appendix 6.2, p.204). The longitudinal use of the same material and teaching approach flags up his rejection of alternative means of conducting the lessons. Further, his unwavering decisions perhaps indicate that he did not theoretically or practically question his underlying assumptions about nature of input resources and teaching employing these resources. As Tripp (2012:16) indicates, if teachers do not critically reflect on their own practice, this will lead to 'one form of interpretation' of certain theories as a result of their 'ignorance of or refusal to accept other

approaches'. In this case, it seems very unlikely that Victor could consider ELF as a pedagogical choice. Moreover, as learning is teacher-dependent his students' learning of communication skills is AmEng and American culture focused, and not ELF-aware. The other four teachers still duplicate the US/ENL linguacultural input because their teaching was textbook-dependent (Subsection 5.3.1.1 and Sections 6.3 and 6.4). However, Victor faithfully reproduces the US/ENL linguacultural resources and his unconditional acceptance produces what could be termed imitation with regards to acquiring the presented linguacultural input (Gass and Selinker, 2008:305).

SLA scholars (Gass and Selinker, 2008:305) contend that imitation serves as 'the primary mechanism' following a behaviourist stance towards language acquisition and it only serves to restrict learners in that they only learn what they are exposed to. Thus, Gass and Selinker (2008) observe that imitation must be challenged due to its over-simplistic view on how learners may produce language in a variety of ways and not simply by copying what they are given exposure to (p, 305). On this point, Victor overlooked the potential danger of exposing his students to only one kind of English. He also disregarded the likelihood that the imitation approach can hinder students' desire to explore possible different ways to use English, that is, a lingua franca use of English (Jenkins et al., 2011).

Victor's insistence on imitating the provided US English as performed in the episodes of *Friends* or on CDs, drew his students' attention to the form-based classroom practice. This further ignores the forms and functions of other kinds of English i.e. the students' English and the functions of the students' English. Cogo (2008:60) indicates that 'ELF is both form and function' and highlighted the interrelationship of these two. Canagarajah (2013) suggests that form-based teaching should be discarded in order to prepare students for lingua franca use of English (Subsection 2.4.2.3). Above, Victor's teaching was not ELF-aware from the perspective of connecting form to function of English.

Arguing against using imitation for language learning and drawing on writing theory (i.e. 'say it in your own words'), Pennycook (2010b:139) proposes that repeating language is inevitable and can be useful for learning a language but only when the repetition of the provided linguacultural resources is not simply imitation. It is necessary for learners to 'appreciate' the copying, repeating, and reproducing can reflect alternative uses (i.e. 'quasi-creativity') to the pre-given ones. The major difference between learning language through repetition and imitation is that the repetition focuses on the learners' 'creative act', which pertains to their ways of repeating the English. When I questioned Victor's concept of imitation, I said 'I found that they [Victor's students] would "simply copy" the sentences [presented to them]…for me, that is reading [the answers to you] rather than speak in their own language…'.Victor replied, 'Yes, [they are] reading it out loud and it is a speaking training…Unless I asked them why and how questions [based on textbooks] to enable them to speak in their own ways…' After exchanging ideas with me, Victor realised that the idea of teaching students to imitate the language presented in *Friends* (see Extract 6.6) was not the form of 'repetition', as advocated by Pennycook (2010b:139). In

other words, Victor's teaching approach did not allow his students to activate their creativity and say the same/similar sentences in different contexts. His approach did not stimulate students to carry out self-regulated learning, (as seen in the case of Alex (Extract 6.18) (see Appendix 6.5, p.207)). In sum, Victor's underpinning beliefs about learning resources and his teaching approaches thus have reinforced his practice that apparently refuses to incorporate any ELF perspective. Next, I discussed four teachers' critical responses to the inadequate US/ENL dominant linguacultural resources presented in their teaching materials (see Appendix 6.4, p.206)

Among these four teachers (Grace, Alex, Lindsay and Christy), I identified two subcategories of their critical teaching practices in response to the presented US/ENL dominant or linguacultural awareness. The first subcategory is that teachers carried on using the inadequate/dominant linguacultural resources after they critically evaluated the resources (i.e. Grace and Alex). For instance, Grace continued teaching after critically evaluating the input resource (Extract 6.10) (see Appendix 6.4) and let her students explore and alternative resources (Subsection 5.4.1.1) (see also Extract 6.6). Alex's students completed the task even though they did not know of Tony Blair, let alone Mr Blair's music interest (Extract 6.11, Table 6.5). Despite Alex being aware of the inappropriate linguacultural resources (Subsection 5.4.1.1), his textbook-attached approach to textbook resources remained inevitable (Subsection 6.2) which he put down to the reason that his students' English language proficiency was classified as at a basic primary level. Above, Grace and Alex resisted the inadequate linguacultural resources for speaking and their common resolution to the problematic linguacultural resource was to raise their students' awareness of the linguacultural inadequacy. This echoes scholars' suggestions to teachers about raising students' awareness of the US/ENL dominant resources in ELT materials in order to teach English towards an EIL/ELF-aware pedagogy (e.g. Lopriore and Vettorel, 2015; Matsuda and Friedrich, 2012).

Furthermore, Grace let her English Majors explore the alternatives whereas Alex decided to continue with the problematic text mainly because he assumed that his students were unable to seek alternatives over and above the textbook contents (Figure 6.2). Grace's decision echoes Pennycook's suggestion about exploring multiple resources to become resourceful users of English (Subsection 2.4.2.2) while Alex's decision at this stage directed his students to acquire AmEng (Table 6.5 in Appendix 6.2, p.204) (Section 6.3). In Alex's opinion, raising his students' awareness of the inadequate linguacultural input was sufficient for his students who still needed a great deal of language support from him and the textbook.

Both incidents of teaching showed that incorporating an ELF perspective was not unconditional. That is, this choice depends not only on teachers' knowledge about but also on whether they have sufficient critical skills and employ them to examine the linguacultural resources. Moreover, the choice is conditional on having ideas about what teaching can be used to realise ELF-aware classroom practices.

Thirdly, whether incorporating ELF is feasible has to be considered in accordance with the instructional contexts (the surrounding factors impacting upon practice). This range of considerations underlines Widdowson's (2012:11-12) point about teaching 'realistic English' rather than real English, that is, teaching the English which is feasible in classroom conditions. Expanding on Widdowson's idea, I observed that Alex's decision regarding increasing his students' linguacultural awareness of the US/ENL dominance and its inadequacy is the way he interpreted making ELF feasible in his teaching environment. Grace's choice also demonstrated a flexible way to incorporate an ELF perspective into her practice.

The second subcategory is that of resistance, referring to teachers who altered the input thus demonstrating their reaction to the US/ENL-related resources (Table 6.5 in Appendix 6.4, p.206). Referring to Section 6.2, Christy prioritised getting her students to engage in speaking so she emphasized flexibility in utilising the linguacultural resources provided in the textbook. Lindsay preferred teaching beyond the textbook writer's perspective and adopted different ways to teach same or similar activities. Extract 6.12 and Extract 6.13 (see Appendix 6.4) illustrate good examples of the stated ideas of using textbooks and how these ideas have been translated into actions. In terms of practice, these two teachers have increased their students' linguacultural awareness by critically evaluating the linguacultural input with them in the lesson. Another option is to alter the linguacultural input resource. Christy, for instance, drew students' attention to the alternative, relating the discussion to her students' colour of eyes, rather than blue eyes that are very uncommon among Asian people. To develop learners' 'communicative capability', Widdowson (2012:11-12) insists that teaching should 'relate to the context of the learners' and it can be said that Christy and Lindsay's alterations of the input resources and their students' contributions of their own, have developed students' communicative capability from being ENL and towards ELF.

The above four teachers' responses to linguacultural resources have demonstrated how they translated their linguacultural awareness of US/ENL-dominance or inadequate textbook resources into critical evaluation that they use as a teaching incident. By doing this, the teachers' critical evaluation is a stimulus input to raise students' awareness of potential inadequate linguacultural inputs (i.e. the monolingual/US resources). Canagarajah (2013: 201-202) stresses that monolingual ideologies have been consistently reproduced 'in educational settings' and advocates that 'critical intervention' such as the instances shown here should be 'committed by teachers' (see also Pennycook, 2012).

Their critical intervention raises a pedagogical point pertaining to either the teachers or the students needing to decide on how to use the US/ENL-related resources. The first choice is that Grace let her students to explore their own resources to de-centre the provided one (Extract 6.6 on p.111). The second option was demonstrated by Alex who used the same resource to complete the speaking activity (Extract 6.11) (Appendix 6.4, p.206). The third choice is that decided on by Christy and Lindsay who altered

the resources after raising students' awareness of the inadequate US-related resources (Extracts 6.12 and 6.13) (Appendix 6.4, p.206). It appears that the teachers' critical interventions can create opportunities to introduce the students' English to negotiate around new resources through encouraging interactions.

Following on from this, it is apparent that the English Majors' teacher (Grace) gave the decision over to her students whereas non-English Majors' teachers still helped them. Jenkins (2007) proposes an ELF perspective as an alternative for students to choose how to learn English. In my study, English Majors practiced speaking by utilising to the topics provided by textbooks and drew upon their own resources to elaborate the chosen topics instead of relying on the provided US-based resources (e.g. Extract 6.6, p.111). I thus found that English Majors' choice to learn English on their own is consistent with Jenkins' point about taking the ELF perspective as an alternative approach to learn English beyond established perspectives, such as using the US oriented resources (i.e. beyond a monolingual, monocultural perspective). For non-English Majors, ELF as an alternative appears more complex than simply a choice about whether to accept ELF or not. Other contextual factors affect whether students are in the position to choose to learn English from an ELF stance. For instance, Alex's students still needed substantial linguistic support from their textbook and teacher. This confirms that teaching/learning from an ELF perspective is not unconditional. Moreover, as non-English Majors' learning is heavily teacher-dependent, this stresses the importance of the role of teachers' knowledge about ELF and their preconceived ideas about teaching, in positioning ELF-aware pedagogy as an alternative way forward in general English training courses, such as the FE courses in U2 and U3.

The teachers' critical evaluation of the presented resources points to SLA and ELT considerations regarding the importance of evaluating teaching/learning materials during teaching practices. For instance, Clarke (1994:23) has argued that teachers need 'to keep their own counsel regarding what works and does not work' in classroom practices. These four teachers' critical comments also support the work of critical pedagogy scholars (Akbari, 2008a; 2008b) and ELF researchers (e.g. Canagarajah, 2013; Pennycook, 2012; Yu, 2015) that emphasises the need for teachers' critical engagement in teaching/ learning resources and practices in order for them to connect to ELF-aware pedagogy (Subsections 2.4.2 and 2.5.2). So far, the analysis has illustrated that critical engagement with the established US/ENL-related linguacultural resources can be applied to the teaching of students of all levels of English proficiency (from weak FE students through to highly competent English Majors).

Referring back to Subsection 2.3.3, an essential but hitherto absent aspect in research is how teachers and students actually address the aforementioned mismatch between the presented linguacultural resources in the textbooks and those used in the real-world communication. The evidence above demonstrates two approaches to address the US/ENL linguacultural dominance or textbook/material inadequacy. One is Victor's unconditional acceptance of US linguacultural resources and input and the

other is the four teachers' critical evaluation of US/ENL resources and dominance during their teaching. Clearly, the former has led to the reproduction of US/ENL and reinforced inadequate linguacultural input. The latter has opened up an opportunity for teachers and their students to choose alternatives. This highlights the teachers' critical engagement with the input resources as the fundamental initial step towards challenging the assumptions embedded in language (e.g. the assumption that students have travelled to the US in Lindsay's teaching material) and thinking and teaching otherwise (i.e. teaching beyond the conventional perspective, such as Christy and Lindsay's work) (see Pennycook, 2012). It also yields space for other teaching approaches, such as incorporating further classroom practices from an ELF perspective (i.e. adapting materials) into classroom practice. More specifically, when the students are not very competent, such as the non-English Majors in my study, it then becomes important for teachers to adapt materials and teaching approaches in order to allow learning from an ELF perspective to take place. Next there is further discussion of the four non-English Majors' teaching within or beyond an ELF perspective.

Referring to Subsection 2.3.3 in the literature review, Seidlhofer (2011) points out that teaching in strict adherence to the linguacultural resources presented in textbooks offers limited space for ELF-aware pedagogy. In terms of practice, the above indicated that Victor's teaching practice was the least ELF-aware among the five teachers because he not only did carry out textbook-based teaching but also his aim was to reproduce the US linguacultural input (Sections 6.4 and 6.5). As mentioned, the critical engagement with teaching resources and approaches is the fundamental starting point to allow new approaches and perspectives to be integrated in teaching or for conventional approaches to be adapted, such as ELF perspective to be integrated into ELT practices (Widdowson, 2012; Pennycook, 2012). Three teachers critically evaluated materials to raise students' awareness of the US/ENL linguacultural dominance and inadequacy as a part of their teaching practice and their teaching was more ELF-aware than Victor's. Among these three, Alex did not bring his critical awareness forward but chose to teach in compliance with US/ENL resources which led to reproduction the of US/ENL dominance and his teaching became less ELF-aware than Christy and Lindsay's. Overall, Christy and Lindsay's teaching was more ELF-aware than the other two non-English Majors' teachers, but clearly Alex's teaching was more ELF-aware than Victor's.

To some extent, for four of the teachers, their critical evaluation and associated teaching have allowed them to successfully integrate a degree of ELF perspective into their teaching practice. However, it is not the mainstream approach as the US/ENL linguacultural resources in the chosen materials were inevitable (Section 6.3 and Subsection 5.4.1.1) and textbook-attached teaching has further made moving the teaching and learning away from one single linguacultural perspective (US/NEL) and towards multilingual or context-relevant delivery difficult (Section 6.3). As Widdowson (2012:4) indicates, 'there is little time for teaching'. Under this circumstance, it becomes vital to understand how teachers

assess their students' English, which may or may not be produced in accordance with the English prescribed by teachers and/or textbooks inside of the classroom. This consideration also aims to address the lack of ELF perspectives on classroom assessment (Subsection 2.3.2), the effects of using US/ENL linguacultural resources on students' English (Subsection 2.3.3), and the underlying theories of teaching/learning that encourage or discourage correction (Section 2.4). In Section 5.5.1, five teachers mentioned during interview that creating opportunities for students to practice listening and/or speaking English. Thus, the following analysis focuses on teachers' responses to students' English after teachers have first created and students have subsequently taken up these opportunities to use their English.

My analysis begins with consideration of Grace's theoretical and practical refusal to give any linguistic corrective feedback on students' English. Grace is of particular interest because her orientation seems open, with her apparently not making any distinction between communication for the classroom and real-world settings. Table 6.6 below illustrates Grace's principles that she adopts to teach English beyond that prescribed. Some of her students' responses are included.

Table 6.6 English Majors and their teacher's responses to her students' English

Teacher	**English Majors' language acquisition through textbook-independent approach**
Grace's practice	**Extract 6.14 Grace's response to students' English**
	CGS3: She is a special case. @@@ … because **in German** … Grace: Oh, really? In {Germany}? {Oh, wow.} CGS3: {Yeah}, {because} my teacher has friends **in German**. His friends came to our school. … So I forgot if it is police will take you away or **you will be fine money**. … She **grab food**. @@ She will be. She will not be so wasteful. Grace: OK, I see, thank you. ….
Grace's Principle of correction	1. 'Traditionally, **correction is more 'grammar-, structure-based teaching'** that is perceived as not good approach because the said approach to teach tends to **'discourage' students to speak'**. 2. 'This course is designed for **communication rather than correction**'**.** 3. 'I tried to be **student-centred** and then focused **on communication, not to** highlight students' mistakes'. 4. 'Teacher is a listener and should focus on **the content of students' talk.**' 5. 'Although my research interest is writing, one important theory of teaching writing is teacher 'diswriting'[*sic*]. [That is] students can become good writers **without teachers' intervention through continuous practice**, and practice writing. Eventually, students become writers. So I apply this to oral training. This is also true to oral training that students practise **on their own**. Also, it is a trend for TESOL: **not to constantly correct students' mistakes**'.
Examples of English Majors' Responses	**GS1**: I prefer that teachers could correct me. I want to know how to pronounce the words [that she cannot pronounce]. Sometimes I didn't know the pronunciation; or the word and then I stop. My teacher [Grace] did not tell me the correct one to use. [She was expecting that students should] Then, **I have to force myself to say the words in my own way**. This is what Grace's teaching is. **GS2: '**When speaking to people, it is about communication'.

Grace did not correct CGS3's language use, for example when this student said: 'food are not sufficient', 'some distribute', 'not distributed equally', 'interviewer', 'there is also some people', 'German', 'you

will be fine money', and 'she grab food'. As explained in her interview Grace focused on the content of what was said. She justified this position by saying that, in her opinion, correction could draw students' attention to 'grammar', 'structure' and further 'discourage' them from speaking. Instead, she urged a 'student-centred' approach with little teacher intervention which from the students' evidence, helps drawn her students' attention to 'communication' (GS2), 'content' (Extract 6.14), and speaking 'on their own' (GS1) (see Table 6.6 above).

During interviews, all the English Majors pointed out that Grace 'did not correct' them (GS2), 'paid her attention to what we speak' (GS3), asked us to 'comment on each other's talk' (GS4), and let students 'talk in my [students'] own way' (GS1). They emphasized that her no-correction policy either forces (GS1) or encourages (GS2) them to continue exploring possible ways to practice speaking in order to convey their intended meanings. Some of Grace's students agreed that conveying meanings should be prioritised and this had nothing to do with NES competence. GS3, for instance, commented on her English, contrasting it with the accents of ENL English speakers, 'I don't mean speaking like native speakers. At least, I need to speak to be understood. I have conversed with an American before and I don't understand his accent. This kind of communications is common and there are differences and similarities of spoken English'. By contesting the prestigious status of ENL English, GS3 emphasized that her priority is using English to achieve understanding and, in one instance for her, this was in an international encounter. According to GS3's opinion, the ENL quality of English does not necessarily facilitate understanding.

It is evident that Grace's student-centred, low level teacher intervention, and less-structured approach have enabled her students to speak English beyond the prescribed English in the textbooks despite English Majors still claiming that they preferred to have corrective feedback (e.g. GS1). This in turn accentuates English Majors' teacher-independent (Extract 6.14), textbook-independent (Extract 6.6 p.111), and communication-focused (GS2 in Table 6.6) approaches to communication skills learning. As GS3 indicated, her 'spontaneous response [to others' talk (i.e. her teachers' and learning partners')] has become better' through spontaneous interaction during the OT classes. For the OT courses, ELF-aware classroom practices were co-established by Grace alongside her students. Learning of this kind reflects ELF scholars' emphasis on the following characteristics of lingua franca usage of English: its fluid and emergent nature (Jenkins et al., 2011), the negotiation of linguacultural norms and meaning of lingua franca use (Canagarajah, 2013), and, the exploration of multiple resources available in the language use contexts (Pennycook, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2011), as well as the celebration of local practice (Pennycook, 2010b).

Now I turn to the responses of the other four teachers to their students' English. From the analysis it emerges that teachers of non-English Majors took two approaches to students' linguistic deviation from the prescribed language as presented in the chosen textbooks or materials: Victor's correction-based

approach and a feedback-based approach adopted by Christy, Lindsay, and Alex. Table 6.7 presents Victor's correction-based approach to assessing his students' English.

Table 6.7 The correction-based approach

Victor	**Extract 6.15 Victor's response to students' English**
	CVS3: Okay listen, y'know when you move in, Rachel's room is gonna be (.3) [Other students offered CVS3 help by saying /ˈɛm(p)ti/ to him and then he moves on.] /ˈɛmti/. You wanna ((Victor: Empty, right? Empty. /ˈɛm(p)ti/ (02:10.) [Victor waited his student to repeat and CVS3 repeated.) ampty you wanna talk about what we want to do with it? …

Extract 6.15 indicates that Victor's correction-based approach guided his students' attention to consider the form of English in spite of the evidence that CVS3 gave Victor a sentence which should have provided him sufficient information to understand the intended meaning (Extract 6.15). That is, during Victor's interaction with CVS3, the function of CVS3's language was not the focus of his feedback. This further indicates that Victor's teaching underlines the tenuous linkage between form and function. Regarding this Canagarajah (2013) suggests that the form-based approach to classroom practices is not recommended when the ELT class has the aim of preparing students for lingua franca use of English.

In response to Victor's correction approach, all his students reported that they had to give Victor exactly correct answers in accordance with the prescribed content and language in the textbooks and get the pronunciation correct. For instance, VS2 indicated that 'he [Victor] continues correcting us until we get it [word/phrase] right'. Reviewing various types of corrective feedback from the SLA perspective, Ellis (2012: 139) argues that teachers' correction can be 'didactic' (i.e. directed purely at linguistic correctness), 'communicative' (i.e. directed at resolving a communication problem) or a combination of the former with the latter. In other words, feedback involves both negotiation of form and/or of meaning. Applying Ellis' interpretation to analyse teachers' responses to students' English, I observed Victor's use of correction-based approach, showing that he focuses on negotiation of form as well as linguistic correctness. It can be contended that adopting correction-based approach to students' English that entails prioritising linguistic correctness may be at the expense of an ELF perspective and non-US/ENL linguacultural resources. Next, I consider the other four teachers' feedback-based approaches to students' English (Table 6.8) (see Appendix 6.5, p.207).

Feedback on students' English from the three teachers, Christy (Extract 6.16), Lindsay (Extract 6.17) and Alex (Extract 6.18), shows that their approach targeted helping their students convey meaning in their own ways (i.e. Christy) as well as interact with their teachers to negotiate form and meaning (i.e. Lindsay and Alex).

Christy's teaching shows that she consistently accepted her students' English that is different from the prescribed English in the textbook (see also Extract 6.2, Table 6.2 in Appendix 6.1, p.202-203). Her feedback on CCS2's English is a case in point (Extract 6.16 in Appendix 6.5) and aligns with teaching

and learning beyond the prescriptive boundaries of the textbooks (Seidlhofer, 2011). Christy and Lindsay (see also Extract 6.3) both involved students in negotiating meanings of language use, as Canagarajah (2013) suggests (Subsection 2.4.2.2). Moreover, these teachers' feedback on students' English offer good examples of leading students towards thinking about forms and meanings, as Ellis (2012) discusses. To sum up, it can be surmised that their kind of feedback resonates with Cogo's (2008:60) point about ELF, highlighting the 'interrelationship between form and function….in which they are mutually constitutive'. This articulated form-function two-in-one approach to expressing feedback on students' English is in line with ELF-aware pedagogy which requires both form as well as function to be addressed.

The students' responses to these teachers' feedback is of note. In Extract 6.18 (see Table 6.8 in Appendix 6.5, p.207), CAS3 and CAS4 repeated the word once after Alex, and then tried to work on their own to figure out some possible ways to pronounce the word 'leopard' correctly (Extract 6.18). This example indicates the significance of good quality feedback. Some sociocultural theorists have identified it as a key learning stimulus for encouraging students to 'achieve self-regulation' with limited input from teachers and materials (Ellis, 2012: 141). Drawing on this notion, in situations where teacher feedback stimulates students to explore new ways to make people understand their English, it has reduced the likelihood that students adhere to any prescribed forms. Further, it increases the opportunities for students, as users as well as learners, to explore avenues to acquire and use English to negotiate forms and meanings. This resonates with Seidlhofer's (2011) perspective on legitimating students' English used to converse with teachers to negotiate forms and meaning as language users and learners (i.e. Extract 6.16) as well as introducing correction through negotiation as associated with lingua franca practice (e.g. Extract 6.17 and 6.18) (see Appendix 6.5, p.207).

Next I consider the teachers' principles underlying their assessment of students' English. The teachers with the exception of Victor argued against correction. Two primary reasons they gave were that it could discourage students from speaking and subsequently, undermine their confidence with their English which was not necessarily the prescribed language as presented in the textbooks or by the teachers. As Christy indicates, 'correction should be avoided especially for students of level C (i.e. her students). If students were corrected once, twice, and three times, they may not be willing to use their English because they may think whatever I speak is incorrect'. Table 6.9 (p. 127) below illustrates the specific opinions given by the teachers who took a feedback-based approach to assess students' English and Victor who used a correction approach.

Table 6.9 The principles underpinning the correction-based and feedback-based approaches to students' English

Principles: the correction-focused approach	**Victor**: And playing *Friends* **twice** in class, (.) so they have listened to the conversations **for three times**. Therefore, **they can imitate the intonation**. … Of course, first this is fun. Secondly, this is let them learn to **speak**, hum (.) **like foreigners**. ((**Researcher**: When you say foreigners, **do you mean American accent**?)) Intonation, **yes**, namely, they can **imitate** [American accent] during the said learning process via using *Friends*.
Principles: the feedback approach	**Christy**: 'Albeit my students think their English is not good, I think they should produce English. They **may not be able to produce complete sentence**, but they can **use their English** and this is the first step to **communicate**'.
	Lindsay: 'Some textbooks provide static perspective on what a person says and another person respond, this is **static'.** 'If I continue teaching them t**he certain ways in which English should be spoken**, this will become **another drill like speaking practices**. I need to let them feel **a new way that they can learn English [to speak]**'.
	Alex: '**as long as they [students] speak**….**time and big class** are the major constraints [for me to create opportunities] for students to speak…{**Researcher**: So you accept their English even it is not similar to the prescribed English in the textbook} Alex: {**Accept, of course, accept}**.

As shown in Table 6.9, those teachers who took a feedback–based approach accepted degrees of linguistic variation. At the same time, they were also open to 'incomplete' sentences and other ways of using English, as long as their students took up the opportunities to listen and speak. By contrast, following the correction-based approach meant that Victor not only focused on form and linguistic correctness, but also he let his students 'imitate' in accordance with the provided AmEng examples. Accepting the linguistic variation found in students' English serves as a fundamental step towards teaching/learning English from a lingua franca perspective because this accepts linguistic deviation from the ENL linguacultural norms (Seidlhofer, 2011). Furthermore, it falls within the lingua franca school because the students' English was legitimated through negotiating form/meaning with teachers, even though their English was different from the provided linguistic norms (Seidlhofer, 2011). Likewise, students were learning how to use their own ways to convey meanings or appropriate strategies to negotiate regarding form, when and where necessary (Canagarajah, 2013).

When I asked teachers about their primary principles guiding their usage of the chosen textbooks to teach listening and speaking for real-world communication, a range of opinions on communication skills training emerged reflecting their instructional contexts. Table 6.10 (p.128) below demonstrates Victor's principles of teaching listening and/or speaking but not for communication purposes.

Table 6.10 Victor's principles regarding teaching listening and/or speaking- not for real-world communication

Victor	**Listening and speaking:** I think (.) CD is a good resource. I think CD provides some texts recorded by **native speakers of English**. I think students can carry out **deliberate practice** to enhance their listening by using CD. They did not **make good use of CD**… Big class size and time constraints, so I **don't teach speaking**.
	Teaching for the real-world communication: Teaching students English to communicate as a teaching goal is overambitious. We have only three hours a week and a big class with 50 students [one of his classes has 42 students]. The goal of my teaching is not to help my students to express their ideas. My job is to raise students' interest in learning English.

For listening, Victor decided to exclusively use CDs which was against the perspective of teaching English for lingua franca use (Matsuda and Friedrich, 2012). He emphasized the importance of ENL-based linguacultural resources for learning which not only contributed to the ENL linguacultural dominance but also overlooked the multilingual nature of lingua franca English (Jenkins et al., 2011). Victor used the audio CDs to carry out 'deliberate' listening training, reproducing the ENL linguistic input and resisting alternative resources that could make English real to students through drawing on local practices (Pennycook, 2012; Widdowson, 2012:13). He did not do much speaking so there was a lack of interaction through English between him and students or among his students, even though interaction is deemed a cardinal point to train lingua franca users of English (Canagarajah, 2013). Victor concluded by explaining that his teaching did not aim at fostering communication but rather, developing students' interest in learning English which is directly in opposition to teaching English for the purpose of achieving ELF-based communication. It can be concluded that Victor's decision has given his students many opportunities to listen to AmEng, but very limited opportunities to learn/use English from a lingua franca perspective.

As a contrast, the teaching principles of those teachers who aimed for teaching students English for communication are discussed next. I begin with the OT courses in U1 and then move on to the FE courses in U2 and U3. Table 6.11 below shows Grace's perspectives on using textbooks to teach English Majors for communication purposes.

Table 6.11 Grace's opinions on teaching listening and speaking for real-world communication

Grace	**Listening and speaking**: 'In fact, a unit of our textbooks indicates that speakers are listeners as well, suggesting students should be **an active listener** and how.' 'So **I ask students questions** to let them speak in a communicative context. I also **let students listen to each other's talk** by **raising questions** to the presenters or **making comments** on their learning partners' talk. By doing this, I can get students involved. At the same time, I can get students involved in the speakers' speech by providing listeners opportunities to speak.'
	Teaching for the real-world communication: 'When **students get involved in each other's talk**, they are engaged **in real-world communication** contexts'.

Grace holds the belief that she should prioritise motivating students to engage in listening to and speak with each other although her teaching was textbook-based. For her, there is no boundary between

classroom English and English used in the real-world communication as long as students used English to 'get involved in each other's talk'. This is consistent with her stated principles of teaching English for real-world communication, as reported in Subsection 4.3.4. Grace expressed the following: 'provide them [students] an authentic context for speaking. The topics discussed should be related to their lives or current engagement. That way, they can get more actively engaged in the context'. Below I discuss the opinions of the other three non-English Majors' teachers on using textbooks to teach English for the real-world communication (Table 6.12) (see Appendix 6.6, p.208).

To prepare students for real-world communication (see Appendix 6.6), in general, teachers and students are advised to avoid the textbook dependent teaching and learning (Seidlhofer, 2011) and in terms of the resources in textbooks, exclusive learning from the presented linguacultural resources (i.e. CDs) is not encouraged (Matsuda and Friedrich, 2012). As demonstrated by Lindsay, multiple and the emergent resources were effectively employed at the same time. Constantly changing the linguacultural resources and ways to deliver linguacultural input is necessary in order to avoid the reproduction of and students' over familiarity with one kind of English. There is some evidence provided by Christy and Alex that teachers should 'force' or encourage students to legitimate their use of English (Seidlhofer, 2011) by focusing on the content of student talk in terms of whether or not they convey their intended message. In other words, teachers' authority should not be used in teaching for linguistic correctness but employed to help students legitimate their use of English and operate linguistic resources that learners can use. By so doing the teachers are developing students' competence to adopt and adapt various resources (Pennycook, 2012). As previously mentioned, interaction (teacher-student and student-student) is a fundamental strategy to create opportunities for students to practice listening and speaking and legitimate their use of English and this view is supported by Christy and Lindsay. In terms of speaking and listening, repetition is acceptable but as Christy points out, students should gradually leave the textbook phrases behind and express English in their own ways. Finally, regarding employing resources, students need to practice seeking out and using whatever resources they can find in order to speak. Overall, the words of Alex serve as a reminder that his goal is that his students should gradually start thinking about learning English for a myriad of worthy reasons and not for simply passing examinations or completing a classroom task.

Finally, I consider students' stance towards using textbooks to learn English for the real-world communication. Table 6.13 (p.130) illustrates English Majors' and non-English Majors' key points about this issue.

Table 6.13 English Majors' and non-English Majors' opinions about using textbooks to learn English for real-world communication

English Majors' Opinions
GS3: Regarding the textbook, **I did not read it**. It depends on what Grace chooses to teach'. **GS6**: '**Ideally**, I wish I could speak like I am speaking a native language. I am nervous when speaking English. ….if I can speak, that is, clearly **expressing what I want to say** and convey the meanings completely and that is good enough'. **GS1**: Before [OT course], **speaking training usually allowed us to prepare**. ….now, we can prepare [some] speech but we **need to do spontaneous discussion and speaking**. **GS2**: We should be able to **apply what we learn**. So I can use it [English] now.
Non-English Majors' Opinions
<u>Listening</u>: **VS2:** Probably I find it [English presented in audio CDs.] sounds good to me, the way English is spoken. Also, I feel that **it's easy for me to understand that kind of English** because I have listened to this kind of English for a long time. Therefore, this kind of English is <<really easy to listen to>>, further leading me to **learn English toward this goal**. **LS4:** There are different accents of English. I **cannot expect CDs to include all** of them. But it is different from what I heard from international students. **AS4**: If we cannot understand still, he [Alex] will **paraphrase** to make us understand. **<u>Speaking</u>:** **CS4:** 'if we are provided some words that we have to use during speaking, this will **restrict** how we say it…perhaps words are fine but **sentence patterns will definitely guide me to read the whole sentences** rather than **saying what I want to say**. I think I will just read. ' 'Because I feel I just used the key words to speak, that is **the content is mine and the words are others**'. **LS1:** ' the point is to use English to **express ideas**…because this is based on **what I know to say**, not what people tell me how to say it. It is an **emergent language**. When the person who I talked to understand my intended message, then I realise that is **the way how I make him/her understand**'. AS1: I felt that pronouncing English words exactly like the pronunciation presented in textbook **is not possible** when I practiced pronunciation. It is an issue about familiarity and it **takes practice…maybe those how do English literature PhD will be interested in and can do that'**. AS3: 'He [Alex] did not say my answer to the question is not right but it might be I need to explain it more. Then, **he would contribute his ideas** and **discuss with us**'.

Table 6.13 shows the focus of English Majors' and non-English Majors' learning based on textbook is very different. The former discarded the textbook-based approach, focusing on how to apply what they have learned to their language usage. English Majors on the OT course aim at acquiring English geared towards application and communicating. As Jenkins (2002:211) mentioned, 'after learners have achieved a certain level of proficiency such that they are able to communicate successfully, English has by definition become part of their personal linguistic repertoire'. The English Majors in my study are cases in point (Extract 6.6 and Extract 6.14) for they are applying their linguistic repertoire to communicate inside and outside of the classroom, even though they have not acquired NES competence. Clearly, they, along with their teacher have opted for learning English from an ELF perspective. As GS3 concludes, 'I don't mean speaking like native speakers. At least, I need to speak to be understood'.

The other students, those non-English Majors following the FE programmes, clearly remained textbook-based (VS2) in their learning, especially regarding undergoing listening training through the exclusive use of textbook-linked audio CDs (Matsuda and Friedrich, 2012). However, some non-English Majors

were aware of the limitations of the textbooks when they tried to link real-world communication to their textbook-based learning. For instance, they noticed that audio CDs only presented certain kinds of English that was possibly not adequate for real-world communication purposes (LS4). It is important to note that most non-English Majors mentioned that their teachers' English was a good listening resource (Subsection 5.4.1.2) and explained their teacher adapted their English to suit them (AS3). One the one hand, teachers' English can de-centre the dominance of US/ENL English but on other the other hand, teachers' English can simply demonstrate examples of language use (Subsection 5.4.1.2). There is the potential drawback that students may get used to teachers' English, as Lindsay mentioned (Table 6.12). To overcome this, Christy responded by occasionally slightly changing the ways in which she spoke English to raise students' awareness of the potential limitations of getting used to one style of spoken English (Table 6.12) (see Appendix 6.6, p.208).

As for speaking, most non-English Majors agreed that they should practice speaking without referring to textbooks although they claimed they did not know how to do this, thus underlining the fact that learning for them is largely textbook/teacher-dependent (Subsection 5.3.1.2). Some students proposed some ideas which helped them effectively speak in their own ways, despite lacking confidence in using English. In agreement with Christy's key-word speaking activities, CS4 noticed that speaking in accordance with the prescribed way in the textbook was merely a kind of reading, not real speaking. Regarding this point, this student was of the view that as long as he produced the English by using some key words taken from textbooks, 'the content' was his while 'the words are from others' by which he meant that these were from textbooks and/or his teacher. Despite the global spread of English language, CS4 claimed that English remained 'foreign' (Widdowson, 2012) but by adding the content, he could make English language his own. In a similar vein, LS1 stated that he thought that making people understand by relying on what he knows, is real-world communication. Further, he claimed that how he could use English to make people understand could only be decided by him. LS1's view on this usage for achieving real-world communication resonates with Grace's idea that it is the students' own task to connect their classroom learning to real-world English. From the narratives and my observations, the suggestion that it is down to the student to decide whether or not he/she is ready to try to become a user of English appeared to depend on him/her having established a sufficiently robust proficiency. In a similar vein, Jenkins (2000) has previously asserted that a certain level of English language proficiency is required to enable learners to communicate successfully. I also observed that if students have not reached this decision point, teachers' use of speaking activities can encourage or stimulate them to choose to practice using English to communicate, as was demonstrated in Christy and Lindsay's teaching.

For those whose English language proficiency may not be sufficient, according to their own judgement, to allow them to try to communicate successfully, some individuals, such as one of Alex's students,

remarked that the NES pronunciation prescribed in their course materials (textbook) was not essential for real-world communication (AS1). Moreover, they noted that learning to use English and then trying to explain more when they struggled to get their meaning conveyed, required experiencing interactions of various kinds (AS3). Regarding interaction, AS4 concludes that 'I can interact with teachers in English but I cannot interact with the CDs because it is not real'. These students expressed similar opinions about gaining speaking practice through interaction which they thought could prepare them for real-world communication (see also Table 6.13)

6.5 Chapter summary

In this chapter I have presented and analysed my observational data. The three main themes of ELT contexts, materials, and principles of using materials to teach/learn have been carried over from the preceding data chapters (chapters 4 and 5) and the pertinent literature previously introduced in the literature review chapter (chapter 2) has been applied to discuss the findings. Insights into the linguacultural resources that have been presented to students for learning and how teachers employ these resources have been gained. The scrutiny of the classroom practices shed light on whether or not ELF-aware classroom practices were feasible in the investigated contexts. The strategies applied by the five teachers to teach/learn tending towards or away from an ELF-aware pedagogy have been explored by referring to the key literature. In the following chapter, which concludes the thesis, I address the research questions and consider some implications for ELF-aware pedagogy.

Chapter 7 Discussion and conclusion

7.1 Research background, rationale, and methodology

In this section, I outline the research background and rationale behind this thesis. This thesis was inspired by my concerns as an EFL learner and then user, about the linkage of the received EFL provisions to the lingua franca use of English for real-world communication (see chapter 1). As an EFL teacher, I faced a pedagogical situation where I needed to explore the ideas of teaching students practical English for communication. Another concern I had was whether and how the established ELT/SLA theories and the available global ELT materials could support me to do this. My queries led to the formulation of two research questions to be addressed.

1. What learning/teaching theories and concepts inform Taiwanese teachers of English who teach for real-world communication?
2. What are students' perceptions of learning English for the purposes of real-world communication within the framework of Taiwanese English language education?

Answering these two questions calls for a classroom-based research to scrutinise classroom practices and explore the relationship between classroom English and the English in the real-world communication setting. To this end, in chapter 2, I reviewed the ELF-informed research and relevant literature and found that the established literature provides insights into how ELF perspectives on communication can and should be reconceptualised in EFL education. However, I observed there was little discussion about the process (Seidlhofer, 2011), ideas, and strategies of teaching/learning (Canagrajah, 2013; Matsuda and Duran, 2012) within or beyond the scope of ELF-aware pedagogy. There is also scant literature on how teachers/students reinterpret lingua franca use of English for real-world communication and the implications of the above for ELT practices in situ. Nonetheless, inspired by Dewey's (2012b) advice on generating context-relevant knowledge about ELF-aware pedagogy, there has been a call to reassess English language curriculums in typical EFL contexts. By doing this, the local knowledge generated from studying the context-focused EFL education can, in turn, help to shape institution-based knowledge about ELF-aware pedagogy.

Empirical studies carried out from WE/EIL/ELF perspectives address various aspects of ELT (Alsagoff et al., 2012; Bayyurt and Ackan, 2015; Bowels and Cogo, 2015). Amongst them the scholarship focuses on the development of curriculum (Brown, 2012), learning models (Kirkpatrick, 2010), teacher educators' lingua franca awareness of the English language (Dewey, 2012b, 2015), ELT materials (Matsuda, 2012b; Yu, 2015), teacher education (Bayyurt and Sifakis, 2015), teaching activity/ideas (Matsuda and Duran, 2012), teaching principles (Matsuda and Friedrich, 2011, 2012), and assessment (Jenkins and Leung, 2014). In a similar vein, some papers in particular explore the pedagogical choices regarding what form of English is to be taught and learned (Jenkins, 2012; Young and Walsh, 2010), pedagogical concepts for ELT (Cogo, 2012b), intercultural awareness (Baker, 2015a; 2015b), and

raising teachers' (Hall et al., 2013) and /or students' awareness of lingua franca use of English (Galloway, 2013; Galloway and Heath, 2014). In Taiwanese contexts, ELF/EIL/WES-informed literature has offered insights into learners' perceptions of Global Englishes (GE) and the integration of GE into ELT practice has received attention in recent times (Chang Y., 2014; Ke and Cahyani, 2014).

Based on the reviewed literature, I identified three major areas of ELT practices that should be reappraised. Firstly, I found that little research considers teacher-student joint perspectives on EFL-aware pedagogy and this motivated me to address both sides' pedagogical concerns since the classroom practices are co-constructed (Walsh, 2006, 2011). I observed that the majority of empirical studies so far have not considered the feasibility of rolling out the proposed suggestions in local EFL contexts because it is EFL teachers who judge which input resources and teaching approaches are feasible in their instructional contexts (Clarke, 1994; Richards, 2001). Thirdly, the literature drew my attention to how ELF can serve not only as a critical theoretical perspective to challenge the established EFL education but also as a practical approach to be integrated with the extant ELT/SLA theories and ELT practices. Pennycook (2012) termed this a reappraisal of ELT and demanded that we seek what is not expected in the learning and teaching context.

To reappraise ELT from an ELF perspective, I deemed it necessary to conduct classroom-based research to understand whether or not teachers/students see ELF as an alternative to EFL oriented education. Open, participatory approaches of ethnographic enterprise were selected to gain knowledge of ELT from local peoples' perspectives (Section 2.7). This allowed me to deal with context-specific matters, such as negotiating access to classrooms for observation and the recruitment of participants (Section 3.6). Then, I carried out micro-level exploration of how US/EN-based linguacultural resources were used to teach and learn English. This provided a fairly clear explanation of the process of EFL delivery that encourages or discourages ELF-aware language acquisition. I discussed the micro-level understanding in relation to teachers and students' use of practical knowledge and strategies to reproduce or resist the ENL-oriented ELT. In this way, I obtained a full understanding of teachers and students' actions with regards to refuting ELF-aware language teaching and acquisition.

7.2 Summary of findings and final discussion

I summarise and discuss the findings of my data analysis under the themes of: ELT contexts and curriculum, teaching/learning materials, and principles of using materials for teaching and learning.

7.2.1 ELT context and curriculum

In this study, I have revealed that some university curricular decisions, such as stipulating English be used as the instructional language and provision of additional courses and resources, encourage ELF-aware classrooms practices whilst at the same time other specifications (i.e. graduation language

requirements) failed to do this. For most non-English Majors, learning English for real-world communication was not a learning priority but this co-existed with other purposes, such as passing the English module examination to graduate. Despite the established ELT contexts not necessarily supporting communication-based pedagogy, the five teacher respondents still attempted to teach communication skills by selecting and adapting materials for listening and speaking training. Hence, their decisions along with the established ELT contexts have yielded space for an ELF perspective to be integrated into classroom practices. The breadth of the yielded space varied from one classroom to another.

The macro-level analysis of the curricular orientations revealed that certain contextual factors affected the incorporation of ELF-aware pedagogy. These contextual factors include: the materials available for teaching communication skills (Subsection 5.3.1.1), the additional learning resources used to support students' acquisition of English for real-world communication i.e. the courses and their purposes (Subsection 5.3.1.2), teachers' decisions on teaching English for communication or not (Subsection 5.3.2.1), the nature of students' engagement in English language acquisition i.e. their learning objectives and needs (Subsection 5.3.2.2), and, the approaches taken when deploying materials for teaching/learning communication skills (Section 6.2). I came to understand that creating ELT contexts for ELF-aware pedagogy is not a choice made by just one party: students or teachers (Jenkins 2007, 2012). Rather it appears that ELF-aware pedagogy was a choice of multiple parties (institutes, teachers, and students) and required multi-faceted cooperation to put it into practice. A case in point is the ELF-aware OT courses (Subsection 5.3.1.1) and Grace's teaching and English Majors' learning that I observed in U1 (Sections 6.3 and 6.4).

In the three university sites, I found that the graduation requirements have resulted in some students, especially the non-English Majors, deciding to list studying English for examination success as their primary learning objective and relegating communication to be their second (Subsection 5.3.1.2). This echoes how institutional language requirements can turn students' focus away from English for communication and towards examination targets (Jenkins and Leung, 2014). It seems unrealistic to anticipate any significant change to this nationwide stance on English language requirement and assessment policy in the Taiwanese education system (Subsection 2.6.1).

However, inside classrooms, I discovered that assessing students' English beyond an ENL scope legitimates students' use of English (Section 6.3). In my view, ELF-aware assessments were feasible and the underlying basis is teachers' acceptance of students as competent users of English (Subsection 5.4.2.1). From my data analysis two approaches to assess students' English from an ELF perspective could be identified. The first is that teachers (four of the teachers, excluding Victor) accepted students' English no matter whether it adheres to the ENL norms prescribed in textbooks or not. The other is a pragmatic approach drawing students' attention to the skills that they adopted to negotiate forms that

are different from the prescribed English (Canagarajah, 2013). I found the second approach particularly useful for those students who have established their linguistic repertoire but did not yet have much language use experience, such as Christy and Lindsay's students (Appendix 6.5).

In classrooms, prescribing English as the main or only instructional language has been regarded as restricting students from using their other linguacultural resources (Canagarajah, 1999; MaKay and Bokhorst-Heng, 2008) (Section 2.3). In opposition to this, I found that this policy has increased the opportunities for teachers and students to use English, serving to reduce the dominance of the US/ENL linguacultural resources presented in textbooks (Subsection 5.4.1.1). I contend that this policy discourages teachers from reproducing ENL linguacultural input because they need to use their own English to teach. This gave students exposure to teachers' English rather than only the English presented in textbooks (Section 6.4). This is in line with SLA theory that advocates developing students' language through using multiple linguacultural input resources (Ellis, 2012; Van Lier, 1996) rather than only counting on textbooks. I am of the opinion that using English as an instructional language promoted ELF-aware pedagogy in the studied FE and OT courses because the prescribed ENL English was de-centred by the inclusion of this as a non-ENL resource. Hence, this instructional language allowed for some non-ENL linguacultural resources to be incorporated, underlining the multilingual nature of ELF communication (Subsection 2.2.1).

The established literature focuses on how far curricular decisions made top-down (in the curriculum and by teachers) have impeded ELF/EIL-aware pedagogy (D'Angelo, 2012; MacKay, 2003; Matsuda and Friedrich, 2011; 2012). To date, whether or not students (i.e. bottom-up decision makers) accept ELF-aware language acquisition as a choice has been largely lacking (Jenkins, 2007). I observed that non-English Majors did not prioritise communication-oriented language acquisition and this increases the possibility that students could receive ELF-informed education with a degree of cynicism (Subsections 5.3.1.2 and 5.4.1.1). It can be conceived that in cases where the introduction of ELF-aware pedagogy is a one-sided (e.g. the teacher's) pedagogical choice, re-orientating conventional ELT/SLA delivery towards an ELF one could be very challenging because students may not be enthusiastically engaged in learning to use English as a lingua franca (Subsection 2.4). In line with this point, I found that ELF-aware pedagogy is possible, but not necessarily successful, because many contextual factors prevailing in EFL contexts need to be considered. That is, the feasibility and effectiveness of ELF-aware pedagogy are context-dependent. It emerges that the teacher's ability to evaluate what kind of ELF-related classroom practices are feasible in his/her instructional contexts is vital to the effectiveness of delivering ELF-aware pedagogy.

7.2.2 Teaching/learning Materials

In the investigated EFL contexts, none of the teacher and student participants has ENL linguacultural backgrounds. Hence, the US/ENL-related linguacultural resources and dominance mainly came from

the selection and use of global textbooks produced by NES writers (Subsection 5.4.2.1). Taking textbook-attached and detached approaches to teaching and learning has led to various levels of reproducing the US/ENL linguacultural resources and input (Section 6.2). Delivering and receiving the input appeared inevitable (Section 6.3). Overall, selecting and using textbooks to learn English has encouraged the delivery and reception of the prescribed, static perspective regarding US/ENL linguacultural resources in textbooks. Since the English presented inside of classrooms does not resemble that in real-world communication, I found that any classroom practices executed with strong conformity with the English in textbooks were doomed to hamper teachers' efforts when preparing their students for using real-world communication (Section 6.3).

Several scholars from WE and ELF fields have recommended that teachers should expose their students to or familiarise them with different kinds of English (Suzuki, 2011; Galloway, 2013; Galloway and Heath, 2014). In my study two teachers (Christy and Lindsay) aligned themselves with the idea of exposing students to a range of Englishes in order to raise learners' linguistic awareness of GE (Subsection 5.4.1.1). However, they have problematised this idea (see Christy and Lindsay, as discussed in Section 6.4). According to their narratives, exposing students to any kind of pre-determined English does not necessarily benefit their language acquisition for real-world English because in the real world, the language is constantly changing. Therefore, Lindsay employed various resources and constantly changed materials in order not to over familiarise her students with any one kind of prescribed English (Table 6.13 in Appendix 6.6). Christy spoke English in different ways in order to 1) raise students' awareness of various ways to speak English rather than various kinds of spoken English and 2) avoid imposing on her students any static approach. I understood that over familiarising students with just one prescribed form of English could lead to their lack of familiarity or awareness of the existence of others and reproduction of the static approach. Moreover, it is likely to discourage ELF-aware language acquisition because the presented Englishes are not the same as real-world Englishes (Seidhofer, 2011; Pennycook, 2001). Further, it works against the fluid and dynamic nature of lingua franca English (Canagarajah, 2013; Jenkins et al., 2011; Pennycook, 2010b).

As discussed, the teachers' English has brought ELF-aware pedagogy forward because it acts counter to the US/ENL (dominant) ones. However, I observed that teachers' use of English to teach appeared to be a double-edge sword with regards to ELF-aware pedagogy, primarily benefiting ELF-aware acquisition in terms of de-centring ENL input resource (Subsection 7.2.1). Regarding the pitfalls of English as an instructional language, firstly, I observed the four non-English Majors' teachers accommodated students' capabilities when using English because they wanted to make their students understand the content of their input (Table 5.6 in Subsection 5.4.2.2). On this matter, ELF scholars emphasize that lingua franca users of English have to have readjustment skills to negotiate international understanding (Jenkins, 2009; Baker, 2009) (Section 2.2). Following this, I suggest that the teachers' deliberate adjustment of their English may impede students from developing readjustment skills and

thus inhibit them from becoming competent lingua franca users of English because in some instances, international interlocutors may not accommodate them in real-world communication. Secondly, Lindsay queried the potential impact of using teacher's English for listening training (Subsection 5.4.2) because this could form another kind of linguacultural dominance (Subsection 6.3). Her view echoes WE scholars' point about restricting students to one particular linguacultural resource (Matsuda and Friedrich, 2011; D'Angelo, 2012) as any linguacultural dominance may hinder students' lingua franca use of English because it distracts students' attention away from linguacultural diversity (Jenkins, 2009). It follows that opportunities for adopting an ELF perspective decrease if English prescribed in textbooks and used by teachers dominate practice and become a source of authority.

I found that students' use of English to negotiate forms and meanings (Section 6.4) is an essential matter regarding ELF-aware pedagogy (Cogo, 2008; Canagarajah, 2013). Since the textbook-attached approach cannot be avoided, employing the pre-determined teaching materials as well as emergent resources springing from students' interactions with teachers or other students is a realistic alternative (Widdowson, 2011) to achieve the de-centring of US/ENL dominant resources (Pennycook, 2012). This interaction approach also enables students to: legitimate their English language use (Seildlhofer, 2011), enact their creativity to use or repeat English beyond the prescribed perspective (Pennycook, 2010b), refer to those linguacultural resources that they know about and can use (Pennycook, 2012), engage in the process of learning to negotiate forms and meaning (Seidlhofer, 2011), develop communicative strategies to ensure meaning is conveyed (Canagarajah, 2013), and immerse themselves in communicative situations where English usage is spontaneous (non-static and not pre-determined) and interactive (dynamic). In sum, the process of interacting in English has created opportunities for students to learn how both form and meaning can be negotiated. Secondly, the interactive approach can minimise the potential impacts of pre-determined and prescribed linguacultural resources on students' language acquisition. Further, it can de-dominate the linguacultural intervention from teachers or ENL-based textbooks. Finally, this approach can distract students away from what textbooks/teachers tell them and push them towards their own ways to use what they know about English language.

7.2.3 Principles of using materials to teach and learning

In my study, I found that the five teachers were aware of the linguacultural diversity of English and critically challenged the English language and culture resources presented in textbooks (Subsection 5.4.1.1). I found this critical awareness was teachers' initial step toward ELF-aware pedagogy. This finding resonates with the pedagogical implication that has emerged from literature that stresses the importance of raising teachers' awareness if transformative changes are to be achieved (Bayyurt and Sifakis, 2015a, 2015b; Dewey, 2012b; 2015; Safikis, 2007). Nevertheless, I discovered that teachers' linguacultural awareness of ENL dominance does not guarantee that ELF-aware pedagogical practices

are carried out. Hence, raising teachers' linguacultural awareness is important but not the only requirement for ELF-aware pedagogy in practice.

I discovered that these teachers used a myriad of strategies to highlight their linguacultural awareness of the US/ENL resources by introducing their ELF-aware pedagogy in practical ways. For instance, the teaching practices included them critically evaluating the available US/ENL linguacultural resources (e.g. Alex's teaching; see Appendix 6.4), exploring teaching and learning ideas (e.g. Lindsay's teaching; see Appendix 6.1), deploying the detached approach to using textbooks (e.g. Grace's teaching; see Appendix 6.1), touching lightly on the provided linguacultural resources and content (e.g. Christy's teaching; see Appendix 6.1), as well as adapting and changing materials (e.g. Lindsay's teaching; see Appendix 6.4). This diverse range of activities resonates with Pennycook's (2012) views regarding teacher education as he advises that there is a need to develop trainees' skills to think differently and explore teaching ideas that can help them to teach otherwise.

Drawing on the above findings, I categorised teachers' strategies into three groups and list them in Table 7.1 (p.140) under the headings: teachers' beliefs about what English is to be taught and learned, their decisions on strategies and approaches to teaching, and, the principles guiding their use of the chosen materials. For these strategies, two types were identified. The first type comprises strategies that discourage ELF-aware pedagogy and are usually employed to reproduce the US/ENL linguacultural resources presented in textbooks. The second type includes resistance strategies that allow teachers to bring their own interpretations of lingua franca use of English into their practices.

Table 7.1: Reproducing and/or resisting US/ENL-related linguacultural resources in teaching

Aspect of teaching	Reproduction supporting teaching practices	Resistance supporting teaching practices
Teachers' preference and acceptance of Englishes	Preferring ENL-related or one kind of linguacultural input resources (e.g. Victor)	Accepting other kinds of linguacultural resources in addition to the US/ENL ones (e.g. Grace)
	Promoting the reproduction of the presented English through instruction (e.g. Alex)	English conforming with the presented English in textbooks is not a must (Christy)
Teaching approaches (see Sections 6.2 and 6.3)	Frequent use of form-based, product-based, teacher-led approach (e.g. Victor)	Often using student-centred, process-based, and function-oriented approach (e.g. Grace)
	Learners' perspectives on students' English (e.g. Alex and Victor)	Users' perspectives on students' English (e.g. Grace)
	Prescriptive approach to assessing students' English (e.g. Victor)	Assessing students' English in terms of conveying meanings (e.g. Alex)
	Teaching and learning-focused (e.g. Victor and Alex)	Learning and language use-oriented (e.g. Christy)
	Frequent (repetitive) use of certain approaches (e.g. Victor and Alex)	Applying multiple approaches and strategies to teach (e.g. Lindsay)
	Less reflective practice (e.g. Victor)	More reflective practice (e.g. Lindsay)
	Accuracy-oriented correction and feedback (e.g. Victor)	Meaning-based feedback (e.g. Grace)
Use of materials (see Section 6.4 for examples of using the chosen textbooks)	Adopting teaching ideas from textbooks (e.g. Victor)	Exploring teaching ideas of teacher's own creation (e.g. Christy)
	Textbook-attached approach (e.g. Victor and Alex)	Textbook-detached approach (e.g. Grace)
	One or few materials employed to teach students (e.g. Victor)	Multiple resources incorporated to teach students (e.g. Lindsay)
	Teaching the presented English language faithfully and longitudinally (e.g. Victor)	Touching lightly on the provided linguacultural resources in the pre-set materials (e.g. Grace and Christy)
	Evaluating materials is limited to simply selecting textbooks (e.g. Victor)	Critically evaluating materials as an on-going practice and idea (e.g. Grace, Christy, Alex, Lindsay)
	Adoption-based approach to materials (e.g. Victor)	Adaption-based approach to textbooks (e.g. Christy)

The findings above indicate that realising ELF-aware pedagogy requires teachers to have knowledge about lingua franca use of English, skills to explore novel ideas on practice and diverse approaches to teaching. ELF-aware pedagogy begins with teachers' interpretation of lingua franca use of English and Dewey (2015) and Suzuki (2011) term this teacher's conceptual understanding of ELF. Secondly, ELF-aware pedagogy calls for teachers' theoretical knowledge about how teachers integrate with an ELF perspective their prior understandings of ELT/SLA theories, thus allowing them to embed theory for their ELF-aware practice. Further, teachers' interpretations and ideas regarding how they can put an ELF perspective into action have to take into consideration their instructional contexts. To date, much literature appears to have focused on teachers' conceptual knowledge about the ELF perspective in relation to ELT and how this theoretical knowledge is vital for teacher education programmes that can equip in-service teachers for bringing about transformative changes (Dewey, 2015; Sifakis, 2007; Bayyurt and Sifakis, 2015a; 2015b). It seems that there is insufficient attention paid to teachers' practical knowledge about ELF as well as their teaching strategies to permit this form of pedagogy

becoming a feasible possibility. Teachers' skills and ideas regarding teaching English for lingua franca use are central to bringing ELF-aware pedagogy into practice.

It has emerged that teachers' use of strategies to put ELF-aware pedagogy into practice varies according to their teaching contexts and emergent situations. I noted that the flexible utilisation of teaching approaches, strategies, and ELT/SLA theories allowed four of the five teachers space to incorporate their ELF perspective into classroom practice. So far, the established ELF literature and research appears to criticise how EFL educational provisions have contradicted the ELF perspective (Dewey, 2012a; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Seidlholfer, 2011; Jenkins, 2015). My findings indicate that ELF could be cooperated into the mainstream ELT by integrating ELF within established ELT and SLA theories in accordance with instructional contexts. The findings further draw my attention to the cooperative relationship between an ELF perspective and ELT/SLA theories that EFL teachers could refer to for their teaching. Expanding on the CP perspective that emphasizes flexibility, diverse approaches, materials, and methods in order to make change possible (Akbari, 2008a; 2008b; Kumaravadivelu, 2012), I argue that it is reasonable to claim that ELF-aware pedagogy can be appropriately incorporated into mainstream ELT when teachers integrate rather than try to exclude ELT and SLA dimensions. I contend that taking one perspective or any pre-packaged isolated set of knowledge for teachers to realise ELF-aware pedagogy is not desirable or possible in practice. ELF aware-pedagogy cannot stand alone based only on an ELF perspective and calls for openness to and application of those ELT and SLA theories that support it (e.g. meaning-focused corrective feedback as advocated in SLA theory).

Among students there are different levels of linguacultural awareness of the English language and its use as presented in the selected textbooks (Subsections 5.4.1.2 and 5.4.2.2). Despite having awareness, the participant students still maintained the status quo, accepting and receiving the US/ENL-based EFL educational provisions for several reasons (Subsection 5.3.1.2). Several scholars claim that raising students' linguacultural awareness facilitates students' metacognitive knowledge about English linguistic variation/diversity (Galloway, 2013; Galloway, 2014; Suzuki, 2011). For the participant students, mostly the non-English Majors, when they were aware of the linguacultural diversity of English, this appeared to be simply an understanding of English language usage at a conceptual level, or it was basic recognition about there being a choice to learn English differently, as Jenkins (2007) suggests. However, I found no evidence that an ELF perspective on real-world communication has motivated students (non-English Majors) to take steps to learn English differently (Subsection 5.4.2.2). In this case, raising students' awareness of linguacultural diversity, as proposed by ELF/WE scholars (Chang Y., 2014; Galloway and Heath, 2014; Ke and Cahyani, 2014; Tsou and Chen, 2014) could be useful in terms of building up students' knowledge about and reinterpretation of how English is actually used outside of classroom settings. Since students' learning is teacher-dependent, I think that teachers' use of language activities along with activities raising the awareness of students could introduce ELF-aware language acquisition in practical terms.

Through my analysis, I realised that any claimed relevance of classroom English to real world English from the perspective of teachers, textbook writers, and ELF/WE researchers was problematic because the relevance did not necessarily correspond to student participants' real-world English usage. This resonates with the discussion about providing authentic language for learners (Leung, 2013; Pennycook, 2012; Widdowson, 2011). I query the claim regarding relevance and reality in the presented linguacultural resources or language usage because the so-called authenticity is pre-defined and is not necessarily recognised by students. In my opinion, students can only understand other people's lingua franca use of English by applying their own interpretations, rather than through relying on the materials or the guidance about making sense of it given by teachers.

Since the relevance of any (non)-ENL linguacultural resources to students should be defined by the students themselves, teachers and students agreed that creating opportunities for the students to use English is an effective way for them to judge what English is relevant to their actual language use (Section 5.5). This lets students think over how to apply what they have learned as well as the resources that they know how to use, and then put these into practice (Subsections 5.4.2.1, 5.4.2.2, 6.3 and 6.4). It appeared that four of the five teachers' interpretation (i.e. not Victor's) regarding preparing students for lingua franca use of English did not include explaining the relevance of certain types of English to their actual use of language. From the teachers' point of views, creating opportunities for learners to apply their linguacultural repertoire should be prioritised in order to let students legitimate their language use and explore possible ways to connect language acquisition to its use. Through naturally incorporating students' English language resources in the classroom, the students, not teachers or the textbooks, can be enabled to discern the relevance of (non)-ENL linguacultural resources.

As discussed in the literature review chapter (Subsection 2.2.2), in this study students' language acquisition beyond the prescribed perspective is termed ELF-aware language acquisition. I have identified strategies that students deployed to help them transcend the prescribed English language. Table 7.2 below (p.143) illustrates students' frequently used strategies that either reproduce or resist the prescribed linguacultural resources presented in the textbooks or delivered by teachers.

Table 7.2 Student learning approaches encouraging reproduction of or resistance to given linguacultural resources

Theme	Reproduction strategies	Resistance strategies
Learning priority	English for the examination is the only or prioritised objective	Learning for communication has equal status of learning for other multiple purposes
Language knowledge	Less acceptance of their own English that deviates from the presented types of English	More tolerance with their own English that differs from the presented materials
Reliance on textbooks	Less independent learning away from the textbooks	Exploring non-textbook resources by themselves
Use of materials	Adoption	Adaption and Application
Reliance on teachers	Conformity to teacher's ways of learning and using English	Teachers as the guide to help them explore English
Critical skills	Taking the presented resources for granted	Questioning and evaluating the provided resources
Language acquisition	From the perspective of learning and learners	From the perspective of language acquisition and use
Understanding of classroom contexts	Seeing classroom as a language learning context	Seeing classroom as for language learning and use contexts, and observing how English is used by teachers and learning partners

The points outlined in Table 7.2 above suggest that ELF-aware acquisition took place often when students attended less to learning in accordance to their textbooks but more to their own ways of employing resources and English. This textbook-detach approach allowed a space for students to think and learn otherwise (Pennycook, 2012; Yu, 2015). Within this space, students first could make a judgement about which resources (ENL, non-ENL or mixed) and approaches could prove more suitable for them to apply to English language usage. For instance, students (English Majors) sometimes employed, or in other cases, were guided to use (non-English Majors) critical skills to re-evaluate the given ENL-related resources. This aligns with Canagarajah's (1999) argument about students' interpretation skills. Canagarajah (1999) termed students' reinterpretation of English language resources and usage a form of counter-discourse, that is, a process of questioning the available resources for language acquisition. I found that the strategies that enable students to think and learn otherwise are fundamental. This further led me to understand how adapting and applying learning resources, as opposed to unadulterated adoption of the given resources and approaches to use English, has created space for EFL-aware acquisition. ELF-aware language learning became effective when learners were flexible about the resources, language use and the ways they could learn for communication purposes.

7. 3 Answers to my research questions

I address the two questions stated in Section 7.1. In response to research question 1, I explore what learning/teaching theories and concepts of teaching aid and hinder ELF-aware language teaching for real-world communication.

It emerged that the open approach was necessary for teachers to seek alternative resources, thus resisting any dominant ones, when considered from within the CP perspective (Canagarajah, 1999; Pennycook, 2001; Akbari, 2008a). Reproducing the ENL prescribed English did not really bring ELF-aware teaching into being whereas resisting the ENL prescribed English language and its use facilitates ELF-aware teaching. Resisting the dominance further yielded the flexibility for teachers to employ various teaching approaches, theories, and resources and this has enabled teachers to explore ideas and activities of teaching that made ELF-aware pedagogy a possibility.

In particular, the primary obstacle for teaching English from an ELF perspective is longitudinally reproducing the US/ENL-based linguacultural resources and input in the textbooks. This happens when teachers pay little attention to: other resources, alternative theories of teaching and learning, and new ideas for teaching otherwise. The theories and strategies outside the scope of ELF-aware pedagogy include imitation, textbook-attached, form-based, teacher-led approaches to teach, the accuracy-based approach to assess students' English, and faithful delivery and reinforcement of the US/ENL linguacultural content of input resources (see Subsection 7.2.3).

As indicated above, ELF-aware teaching to prepare students for the real-world communication calls for a CP orientation that allows teachers to resist the dominance of US/ENL linguacultural resources for input, thus creating openness towards other resources, such as teachers and students' English, and to give permission for students to interact. Teachers sometimes evaluated, applied, and integrated ELF-pro SLA/ELT theories into their practice. By doing so, teachers could realise their reinterpretations of how to prepare students for lingua franca use of English. One principle underpinning the ELF-aware teaching is the construction of an aggregation of an ELF perspective on pedagogy, this covers reproduction and resistance theories, the open approach espoused in critical pedagogy (CP), and ELF-pro theories found in ELT and SLA approaches. From a CP perspective, the second underlying principle is flexibility when integrating and applying these aforementioned perspectives, theories, and approaches. It is necessary that integration and application are considered in accordance with instructional contexts and remain open to re-appraisal and re-shaping regarding constellations of aggregation. In sum, these two principles go hand in hand to make ELF-aware teaching possible and feasible in different teaching contexts.

Research question 2 addresses students' perceptions of learning English for real-world communication within the framework of Taiwanese ELE. First, I look at non-classroom-practice related factors that affect students' perception of learning English for real-world communication, i.e. learning objectives. Second, I explore classroom-practice related factors.

Through tracking students' learning paths towards establishing their linguacultural repertoire, I noted that all students did not commence learning to use English for communication in classrooms until they began their undergraduate study (Subsection 5.3.1.2). Since ELF-aware pedagogy for real-world

communication is a multi-partner decision (Subsection 7.2.1), students' decisions on learning English for communication suggests they can perceive the lingua franca status of English. This decision becomes crucial for ELF-aware language acquisition because it appears that students would take up opportunities to learn English for real-world communication if these are offered. It follows that whether students perceive they learn English for communication purposes depends on whether their teachers offer them opportunities to do so.

Regarding learning practice in the context of the OT and FE courses, students felt that they have different levels in terms of understanding and learning English for real-world communication (Subsection 5.4.2.2). Firstly, they reported that they learned English for communication along with other purposes, which they identified as not being at odds with learning for successful graduation or passing examinations (Subsection 5.3.1.2). They took up more opportunities to use language (Section 6.2) as well as participating in targeted language activities (Section 6.4). Secondly, through these activities, these students had become aware that the linguistic deviation of their English from the prescribed English in textbooks did not necessarily hinder their communication and that they could negotiate forms and meanings of their English creatively. Then, students developed an understanding of how to reposition themselves between the roles of learners and users. By focusing on the latter, students could explore ways to translate the established linguacultural repertoire into their own practice and connect their use of English to real-world communication in their terms, rather than being told what to do and how to do this. The use-based and textbook-detached interventions can enable teachers to create opportunities for students to use English to communicate inside the classroom despite the ENL linguacultural dominance entrenched in textbooks and the limited support for ELF-aware language acquisition outlined in the university curriculum.

Students in general have acquired English to communicate to various levels of fluency, having been given some EFL educational provision. This acquisition varied among students according to their English language proficiency, individual learning experience, the linguacultural resources available to them, their competence to apply what they have learned and the resources, and, finally, their teachers who are working under the institutional Taiwanese EFL education system. Their actual use of English in the classroom to effectively convey meaning appeared to take a quasi lingua franca use of English, as compared with ELF used in real-world communication outside of classrooms, since they presented various degrees of linguistic deviation from the prescribed ENL English (Sections 6.2, 6.3, and 6.4).

7.4 Limitations of this research and suggestions further research

I review some limitations of my research. Methodologically, carrying out consistent observation of each teacher's classroom practices in my study was difficult because each teacher participant had different schedules, beliefs, ideas, practice, experiences, contexts, and pedagogical concerns to address. Most significantly, the five teachers' ideas of teaching towards ELF-aware pedagogy derived from their

interpretations of English for real-world communication. These differences exacerbate the difficulties in outlining a common theoretical interpretation and providing a definitive account of each teacher's main teaching practice towards or against ELF, although this is not the aim of my PhD research. These considerations suggest that more longitudinal and collaborative research should be conducted focusing on the process of how teachers explore ideas of teaching in different contexts.

It is of note that the observed students had various levels of English language proficiency. For this reason, it becomes difficult to suggest that all the learning strategies identified above can be useful for all students in ELT contexts. However, achieving generalisation across student cohorts is not an aim in my research (Section 3.2). As I have adopted a CP lens, my recommendation is that adapting in a flexible manner some of the proposed approaches and strategies offers ways to carry out transformative changes in pedagogy.

The third limitation pertains to my application of the concept of 'local knowledge'. Local knowledge (i.e. Taiwan-related knowledge) is context-dependent, so the findings and implications need further contestation in order to be applied to other teaching and learning contexts (Section 3.2). In addition, the resistance theory component of CP is limited in that many studies informed by this tend to offer excessively positive and optimistic views (Pennycook, 2001) on negotiations or transformative changes. To be specific, the resistance theory of CP may pay insufficient attention to the pervasive power of linguacultural dominance or mainstream ELT discourses. I have attempted to report participants' views on EFL provisions in Taiwan from two opposing perspectives, namely in favour of and in opposition to an ELF perspective, in order to provide a balanced analysis and discussion. I have offered my contextual analysis of the ELT contexts in which I consider whether or not an ELF perspective was brought forward. I conducted questionnaires and interviews to provide the backdrop through which I could avoid claiming ELF was or was not well-incorporated in the compulsory OT and FE courses within the ENL-based mainstream classrooms. Nevertheless, I acknowledge that the findings of my research require further validation with regards to their transferability to other similar contexts, as discussed in 3.2, because teaching and learning contexts can differ so greatly.

7.5 Pedagogical implications and contributions

This section begins with the major implications from this PhD research. Then, I discuss the breakthroughs that this research brings to EFL, ELT, and SLA fields and the insights for methodological considerations.

7.5.1 Pedagogical implications for EFL education

I have made the following suggestions in response to addressing linguacultural dominance encountered when teaching cohorts of students, many of whom have different levels of English language proficiency.

The first suggestion is that teachers could critically evaluate the linguacultural input resources provided in textbooks, in the class with students, as an idea to increase students' awareness of the inadequate nature and/or US/ENL linguacultural dominance in the textbooks. A critical engagement activity of this kind (Pennycook, 2012) appears applicable to advanced students (Grace's) as well as to those who have basic English competence (Alex's). Secondly, I do not recommend over familiarising students with any kind of English presented to them (in textbooks or teachers' English). One main reason for this suggestion is that teachers should avoid reproducing and reinforcing any prescribed English and recreating any form of dominance. At the same time, teachers should develop students' adjustment and readjustment skills to Englishes emerging from different materials, English that is used creatively (Christy's students) (not different kinds of prescribed English), teacher and student interactive use of English (Alex and Grace's students) or English on ESPN (Victor's students). This idea can also be applied to students of different levels by selecting and adapting the materials appropriately.

I noticed that creating opportunities for students to listen and respond have increased the space for ELF-aware language acquisition, which my teacher and student participants also agreed upon (Section 5.5). To create ELF-aware language acquisition opportunities, student-centred and an interaction approach should be encouraged in order to let students engage in language use. The student-centred approach highlights the user perspective and language use of students that ELF scholars strongly recommend (Seidholfer, 2011). Students' frequent use of English, their English and skills to use English can be legitimated through negotiating forms and meanings (Canagarajah, 2013). During interaction, in response to the prescribed English in the textbooks, students' use of pragmatic strategies to produce English should be encouraged and if necessary, teachers can incorporate skill enhancement to assist low to intermediate level students (see Cogo and Dewey, 2011).

The earlier ELF literature focuses on the contradiction of EFL education or ELT/SLA theories to ELF perspective and pedagogy (Subsection 7.2.2). Based on my findings, I suggest that attention should be moved away from these contradictions and towards the integrative or cooperative relationship between ELF and ELT/SLA theoretical contributions and practice. ELF-aware pedagogy should encourage teachers to critically reappraise their knowledge based on ELT/SLA theories with a view to applying ELF-ELT/SLA mixed approaches to realise ELF-aware teaching. In this way, ELF-aware teacher education or pedagogical suggestions can avoid providing teachers a set of pre-packaged knowledge about how to teach from an ELF perspective (Pennycook, 2012). In line with CP, I assert that the theories and ideas drawn upon to realise ELF-aware classroom practices should be critically evaluated and flexibly integrated and reshaped in order to fit into local ELT contexts (Akbari, 2008a). I highlight the importance of critically reappraising ELT/SLA-ELF integrated approaches in classroom practice and evaluating the feasibility of them in accordance with instructional contexts.

In response to mainstream EFL education, methods useful for resisting any dominance in aspects of US/ENL linguacultural resources and input are key outcomes of this study. As mentioned, resisting the dominant linguacultural resources is the initial step towards adopting an ELF perspective on teaching and learning (Subsection 7.2.3). Table 7.3 presents the strategies that I observed teacher and student participants employing.

Table 7.3 Strategies to resist any dominant linguacultural resource and input

Strategy	Teaching and learning purposes
Selecting	Teaching: selecting the pro-ELF theories and ideas in ELT and SLA to integrate with an ELF perspective to teach Teaching and learning: selecting parts, but not all of resources to resist the inclusive use of the linguacultural resources presented in textbooks
Integrating	Teaching/learning: integrating non-textbook resources to resist ENL resources, integrating ELF with the ELF-pro theories of ELT/SLA to resist the reproduction strategies
Interacting	Teaching/learning: interacting to resist the prescribed English language use, to practice negotiating meanings to resist the ENL form-based approach to English language
Feedback-based approach	Teaching/learning: paying attention to students' content of English (language use) and ways to convey meanings rather than accuracy
Exploring	Teaching/learning: exploring ideas to teach/learn otherwise in opposition to the reproduction of ENL-based teaching/learning
Alternatives	Teaching/learning: alternative resources, teaching/learning approaches
Evaluating	Teaching/learning: continuously evaluating the resources and teaching/learning approaches

Selecting avoids inclusion of one particular linguacultural resource that leads to dominance and exclusion of other resources which could be important for increasing students' linguacultural awareness of Englishes. This also helps teachers to use textbooks in a less attached fashion. Overall, this strategy enables teachers and students to present a weak form of resistance to the ENL resources. Since textbook-based teaching and learning appears inevitable to a certain extent in most contexts, an integrating strategy could be deployed to synthesise all the resources that teachers and students bring into classrooms and thus help to lessen the domination of the ENL resources presented in textbooks. Taking the ELF perspective in this way can de-centre the established approaches of ELT/SLA that may facilitate the reproduction of ENL domination. The third strategy to recommend is interaction that places teachers and students' use of English at the centre of practice. Through interaction, students resist the ENL form-based approach to language use and linguacultural resources by paying their attention to negotiating their own forms of English and the meanings that they wish to convey. Fourthly, I suggest the feedback-based approach should be employed to draw students' attention to fostering skills and processes needed to negotiate meaning. Another reason to recommend this approach is it allows teachers and students to resist correctness-based teaching and learning. Next, I encourage teachers and students to explore new ideas regarding teaching/learning English for communication in order to resist the ENL-based or prescribed approaches in textbooks. Sixthly, alternative resources for teaching and learning should be considered in order to reject the simple and routine reproduction of the prescribed

ones. Lastly, constant critical evaluation of all resources and approaches is necessary in order to avoid introducing any specific linguacultural dominance and not to embed restrictive approaches in classroom practices.

The above list of recommendations aims to highlight the importance of applying these strategies to critically resist the mainstream EFL education in order to yield greater space for ELF to be incorporated. As discussed in Section 2.7, without resistance to yield freedom, changes will not be possible because agency to make any change is lacking (Hoy, 2004, 2005). I propose resisting ENL linguacultural dominance as a good basis for ELF-aware classroom practice.

7.5.2 Contributions and suggestions for future research

I suggest that future research regarding ELF pedagogy should focus on investigating those compulsory courses that are run most frequently in EFL contexts. By doing so, the outcomes of the research can be more context-relevant for EFL education and recommendations can be made applicable to a wide range of programmes that are not run by ELF experts.

The findings of my research project were drawn from classroom observations. These observations focused on the process of teaching and learning towards ELF-aware pedagogy, which Seidlhofer (2011) suggested need to be thoroughly documented if they are to be of future benefit. In this way, it was possible to generate practical pedagogical knowledge and ideas of ELF-aware teaching and learning which could be useful for the professional development of teachers (Pennycook, 2012). Pennycook (2012) confirms that pedagogical knowledge generated from observations of teachers' practice is more relevant to teachers.

As Dewey (2012b) urges, context-relevant implications are fundamental to bring ELF-aware pedagogy or teacher education to the fore in local contexts. I suggest that EFL teachers can introduce exemplar teaching and learning incidents as stimuli to help teacher-trainees explore new or similar ideas that fit with their teaching contexts. These examples can also model some useful approaches for EFL teachers to use to evaluate their materials, assess students' English, and re-evaluate and apply ELT/SLA theories from an ELF perspective.

Situated in a CP research paradigm, I reappraise EFL not only focusing on challenging the established mainstream EFL provisions but also by giving insights to possible ways to incorporate an ELF perspective into EFL in theory and practice. My research has mapped out a new avenue for future ELF research into the cooperative relationship between ELT, SLA, and Critical Pedagogy scholarship. By this I mean that ELF can serve as a critical education research paradigm under which an ELF perspective is adapted and applied to conduct teaching and learning based research.

As Pennycook (2001) discusses, CP problematizes current educational practices but he further opined that many CP-based research studies have started and ended with problematizing educational provisions. I contend that this should not be the ultimate goal of CP. Practical changes should be suggested following on from highlighting challenges and problems. The outcomes of my research have provided theoretical and practical strategies for teachers and students to draw on to reinterpret their teaching and learning from an ELF perspective. I claim that this research has broadened the scope of ELF as a critical method to reappraise ELT. I further suggest that observing classroom practices and interviewing students and teachers about the underlying principles that support their practices is essential for ELF researchers. This can firmly attach theories to the practices of ELF-aware pedagogy and prevent a gap emerging between these two dimensions. Unfortunately such a schism can already be seen in other areas of scholarship such as in ELT research.

7.6 Conclusion and summary: back to teachers' classrooms

Pennycook (2012:131) states that 'the classroom is a pantomime, a play of languages and ideas, as we watch amid the swirling currents of interactions, we know we can only understand some of what is happening and can never know what is about to come'. Borrowing his metaphor, watching English language based pantomimes precisely depicts my observation journey from one classroom to another. The participatory approach of ethnography allowed me to take part in the English-based pantomimes which were taking place in Taiwanese classrooms. On the surface, the pantomimes were presented in an English style but, through participation and interaction with teachers and students, I uncovered the hidden pedagogical agendas whereby teachers and students reinterpreted, accommodated, and opposed the predefined pantomime plots to various degrees of intensity under different teaching circumstances.

Through using an ELF lens to cast a spotlight on the classrooms, I saw that Victor faithfully followed the ENL tradition, striving for teaching and learning in adherence with ENL linguacultural resources and anticipating ENL-like learning/teaching outcomes. Christy, Lindsay, and Alex decided to reinterpret and opposed the ENL-dominant form of EFL education by adding their own resources, taking different approaches to incorporate EFL perspectives when they were teaching communication skills and showing different degrees of flexibility about using resources and making pedagogical changes. By doing so, these three teachers were narrowing the gap between classroom English and the English used in real-world communication from an ELF perspective. The aforementioned practices were not fully established or mainstream because of other pedagogical concerns that needed to be addressed in these teachers' contexts. Under an ELF-aware curriculum and in her ELT context, it transpired that Grace could take an open approach to new ideas and strategies regarding her teaching and learning episodes and use the linguacultural resources to minimize the ENL dominance or other inadequate linguacultural influences in her classroom practices. Her teaching consistently presented her reinterpretations through a lingua franca perspective towards pedagogy. As an ELF researcher, I found

Grace an inspiring teacher, able to facilitate students' emergent and interactive language practice and acquisition, reflecting the fluid nature of lingua franca English as well as presenting an ELF perspective in pedagogical application. With Grace's ideas, theories, and practices of teaching, her students (English Majors) have acquired and employed different skills and have become competent lingua franca users of English. By contrast, the majority of non-English Majors followed their teachers' plans to learn English. Thus, their communication skills were not so well-developed. However, some ELF-aware language acquisition activities, ideas, and practices still confirm that there is the potential to train these students become competent lingua franca users of English.

Even though the focal Taiwanese students and teachers performed the pantomimes, the plays of language and ideas were ENL-Taiwanese mixed, and the pantomimes remained foreign to teachers and students. In the classrooms, however, I saw Taiwanese teachers and students' critical resistance to the ENL backdrop and resources by using various resources and strategies. This resistance is the transitional point when the conventional ELF becomes geared towards ELF-aware language acquisition. This demonstrated to me how ENL-based classroom pantomimes can be performed locally and differently.

Appendix 2.1 A summary of studies on English as a global language from Taiwanese people's perspective: 2004-2015

Table 2.1: A summary of studies on Englishes in Taiwanese contexts from 2004 to 2015			
Publication information	**Topics to address**	**Methodology**	**Key findings related to ELT**
Chou (2004)	International intelligibility of Englishes of undergraduates	Questionnaire survey into the intelligibility of Englishes to 55 English majors	-students' less tolerance of Taiwanese people's Englishes and more acceptance of other Englishes -the positive correlation between intelligibility and exposures of Englishes to learners
Lai (2008)	Teachers' beliefs about Englishes and its impacts on their teaching	Interviews with 5 university teachers of English	-teachers' mixed perspectives on ownership of Englishes -more flexibility about cultural diversity, less about linguistic variation of Englishes -teachers' hesitation to introduce EIL perspective to teaching due to the available resources and examination preparation
Chang J. (2009)	Attitudes towards Englishes and concept of Standard English	Questionnaire survey into 578 freshmen from 15 departments students	-AmEng as Standard, prestigious English -NES competence as learning goal -Unfamiliarity with English other than AmEng
Ke (2009)	Undergraduates' conceptions of Englishes and cultures	Interviews with 19 (non)-English majors from 5 professional studies, about 1/3 participants as English majors	-English accents as resources: the more the better -recognition of Englishes' pragmatic and communicative functions -learners' assumption about English to communicate with users from ENL countries -learners' intercultural experience other than their professional studies affects their perceptions of Englishes -learners' preference for the US/UK cultures
Liou (2010)	Teachers' and students' attitude towards EIL	Questionnaire survey into 126 teachers and 529 students (44% English majors and 55% non-English majors)	-students' strong agreement with standard pronunciation and correct grammar as the essential input - teachers' more acceptance of students' linguistic output and not vice versa -the prevalent preference of Standard English for classroom practices -teachers' strong anti-EIL attitudes as teachers, acceptance of EIL as users -learning-using divide: students' flexible attitudes towards users' Englishes, particularly their use of grammar and cultural input -teachers' and students' preference of textbooks produced in ENL countries -introducing target cultures as necessity -students' preference for NES teachers (US in particular)
Chang Y. (2014)	WEs perspectives on classroom practices	A qualitative study on 22 English majors' individual reflections on elective WES course	-students' most concerns about varieties of English, the future of WES, the current status of English, standard English ideology, ELF (9%), and Asian Englishes -discussion about NES/NNES and user/learner dichotomy

			-the topic about the ideology of native-speakerism to raise their awareness of learning Standard English -students' knowledge about pluralcentric English often juxtaposes with their learning -WE course facilitates students critical aware of English as dominant language,
Tsuo and Chen (2014)	ELF perspective on classroom practices	A mixed method (Questionnaire and interviews)	-good awareness of other kinds of English -tolerant other kinds of English and least tolerant with their own English -learning remains NES-oriented -intelligibility as a priority in communication -accuracy assists communication -54% of international students accept English of Taiwanese students -listening main ideas and responding appropriately as a priority for the effective communication
Ke and Cahyani, (2014)	WES/EIL/EF perspectives on the reality of use of English	Pre- and post-course questionnaire survey into 58 Taiwanese undergraduates with intermediate levels of proficiency, online communicative message, retrospective interviews	--students' positive attitude towards Englishes and cultures (pre and post survey) -students' prioritisation of intelligibility and acceptance of Englishes and cultures in the real-life communication and NES competence for learning: a mixed perspectives allow them to transform from EFL learners to ELF users -students' learning goal: NES-oriented (not much difference between pre and post survey) and this goal is less to do with identity but more to do with hospitality, their assumptions to communicate with NESs, their learning results, and the public acceptance of NES Englishes -students may abandon using English like NESs but learning English towards NESs' -learners' beliefs about Englishes affects their learning goal and practices -NES English is more intelligible to them through education -this project does not make students aware the meanings of NES competence in reality of English for communication although it increase students' acceptance of their and others' Englishes and cultures -the researchers are also aware learner-user divide: users can automatically switch their learning to using mode in the real-life communicative settings -the needs in the studies on 'how to teach ELF communication skills and strategies' (p. 36)
Seilharmer (2015)	WES perspectives on ownership of English	Ethnographic case studies to observe and interview 6 female adults	-4 out of 6 claim their ownership of English as proficient users as well as learners -the lack of communicative needs and use -English remains a subject to learn rather than a language to use -learning-using divide -examination to reinforce certain types of spoken English

Appendix 3.1: Questionnaire for students

UNIVERSITY OF Southampton
School of Humanities

My name is Melissa Yu, a PhD student at the University of Southampton in the UK. I would like to thank you for answering the following questions concerning English language learning. I conduct this survey with an aim to understand university/college students' perceptions of learning English language for real world communication. Your personal opinions will be very helpful and highly valued. The answers to all questions will be treated confidentially. The questionnaire will be anonymous, unless you are willing to provide your name for further contact. Yet, no such information provided will be made public.我是 Melissa，目前於英國南安普敦大學攻讀博士學位。首先謝謝你幫忙填寫有關英文學習的問卷調查，這份博士研究主要是要了解台灣大學生對於學英文以準備未來離開教室真實語用與溝通的看法，你的看法及觀點對我的研究很有幫助也很有價值。你所有的答案都是保密的，這份問卷調查也採用匿名方式，你提供的個人資料也都不會公開。請用中文或英文簡短回答。

A. Student informant's background information (學生的背景資料)

1. Please complete the following personal information (請完成下列個人資料). I would like to be called (我希望被稱為)_____ (請寫一個名字) and I am (我_____ ☐ under 18 (未滿 18 歲) ☐ older than 18 (滿 18 歲). My nationality is (我的國籍是) ☐Taiwanese (台籍) ☐ non-Taiwanese (非台籍) (Please specify your nationality if you are a non-Taiwanese: _____.) (非台籍者請註明國籍。)

2. How long have you learned English language in Taiwan? (你在台灣學習英文多久了?)

   ☐ 5 years or less (不到五年。) ☐ between 5 and 10 years (五至十年。)

   ☐ more than 10 years (十多年。) ☐ Other: Please specify_____(其他請具體說明。)

3. Are you an English major? (你的主修是英文嗎?)

☐ Yes, I am. (是的，我的主修是英文。)

☐ No, my major is (不，我的主修是_____。)

4. Have you ever attended or are you going to attend an English language programme in another country? (你曾經有或即將在其他國家遊學或就讀英文嗎?)

☐ Yes. Please provide the information about where and how long you have attended/are going to attend this programme. (有, 請說明地點及多久?)

_____

☐ No, please go to the next question. (沒有, 請回答下一個問題。)

B. Students' learning experience in English(學生的英文學習經驗)

5. Please number the types of teacher from whom you have learned English language based on your learning experience. (One for the most; two for the second most) (請用數字 1 與 2 標示出你過去經驗中最常與第二常與他/她學習英文的老師。)

☐ The teachers of English whose nationality is the same as mine and who do not use English as native language (與我國籍相同、不是用英語為母語的老師)

☐ Foreign teachers of English who use English as native language (用英語為母語的外籍老師)

☐ Foreign teachers of English who do not use English as native language (不是用英為母語的外籍老師)

☐ Other: Please specify_____(其他請具體說明。)

6. The main purpose of learning English in the past is to (你過去學英文主要為了___)
   ☐ pass the examination (考試。)
   ☐ use English for the real world communication (用英文溝通。)
   ☐ access to resources in English (獲得資訊。)
   ☐ Other: Please specify_____ (其他請具體說明。)

7. Now you learn English in order to (你現在學英文為了_____). You can tick other option(s) if your answers are different from that to the last question. (如果有不同於上述目的，可複選。)
   ☐ prepare for the examination (考試。)
   ☐ use English for the real world communication (用英文溝通。)
   ☐ access to resources in English (獲得資訊。)
   ☐ Other: Please specify_____ (其他請具體說明。)

8. Have you ever taken any English language proficiency test? (你曾經參加英語能力考試檢定嗎?)
   ☐ Yes, I had taken (有，我參加_____ (the name of English language proficiency test) and the result is 結果是 _____
   ☐ No, never. (沒有，從未參加過)

9. Do you have any plan for taking any English language proficiency test in the future, what the test is, and why?(你未來有計畫參加英語能力考試檢定嗎?什麼檢定考?為什麼?)
   ☐ Yes (有，有計畫). I would like to take (我想報考) _____ because

(因為) _____

☐ No (沒有，不想。) because (因為) _____

10. Whose English served as the learning model in classes that you have had attended? Please write down all the learning models if you had more than one (根據你上課經驗，在教室誰的英文經常是我學習英文的範本/典範?如果多於一個，請都列出。)

_____

_____

11. Do you have other learning model(s) you prefer in addition to the aforementioned learning model(s)? If yes, what is/are they? If no, please answer the next question. (除了上述學習英文的範本/，你有個人偏好的學習範本/典範嗎? 有，請描述是誰的英文或什麼英文。沒有，請答下一題。)

_____

_____

12. What aspects of language are very often taught and learned in classrooms that you have experienced? (根據你上課經驗，請問你從英文老師中比較經常學到哪方面的英文語言的觀念或知識?)

_____

_____

13. What aspects of English language are least explored in the classrooms that you have experienced? (根據你在台灣學習英文的經驗, 在教室裡那一種英文語言的觀念，知識，或技巧較少被加強?)

_____

_____

14. What are the more frequently-used listening materials to train students' listening skills in the classes which you attend now? (現在你就讀的大學教室中，什麼聽力教材經常用來訓練學生聽力技巧?)

_____

_____

15. What are the more frequently-used speaking materials to develop students' speaking skills in classes which you attend now? (現在你就讀的大學，什麼口說教材經常用來訓練你的口說技巧?)

_____

16. What are the activities used more often to train students' speaking in English classes in which you attend? (現在你就讀的大學英文課程中，什麼活動經常用來訓練學生的口說技巧？)

_____

_____

C. Students' learning goals and needs of English language(學生的英文學習目標及需求)

17. What level of English language do you want to acquire in the classroom (在台灣你想把英文學到什麼程度)?

_____

_____

18. What aspects of English language do you think you need to acquire or need to be enhanced in Taiwan in order to use it for communicative purposes? (在台灣英文課上你需要學或加強那方面的英文能力才能幫你用英文溝通)?

_____

_____

Your comments on this investigation are very valuable. Please feel free to add any comments to this questionnaire below. If you are interested in questionnaire results, please contact me at hyy1g10@soton.ac.uk so that I can email you survey results as soon as data is collected, fully analyzed and discussed. I would appreciate it also, if I could interview you or have electronic conversation with you once you have completed the questionnaire. If you do not mind, I would like to have your contact and indication of when would be the best time to interview in person or talk online. Please use the space provided below. You can also ask me any questions concerning preparation for study in the UK or traveling information across countries in Europe. I may schedule an online discussion group if you are interested in exchanging ideas with those international students from Taiwan in the UK.

Phone number:

Email:

Skype/MSN/Facebook:

Best time to call:

Comments:

Appendix 3.1: Questionnaire for teachers

UNIVERSITY OF Southampton
School of Humanities

My name is Melissa Yu, a PhD student at the University of Southampton in the UK and I would like to thank you for answering the following questions concerning English language teaching. I conduct this survey with an aim to understand university/college teachers' perceptions of teaching English language for actual language use. Your personal opinions will be very helpful. The answers to all questions will be treated confidentially. The questionnaire will be anonymous, unless you are willing to provide your name for further contact. Yet, no such information provided will be made public. Please either tick or use English/Chinese to answer the questionnaire.

我是 Melissa，現於英國南安普敦大學攻讀博士學位。首先謝謝你幫忙填寫有關英文學習的問卷調查，這份博士研究主要是要了解台灣英文老師對於教英文以幫準備學生未來離開教室真實語用與溝通的看法，你的看法及觀點對我的研究很有幫助也很有價值。你所有的答案都是保密的，這份問卷調查也採用匿名方式，你提供的個人資料也都不會公開。

請用勾選、中文或英文簡短回答，謝謝。

A. Teacher informant's background information(老師的背景資料)

1. Please complete the following personal information (請完成下列個人資料). I would like to be called (我希望被稱為)_____ (請寫一個名字) and I am (我_____ ☐ under 30 years old ☐ 30 to 40 years old ☐ older than 40 years old.

2. How long have you taught English language in Taiwan?

☐ not more than 5 years ☐ between 5 and 10 years

☐ more than ten years ☐ Other: Please specify

3. Please describe your English language background as a teacher of English language in Taiwan?

☐ A Taiwanese teacher of English who does not use English as native language

☐ A foreign teacher of English who uses English as native language

☐ A foreign teacher of English who does not use English as native language

☐ Other: Please specify

4. Have you received the master and/or doctoral degree(s) in English-speaking country?

☐ Yes, please specify country where you received your degree(s): _____

☐ No

5. Please briefly describe your research interests.

_____

_____

B. Current English language education and the language policies

5. Is the university/college you are working for an English-medium university/college (a university where some or all courses are taught in English)?

☐ Yes ☐ No

6. Has your university/college set any English language proficiency as the benchmark for school admission or graduation?

☐ Yes. (Please specify the English language requirements for school admission or graduation in compliance with which examination system(s) _____.

☐ No

7. Does your department currently recruit any foreign teacher(s) of English?

☐ Yes. (Please describe his/her/their mother language(s) and what courses he/she/they is/are teaching.)

☐ No

8. What are the criteria adopted to select the coursebooks for teaching Oral Training1 and 2 or the General English training for the first-year undergraduates?

_____

_____

C. Pedagogy concerns

9. What is the most important aspect in your English language teaching practices?

_____

_____

10. What is your priority to select teaching materials for your students?

_____

_____

11. What methods and materials do you most refer to help your students develop their communicative competence?

_____

_____

12. What do you hope your students would be able to do with the English that you have taught them after they leave the school?

_____

_____

13. What are your thoughts about connecting the English you teach in the classrooms to the actual English language use?

_____

_____

Your comments on this investigation are very valuable. Please feel free to add any comments to this questionnaire below. If you are interested in questionnaire results and Taiwanese users' answers to your questions, please contact me at hyy1g10@soton.ac.uk so that I can email you survey results and answers as soon as data is collected, fully analyzed and discussed. I would appreciate it also, if I could interview you or have electronic conversation with you once you have completed the questionnaire. If you do not mind, I would like to have your contact and indication of when would be the best time to interview or talk online. Please use the space provided below.

My Phone number:

My email contact:

Skype /MSN/Facebook ID or other online message systems:

Best time to call or be online: (Taiwan Time zone) _____ (am/pm) to_____ (am/pm)

Comments:

Appendix 3.2: An example of field notes

Classroom Observation File notes: **Grace's Oral Training 2**

Classroom observation (CO)	**Date:** 25/04/2011
Place: Seminar Room on the 3rd floor, University 1	**Teacher**: Grace, Taiwanese
Year of students: Sophomore	**The title of cours**e: Oral Training 2
The Attended Students: 13	**Seating:** U-shape seating position
Observed Student(s): all of them	**Students' professional study:** English majors

Flow of classroom practice

- Students helped move the recorders around and collect recorders in the end.
- 10:20=teacher's lecture highlight the importance of persuading speech. Students are engaged in listening to teacher and eating breakfast at the same time.
- 10:45=students are called to read the content of textbook.
- 10:50= students discuss in Mandarin. There are 3 pairs of students talking about topics. They think the topics are too difficult and they all took notes.
- 10:57=students are asked to move around to conduct a survey. Students start discussion the assigned tasks.
- 10 min break (during the break students still interviewed each other in English.
- 11:20=Class begins with students' summaries of their survey results.
- 11: 32/33=There is teacher-student interaction (Q&A).
- 11:35-59=**different topics are covered (e.g. rape criminal; mercy killing; voluntary; alien; junk food, sex education, divorce rate; high school life; working experience; recycling; cram schools; Eastern vs. Western medicine; etc.)**
- Students listen to the peer and they don't proposes any questions. They don't take notes of students' report.

Description of the CO

1. 6 minutes of introduction to students regarding this research project by Grace, including the researcher's background, research focus, and the ethical issues.
2. 10.20: teacher's lecture; going through the key points of today's lesson page by page;
3. 20mins later: the teacher asked the students to take a look at the structure of the persuasive speech examples; then she asked the 3 individual student (3) to read the structure out loud;
4. after reading the structure: she explained to students about the task she is going to ask them to do (about 3 mins): take notes on the classroom survey; do a classroom survey; 5-minute to do presentation next hour; topics to refer to (p.111)
5. Students commenced discussing as a pair or three in a group
6. 50 mins later a break
7. **Content**: positions of speakers (p. 187)
8. **topic**: persuasive speech

subtopics in order: positions of speakers; purposes of delivering persuasive speeches; the topics of the persuasive speech (reminding students of the previous learning p. 111; the students based on the topics of this page to do their first presentation); audience; plan for the persuasive speeches; expressing opinions; the importance of facts in the persuasive speeches; language use indicating opinions; prepare the speech, smooth transition to enable audience to understand the speech; the organization of the speech; gather and document resources of the speech; citation of resources; arguments to support the speaker's position; (the first 25-min outline of teacher's lecture)

Assignment : the 2nd speech of this term

My interpretations and reflections

- The topic of 'gun control': Melissa just wonder whether the topic as such is not a 'culture-friendly' topic after all the gun control is never a social issue in TW.)
- the teacher's speech is slow and repeats
- avoid repetition: e.g. In my opinion, I think…redundancy should be avoided; reminding the students of using redundant mistakes, especially in writing; English language is more concise (teacher pronounced as: concise).*In ELF communication, repetition is one of the accommodation skills. Redundancy is the one characteristic of ELF users' performance.*
- Students were making comments about the references of topics: too difficult to elaborate; the topics suggested such as mercy killing; anorexics, they shows little interests in the topics;
- teacher reminded students of 'personal issues' should not be brought to classroom, such as the first love….(during the students' discussion about the topics they chose to work)
- Students are really well-behaved; they did as the teacher suggested; they didn't use their own topics; they simply picked one of the topics in the reference page; *(Students are not critical enough for what is provided. They take what is provided.)*
- Students do peer learning: say the distinction between vegetable and vegetarian. *ELF speakers help each other to complete conversation depending on the conversational situations.*
- teacher intervention twice during group discussion about the choice of topics (one for personal issue, the other is asking them to move around after discussion)
- teacher left the classroom during the break; students continue working by interviewing each other during the break
- students use *code-switching* to conduct the survey
- I listened to students' discussion, I realize that their mandarin is also influenced by English language. For example, one student told the other student in Mandarin, 'wo zan chen zheng fu you duo yi dian jiao yu zai huan bao shang mian.' (I agree that the government should offer people more education on the environmental protection.)

Appendix 3.3: Interview guide for students

Primary research question: What are students' perceptions of learning English as an international language within the framework of Taiwanese education?

EFL education inside classroom vs. ELF outside classroom

1. Background information

2. English language education before tertiary level

2.1 describes briefly about English language learning from primary to secondary levels; after school classes

2.2 teachers: NS/NNS;

2.3 foci of teaching practices: listening and speaking

2.4 teaching materials: main textbooks; supplementary materials

2.5 teaching/learning were carried out inside classroom

3. English learning at present

3.1 teaching materials

3.2 school English language programme

3.3 teacher

3.4 teaching: content, purposes

3.5 learning: content, evaluation

3.6 anecdotes of English language learning experience

4. Evaluate English language education from ELF perspectives

4.1 purposes of learning English: functions of English

4.2 English as a global language from classroom English perspectives based on experience

4.3 Classroom English vs. global Englishes: connection

4.4 What has/has not done inside classroom

4.5 suggestions

Appendix 3.3: Interview guide for teachers of English

Primary research question: To what extent are Taiwanese English teachers informed by theories or concepts for intercultural communication?

EFL education inside classroom vs. ELF outside classroom

1. Background information

2. English language teaching before tertiary level

2.1 describes briefly about English language teaching experience: what schools, what levels of students, etc

2.2 teachers: NS/NNS;

2.3 foci of teaching practices

2.4 teaching materials: main textbooks; supplementary materials

2.5 teaching/learning were carried out inside classroom

1. English learning at present

3.1 teaching materials

3.2 school English language programme

3.3 teacher

3.4 teaching: content, purposes

3.5 learning: content, evaluation

3.6 anecdotes of English language learning experience

2. Evaluate English language education from ELF perspectives

4.1 purposes of learning English: functions of English

4.2 English as a global language from classroom English perspectives based on experience

4.3 Classroom English vs. global Englishes: connection

4.4 What has/has not done inside classroom

4.5 suggestions

Appendix 3.4: Themes of coding teacher and student interviews and classroom observation

Themes emerging from interview data analysis	
ELT and learning contexts	**Teaching Practice**
1.University English language Policy & Curriculum • orientations of university curriculum and English language policy • English as instruction medium • L1 to learn English (positive attitude toward L1) • English language learning programme • Foreign teachers	**4. Teaching/learning Materials** • The selection, evaluation and use of textbooks • Use of audio CD or listening materials • Use of teachers' guide • Concept of NS or NNS presented in materials • Difficulties developing speaking and listening
2. Teaching Context • Diverse accents and the dominance of American English • Monolingual, cultural or Multilingual, cultural presentation or input • Teaching/Learning vs. tests • Difficulties developing speaking and listening	**5. Teaching practice** • Students use/develop their English • Speaking and listening training and foci • Concept of NS or NNS in teaching practice • Correction or 'NS-based/teacher-based (majority) error' treatment • Accuracy vs. language performance vs. fluency • Q&A to develop listening and speaking
3. Learning • Learning model(s) • Students' topic management in speaking and listening training • Learning objective : general goal vs. goals for different kinds of learning • Course objectives of students and teachers in listening and speaking training • Learners' autonomy	**6. Teacher Education** •Open approach to teaching and learning English •pre-given/structured input and output vs. fluidity of language use • Teachers' perception of NES or NNES of English • Teachers' reflective teaching • Teachers' awareness of Reproduction, resistance, reduction or maintenance of teaching •Making good teachers to address student needs

Appendix 3.5: Participants information sheet for students

UNIVERSITY OF Southampton
School of Humanities

Participant Information Sheet for Students

Study Title: Connecting classroom English to real world English: Taiwanese teachers' and students' perspectives on ELF-aware pedagogy

Researcher: Hui Yen Melissa Yu
Ethics number:

My name is Hui Yen Melissa Yu and I am a PhD student studying English as a world language at the Department of Modern Languages, University of Southampton in the UK. I am doing research on the real world English practices as a part of my PhD studies. You are being invited to take part in this research study because of your current role as a student with much experience about learning English language. Before you decide whether you want to take part, it is important for you understand why, how this research is being done and what your participation will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Please ask me if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.

The aim of this research project is to explore the college/university students' perception of learning English language in Taiwan for the real world communication. For my research, I would like to observe your English language learning at your university/college and interview you about your English language learning experience for communicative purposes. After that, you will be given a chance to exchange your English language learning experience with the other student participants either from your or other departments. The primary objective of classroom observation, interview, and group discussion is to understand the English language education provisions that you have had for the real world communication. If possible, I would like to take notes and record your English language learning, the interview, and group discussion. I will analyse and use the data anonymously and confidentially only for the purpose of my PhD studies. I hope that my research project will have implications for further improvement of English language education in Taiwan. I would be grateful if you would participate in my research project to add your views on the current English language education.

Your participation in this research project is voluntary. If you decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to participate in this research project, you are still free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason.

If you have any concerns about your participation in this study, please contact Melissa at 0937-238-173 in Taiwan or email hyy1g10@soton.ac.uk.

Appendix 3.5: Consent letter form for students

UNIVERSITY OF Southampton
School of Humanities

CONSENT FORM

Project Title: Connecting classroom English to real world English: Taiwanese teachers' and students' perspectives on ELF-aware pedagogy

Researcher name: Melissa Hui Yen Yu

Study reference:

Ethics reference:

Please initial the box(es) if you agree with the statement(s):

I have read and understood the information sheet (15/04/2011/version 2) and have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study ☐

I agree to take part in this research project and agree for my data to be used for the purpose of this study ☐

I agree for my learning in classes, interview and focus group discussion to be audio recorded ☐

I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without my legal rights being affected ☐

Name of participant (print name)……

Signature of participant……..

Name of Researcher (print name) ……

Signature of Researcher……..

Date……

Appendix 3.5: Participants information sheet teachers of English

UNIVERSITY OF Southampton
School of Humanities

Participant Information Sheet for Teachers

Study Title: Connecting classroom English to real world English: Taiwanese teachers' and students' perspectives on ELF-aware pedagogy

Researcher: Melissa Hui Yen Yu
Ethics number:

Please read this information carefully before deciding to take part in this research. If you are happy to participate you will be asked to sign a consent form.

My name is Melissa H. Y. Yu and I am a PhD student studying English as a world language at the Department of Modern Languages, University of Southampton in the UK. This research project evolved out of my experience in teaching English for the real world communication. I am doing research on the real world English practices as a part of my PhD studies. You are being invited to take part in this research study because of your current role as a teacher teaching English language. Before you decide whether you want to take part, it is important for you understand how this research is being done and what your participation will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Please ask me if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.

The aim of this research project is to explore the college/university teachers' perceptions of the linkage of the classroom English to the real world English. For my research, I would like to observe your English practiced by you and interview you about your English language teaching to prepare students for the real world communication. Besides, you will be given a chance to exchange your English language teaching experience with the other teacher participants from your discipline. The aim of the classroom observation, interview, and group discussion is to describe and record teaching practices, approaches, and materials and so on. If possible, I would like to take notes and record the teaching practices, the interview, and group discussion. I will analyse and use the data confidentially and anonymously only for the purpose of my PhD studies. I hope that my research project will have implications for further improvement of English Language Teaching in Taiwan. I would be grateful if you would participate in my research project to add your professional knowledge of teaching English language for use purposes to the current English language education in Taiwan.

Your participation in this research project is voluntary. If you decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to participate in this research project, you are still free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason.

If you have any concerns about your participation in this study, please contact Melissa at 0937-238-173 in Taiwan or email hyy1g10@soton.ac.uk.

Appendix 3.5: Consent letter form for teachers of English

UNIVERSITY OF Southampton
School of Humanities

CONSENT FORM

Project Title: Connecting classroom English to real world English: Taiwanese teachers' and students' perspectives on ELF-aware pedagogy

Researcher name: Melissa Hui Yen Yu

Study reference:

Ethics reference:

Please initial the box(es) if you agree with the statement(s):

I have read and understood the information sheet (15/04/2011/version 1) and have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study	☐
I agree to take part in this research project and agree for my data to be used for the purpose of this study	☐
I agree for my classroom teaching practices, interview and focus group discussion to be audio recorded	☐
I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without my legal rights being affected	☐

Name of participant (print name)……

Signature of participant……..

Name of Researcher (print name) ……

Signature of Researcher……..

Date……

Appendix 4.1: Student participants' majors in various faculties in universities

University	Faculty	Department/Programme
TU	1. 文學院 (Art College)	1. 外國語文學系(Department of Foreign Languages)
CU	1. 理學院 (Faculty of Science)	1. 物理系 (Department of Physics)
		2. 化學學系 (Department of Chemistry)
		3. 地球科學系 (Department of Earth Sciences)
		4. 數學系 (Department of Mathematics)
		5. 光電科學與工程學系 (Department of Photonics)
	2. 工學院(Faculty of Engineering)	6. 機械工程學系 (Department of Mechanical Engineering)
		7. 化學工程學系 (Department of Chemical Engineering)
		8. 資源工程學系 (Department of Resources Engineering)
		9. 材料學與工程學系 (Department of Material Science and Engineering)
		10. 土木工程學系 (Department of Civil Engineering)
		11. 工程科學學系 (Department of Engineering Science)
		12. 系統與船舶機電工程系 (Department of System and Naval Mechatronic)
		13. 環境工程學系 (Department of Environmental Engineering)
	3. 電機咨訊學院(Faculty of Engineering and Computer Science)	14. 電機工程學系 (Department of Electrical Engineering)
		15. 資訊工程學系 (Department of Computer Science and Information Engineering)
	4. 文學院 (Faculty of Liberal Arts)	16. 歷史系 (Department of History)
		17. 臺灣文學學系 (Department of Taiwanese Literature)
		18. 中國文學學系 (Department of Chinese Literature)
	5. 社會科學學院 (Faculty of Social Science)	19. 心理學系 (Department of Psychology)
		20. 政治學系 (Department of Political Science)
		21. 法律學系 (Department of Law)
		22. 企管學系 (Department of Business Administration)

	6. 管理學院 (Faculty of Management)	23. 會計學系 (Department of Accountancy)
		24. 統計學系 (Department of Statistics)
		25. 交通管理學系 (Department of Transportation and communication management Science)
	7. 規劃設計學院 (Faculty of Planning and Design)	26. 建築學系 (Department of Architecture)
	8. 生科學院 (Faculty of Bioscience and Biochemistry	27. 生物學系 (Department of Biology)
		28. 生命科學學系 (Department of Life Sciences)
	9. 醫學院 (Faculty of Medicine)	29. 醫學檢驗學系 (Department of Medical Laboratory Science and Biotechnology)
		30. 護理學系 (Department of Nursing)
		31. 職能治療學系 (Department of Occupational Therapy)
PU	1. 教育學院 (Faculty of Education)	1. 教育學系 (Department of Education)
		2. 特教學系 (Department of Special Education)
		3. 幼兒教育學系 (Department of Early Childhood Education)
	2. 理學院(Faculty of Science)	4. 應用物理學系 (Department of Applied Physics)
		5. 應用數學學系 (Department of Applied Mathematics)
		6. 資訊科學學系 (Department of Computer Science)
		7. 先進薄膜製程學程 (Thin Film Science)
		8. 電腦與智慧型機器人學程 (Bachelor Programme in Robotics)
	3. 人文社會學院 (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences)	9. 文化創意產業學系 (Department of Cultural and Creative Industries)
		10. 社會發展學系 (Department of Social Development)

Appendix 4.2: Emerging issues from the data collected from the student/teacher questionnaire surveys

Introduction paragraph

Two sets of questionnaire surveys firstly provide an overview of how curricular decisions in schools and universities possibly affect the orientations and foci of learning and teaching. For this, the student survey results offer information about the objectives of learning, the available and major linguacultural resources and models for learning, the least training in the past, and the anticipation of learning English for communication from the current English language education. Teacher survey results present the information about the potential linguacultural presentation for input by teachers and through teaching materials, the ideas for listening and speaking training, and the anticipation of teaching. At the same time, two questionnaire survey results suggest the further exploration of teachers' and students' conceptualisation of communicative language use, linguacultural representation and resources for teaching and learning, the ideas and practices of teaching and learning speaking and listening to link to the real-world communication.

In the table below the questions given to the students and the teachers are presented.

Table 4.16 The emerging pedagogical issues from two questionnaire surveys

Issues emerging	Student survey question covered in chapter 4 that relates to this issue	Say why this question/data relates to issue x	Teacher survey question covered in chapter 4 that relates to this issue	Say why this question/data relates to issue x	Emergent theme for Table 5.1 (see Appendix 5.3)
1. The conditional situation for the leaching of English for communicati on	**1.1 Orientations of university curriculum:** *graduation threshold, English as instruction medium, skill-based curriculum* **1.2 English instruction medium:** *the main learning model/resourc es*	***1.1*** **Orientations of university curriculum:** *Because the orientation of curriculum may affect students' learning goals: e.g. the examination curriculum may lead to students' decision on learning English for exams rather than communicatio n* ***1.2*** **English instruction medium:** *This question*	**1.1 Orientations of university curriculum:** *graduation threshold*	*1.1 A)* ***the examination-based curriculum*** *may encourage 1), exam-driven teaching; 2) the selection and use of examination-related materials; 3) the kind of English which is going to be tested as the foci of teaching; B)****English as instructional language*** *may encourage 1) the dominance of teachers' spoken English (if teaching is teacher-led); 2), one way to use*	The conditional situation for the leaching of English for communicati on

	1.3 L1 to learn English: no specific question in questionnaire relate to this topic **1.4 English language learning programme:** *student mentioned it in their learning resources (students' answers)* in U2 **1.5 Foreign teachers:** *experience in being taught and listening to teachers' NES, NNES, and Taiwanese English*	*helps me to understand 1), The extent of students' exposure to teacher's English (a form of NNES English and dominance or not); 2), the extent other kinds of English can be introduced to class; 3), the potential for Taiwanese teachers' English dominance forms due to their lectures* ***1.3*** **L1 to learn English: NA** *Because students may use other linguistic resources to help them learn and produce English* *1.4* **English language learning programme:** *because I wanted to know whether students motivate to learn English outside of classroom. If not, the study on their learning inside of classroom becomes more important*	**1.2 English instruction medium:** *the main learning model/resources* **1.3 L1 resources (including**	*English as teachers' because of their English as models/resources; may discourage3) the introduction of other Englishes;4) the development of students' awareness of diverse nature of English and its use in the real-world communication; C)* ***Skill-based curriculum*** *may lead to1), teachers' selection of textbooks on specific skills; 2) one-skill focused teaching; 3) teachers' ideas of teaching 1.2 When teacher's English serve as a major input, their use of English to teach may contribute to 1), the dominance of their English, so I need to interview and observe teachers' English for input about 1) students' great familiarity with teachers' and 2) their understanding others' Englishes*	

		because this study record students' most learning practices ***1.5*** **Foreign teachers:** *teachers' English as input resource: students' exposure to Taiwanese, NES, and NNES English as input resources in the order of the most-frequent to the least-frequent The results help understand 1) students' have most exposure to Taiwanese people's English; least to English by NNESs of English inside of classroom;2) so students' knowledge about using English with NNESs should be enhances; 3) it is necessary to know whether students' learning prioritise this.*	**contexts) to learn English or not:** *the Question about English for instruction* **1.4 English language learning programme:** *student mentioned it in their learning resources (students'*	*1.3* **L1 resources (including contexts) to learn English or not** *: If English as the only instructional language, teachers' English together with the teacher-led approach to teaching may lead to teachers' English dominates classroom practices, further leading to 1) the fewer opportunities to introduce other linguacultural resources: 2); if it is not teacher-led approach to teaching (teachers' lectures), what are other resources introduced to the students; 3) to the reproduction of English-related resource input; 4) the resistance the use of L1 resources (including the L1 contextual resources)* *1.4* **English language learning programme:** *More questions about this topic: do teachers*	

			answers) in U2 **1.5 Foreign teachers: NO question about this topic.**	*know this programme, and do they encourage students to register the programme and why (not)* *1.5* **Foreign teachers:** *Irrelevant to Taiwanese teachers*	
2. Linguacultural resources for input and practice in the classroom	**2.1 Diverse accents and the dominance of American English:** *learning resources/models* **2.2 Monolingual, cultural or Multilingual, cultural presentation or input:** *Only one model or resource* **2.3 Teaching and/or**	**2.1 Diverse accents and the dominance of American English:** *If it is single model, following a single model for learning contradicts to multilingual nature of the real-world communication.* **2.2 Monolingual, cultural or Multilingual, cultural presentation or input:** *If only one particular kind of English or culture is presented to students, they may not be able to understand others. Students may stereotype the*	**2.1 Diverse accents and the dominance of American English:** *did they suggest other learning resource, teacher's and textbook English, what else?* **2.2 Monolingual, cultural or Multilingual, cultural presentation or input:** *their use of English to teach*	**2.1 Diverse accents and the dominance of American English:**. because I want to know 1), whether teachers become aware of any linguacultural dominance existing in their own English, the resources presented in textbooks for input; 2) whether any kind of English and culture has been repeatedly presented to students and reproduced through classroom practices; 3) if so, that theories to support this reproduction; if not, what theories to resist such the presented linguacultural resources and input	Linguacultural resources for input and practice in the classroom

	Learning vs. tests: *setting learning goal* **2.4 Difficulties developing speaking and listening:** least training and why (the lack of activities or ideas or others?)	*presented English and culture. In addition, students may think there are no other ways to use English or other ways to use English are inadequate.* **2.3 Teaching and/or Learning vs. tests:** *if graduation requirement is set, examination English may be prioritised. It is also likely other purposes of learning English will not be prioritise or considered.* **2.4 Difficulties developing speaking and listening:** *Speaking and listening as key parts of communicatio n, if these two skills are least taught, that suggests few opportunities are created for students to develop listening and speaking. Any curricular, theoretical or practical consider to*	**2.3 Teaching and/or Learning vs. tests:** *anticipation for learning results: (teaching helps students with the real-world language use)* **2.4 Difficulties developing speaking and listening:** teachers' prioritisation of speaking and listening fundamental to classroom practices for communicatio n	**2.2 Monolingual, cultural or Multilingual, cultural presentation or input:** because if teachers draw on or use limited linguacultural resources, this suggests the lack of their openness to other linguacultural resources or alternatives to the available resources to deal with the dominant resource and input **2.3 Teaching and/or Learning vs. tests:** *because I need to know whether 1), teaching aims to prepare students for the English that will be tested 2), the possibility to teach English for communication (along with examination), such as teachers' wish to teach for which purposes through the available resources (interview)* ***in order to understand whether teaching helps***	

		aid or hinders teachers from teaching speaking and listening?		***student achieve the stated goal: communication*** **2.4 Difficulties developing speaking and listening:** *Since speaking and listening as the least taught skills and students' learning goal is communication and teachers see these two skills as foundation for developing students communicative language use (questionnaire results), it helps me to understand whether their goals have been achieved to investigate 1) the available resources adequately encourage or discourage speaking and listening training for C (interviews), 2), what theories/ideas of teaching help them decide adequate input resources or examine the existed resources and make changes if necessary 3) based on the selected materials what listening and speaking*	

				training has been reproduced and others have been overlooked, any imbalanced training (CO) 4), what theories and ideas of teaching encourage the repeated use of certain linguacultural resources for speaking and listening training (on-site interviews)	
3. Beliefs about English language use in the real world	**3.1 Learning model(s):** *the major models or resource to which students refer and learn* **3.2 Students' topic management in speaking and listening training:** *resources for them to practice speaking and listening*	**3.1 Learning model(s):** if there is only one model or specific resource for students to refer to or follow1), the extent to which students conform to the stated models needs to be investigated, 2), how resources or models present English language, cultures, and use for students to learn using English, 3), whether such presentation is close to the real-world language , 4), its impacts on students' perception of English and its	**3.1 Learning model(s): I did not ask teachers about learning models but I did ask them two questions: one is about their use of English to instruct and the other is materials to teach speaking.**	**3.1 Learning model(s): Teacher's English and the English presented in the chosen materials serve as linguacultural resources or set models for students to learn from.** If there is only one or a specific model or resource chosen for input, it helps understand whether delivering the chosen input helps communication or simply lead to the reproduction of the presented English by investigating : *1), how they evaluate the resource or model which presents English language,*	Beliefs about English language use in the real world

	3.3 Learning objective: general goal vs. goals for different kinds of learning: *learning target(s) from the past to the present* **3.4 Course objectives of students and teachers in listening and speaking training:** *the most and the least training, is there consistency between teachers' and students'* **3.5 Learners' autonomy:** *what English level of*	use for learning **3.2 Students' topic management in speaking and listening training:** how students were taught English speaking and learning, through what resources, and the theories to support such training **3.3 Learning objective: general goal vs. goals for different kinds of** *if students were learning for examination in the past, they may not acquire insufficient knowledge about communicative use of English, so in the current class, questions to ask students further is 1) how they learn English for communication to achieve their learning goal (they wish to learn Eng for communication); 2) any linguacultural resources available to*	**3.2 Students' topic management in speaking and listening training:** what activities teachers often used to offer students listening and speaking training **3.3 Learning objective: general goal vs. goals for different kinds of learning: two questions are related to this theme:** the first question is about teachers' identification of the most important aspects of ELT. The second question is about the objectives of their teaching. **3.4 Course objectives of**	*cultures, and use, 2), whether such presentation is close to the real-world language use, 3), the extent to which teachers ask students to conform to the chosen resources or models, 4) any theories to support them to use such resources and offer the stated model; 5), its impacts on teachers' teaching: resistance or reproduction* **3.2 Students' topic management in speaking and listening training:** *this theme will illustrate 1), how students respond to the presented input resources, the use of these resources/activities, and the results of teaching and learning; 2) the ideas or theory to support the use of these materials and classroom practices* **3.3 Learning objective: general goal vs.**	

	proficiency do students wish to acquire and for what purpose	*them and how they evaluate, choose, and use these resources to help them achieve the set learning goal: communicatio n* **3.4 Course objectives of students and teachers in listening and speaking training:** *the most and the least training Questions for further exploration: 1) are teachers giving more listening and speaking training now for communicatio n as they stated these two skills are key to learn English for communicatio n.* **3.5 Learners' autonomy:** *what English level of proficiency do students wish to acquire and for what purpose. The most or least training aids or hinders students' communicatio n use.*	**students and teachers in listening and speaking training:** No questions of student and teacher survey are directly related to this but their answers concerning listening and speaking help the interviews and classroom observation focus down to certain topics about listening and speaking training **3.5 Learners' autonomy: the question for further exploration**: the anticipation of teachers about the impact of teaching on their students and their answer is 'use' English for different communicativ e purposes. Linking to students' learning goals, I find the	**goals for different kinds of learning:** the data obtained from these two questions demonstrates 1) whether the prioritised aspects of teaching assist students learning for communication; whether the objective(s) of teaching corresponds to students **3.4 Course objectives of students and teachers in listening and speaking training:** *the most and the least training Questions for further exploration: 1) are teachers giving listening and speaking training now for communication as they stated these two skills are key to learn English for communication; 2) what is the content of listening and speaking training; 3) how do teachers give listening and speaking training; 4) any theories or ideas of teaching to support them to give listening*	

			consistency between these two. I came up more questions to ask.	*and speaking training; 5) how did they find the available resources aid or hinders listening and speaking training for communication* **3.5 Learners' autonomy: the question for further exploration: to link to questions about the anticipation of teaching and learning objectives and students' perception of their own learning results:** 1) are students also striving for listening and speaking to develop their English; 2) when learning listening and speaking, do students learn for using their own language or learn for other purposes? 3), what strategies to develop listening and speaking ; 4) how do they think of their English for use: ready or not yet, why (not)	
4. Textbooks and materials	**4.1 The selection, evaluation and use of textbooks:** questions	**4.1 The selection, evaluation and use of textbooks:** students'	**4.1 The selection, evaluation and use of textbooks:** *questions*	**4.1 The selection, evaluation and use of textbooks: teachers'**	**Textbooks and materials**

	about learning materials for speaking and listening **4.2 Use of audio CD or listening materials**: questions about learning materials for speaking and listening **4.3 Use of teachers' guide** No question: irrelevant **4.4 Concept of NES or NNES presented in materials:** *question about materials (input resources) for listening and speaking training*	answer indicate material as one major learning resources so I need to understand what they think of the chosen textbook and how they are going to use the provided textbooks **4.2 Use of audio CD or listening materials:** *since students' and teachers' answer indicate CD as the major linguacultural input resources so I would like to understand how teachers and students use it, how do they think useful for English communicatio n or other purposes, and how they use CDs* **4.3 Use of teachers' guide:** irrelevant **4.4 Concept of NS or NNS presented in materials: students' answers do not show any**	*about criteria for selecting materials and materials to teach speaking and listening* **4.2 Use of audio CD or listening materials: question about materials for listening training** **4.3 Use of teachers' guide** Questions about materials	**answer indicate their use of activities for speaking and listening training.** *Their answers motivates me to investigate the following issues: 1) how teachers select the textbook that they currently use for teaching; 2) how teachers choose certain activities to offer listening and speaking training; 3) what theories to support their choice of these activities; 4) do they identify any limitation of linguacultural resources for listening and speaking training; 5) if yes, what theories support their critical evaluation and how they decide to deal with such presentation; 6) if there is no limitation, do teachers simply reproduce the presented linguacultural input?* **4.2 Use of audio CD or listening materials:** *since students' and teachers'*	

	4.5 Difficulties developing speaking and listening: the question concerning the least training	**relationship between their materials and NES& NNES input ideology. Their answers motivates me to examine 1),** how they evaluate linguacultural resources presented in the materials; *2), how students relate these resources (NES and/or NNES) to their learning (i.e. setting as learning goal or models? Do they consider NES quality as a necessary element in the materials for learning)* **4.5 Difficulties developing speaking and listening: the data shows that students receive rather little listening and speaking training.** The data is informative for further exploration because teachers think teaching speaking and listening is most relevant	**4.4 Concept of NS or NNS presented in materials:** *question about materials for listening and speaking training* **4.5 Difficulties developing speaking and listening:** the question concerning teaching listening and speaking	*answer indicate CD as the major linguacultural input resources so I would like to understand how teachers and students use it, how do they think useful for English communication or other purposes, and how they use CDs* **4.3 Use of teachers' guide** *the data shows not all the teacher use teachers' guide and in the interviews, not all the teachers used teacher's guide so I decide not to talk about this theme.* **4.4 Concept of NES or NNES presented in materials:** teachers' answers are mostly related to textbooks and audio CDs of textbooks and these answers motivates me to understand what theories did teachers' draw on the select and use CDs and the textbooks to offer students listening training (i.e. NES English or NNES	

		to teaching communication. *Integrating the data of these two questions, it is important to know 1), what aids or hinders teachers from teaching listening and speaking in the past and how; 2) whether listening and speaking are still the least training in the observed classes; 3) the ideas of teaching speaking and listening*		Englishes) and why **4.5 Difficulties developing speaking and listening:** *Since teachers agree that listening and speaking are the most relevant to teaching English for communication, it is important to understand the observed teachers' ideas about teaching speaking and listening in order to understand whether they are teaching English for communication and what theories and ideas of teaching listening and speaking support their practices. therefore I answer the questions as follow: 1), how often do teachers teach listening and speaking; 2)do the observed teachers offer more speaking and listening training than the training that their students received before; 3) what materials they use; 4) what*	

				kind of training is offered ; and 5) how they teach speaking and listening	
5. Classroom practices	**5.1 Students use/develop their English:** *question about listening and speaking activities to learn* **5.2 Speaking and listening training and foci** *: the question regarding listening and speaking training and materials* **5.3 Concept of NES or NNES in**	**5.1 Students use/develop their English:** *the data shows that they had rather few opportunities to develop their listening and speaking that are seen as important skills for communicatio n by teachers. The data helps me explore the following issues further: 1) how do they feel about the current speaking and listening training in comparison with their previous experience; 2) how do the current listening and speaking training help them for communicatio n; 3) anything to suggest* **5.2 Speaking and listening training and foci:** *as mentioned, listening and speaking were least taught according to students. Since*	**5.1 Students use/develop** *their English: teachers' anticipation for students' learning results in their classrooms* **5.2 Speaking and listening training and foci: the question about listening and speaking (materials and activities)** Given that teachers think listening and speaking are important for communicatio n, **5.3 Concept of NS or NNS in teaching practice***: the*	**5.1 Students use/develop their English:** *since four out of five teachers hope their teaching help students use English for various communicative purposes, it would be important to know 1) how they help students use English (e.g. what materials, how they use these materials, and the results)* **5.2 Speaking and listening training and foci:** *Given that teachers think listening and speaking are important for communication, it is important to know how they carry out listening and speaking training to help students develop communicative competence. Thus, I need to understand what the foci of speaking and listening training, how and the ideas of teaching to*	Classroom practices

	teaching practice: *No question in student survey is related to this topic.* **5.4 Correction or 'NS-based/teacher-based (majority) error' treatment:** ***the question about learning goal***	*they wish to learn English for communication, it is important to know how they relate the past and current listening and speaking training to prepare them for communicative language use* **5.3 Concept of NS or NNS in teaching practice:** *Given students are using mainly textbooks for listening and speaking training (this data), I am motivated to further explore 1), how the claimed NES dominance is reproduced through teaching and learning if it does exist in the studied classrooms; 2) how students perceive NES and NNES linguacultural representation and resources in the selected materials; 3) how their perception relates to their ideas of*	*questions regarding Speaking and listening materials and activities* **5.4 Correction or 'NES-based/teacher-based (majority) error' treatment:** *students' answers to the questions about materials and teaching as well as teachers' answers to questions regarding anticipation of students' learning from them*	*support these two trainings.* **5.3 Concept of NES or NNES in teaching practice:** *Given that literature indicate textbooks are NES-based and students' answers shows that teaching is textbook-based, it would be important to know 1) how certain linguacultural norms are introduced to students and these norms are used as references only or norms for students to adhere to? 2), are these norms (NES or NNES) are re-introduced into the classroom? 3), the introduced norms are NES(-related) as the existed research claimed?* **5.4 Correction or 'NS-based/teacher-based (majority) error' treatment:** *due to the teaching is textbook-based and linguacultural input is from*	

	5.5 Accuracy vs. language performance vs. fluency: *the question regarding their wish to learn English for communication* **5.6 Q&A to develop listening and speaking:** *the questions about the activities for speaking and listening training*	*learning English (e.g. learning CD English is more effective than learning other kinds of English?)* **5.4 Correction or 'NS-based/teacher-based (majority) error' treatment:** *students' answer indicate their learning goal is communication, yet there is more than one way to use English for communication (my literature review), it will help me understand whether students learn English for communication and how: 1) how students evaluate their own English based on the linguacultural norms set by the textbooks (NES) or teachers; 2) how do they compare the presented English in materials or by teachers, their English, and the real*	**5.5 Accuracy vs. language performance vs. fluency***: teachers' response to the question regarding anticipation for students 'learning: use* **5.6 Q&A to develop listening and speaking:** *the questions about the activities for speaking and listening training*	*teachers' English and textbooks, it is important to know whether teachers will use the linguacultural norms set by them or textbooks to measure students' use of English and how this measurement aid or hinder the development of students' English for communication* **5.5 Accuracy vs. language performance vs. fluency:** Given teachers anticipate *their students to be able to use English that they learn from these teachers, it is important to know 1) whether the teachers create opportunities for students to practice using or use English; 2) how they let students use English: reproduce the English in accordance with the set norms (e.g. textbook English); 3) let students use their English to*	

		world English outside of classroom; 3) do they think their English or any English deviation is incorrect and inadequate for communicatio n so it should be corrected **5.5 Accuracy vs. language performance vs. fluency:** *Since students aim to learn English for communicatio n, how do they perceive their English adequate for communicatio n is very important. So in interviews, I explore :1), how do they think of NES English, teacher's English, textbook English and their English in comparison with the English for the real-world communicatio n; 2) do they think there is one correct way to use English; 3) if they produce incorrect English, do they think that will affect communicatio n and how; 3),*		*express ideas even though their English is not necessarily inconsistent with teachers' or the English presented in the textbooks.* **5.6 Q&A to develop listening and speaking:** *According to teachers' answers, they used several activities to train speaking and listening and Q&A is one of the most popular activities for speaking training (including listening training too), so it would add the depth to the discussion about the use of speaking and listening activities to develop students' listening and speaking. To this end, interview and classroom observation data need to provide answers to 1): what other activities encourage or discourage students' use English in their own ways to express the*	

		do students really prioritise fluency or use their English instead of accuracy for communicative language use **5.6 Q&A to develop listening and speaking:** *given students give little information about the activities for speaking training and they only mentioned textbook-based speaking training. Teachers' answer refers to Q&A as the most frequently used activity. Based on these answers, the further questions to explore are: 1) how students use English in speaking activities (such as Q&A); 2) the use of learners' English adhere to the pre-given linguacultural norms or adhere to the pre-*		*intended message; 2)*	

		determined ways to use Enlgish; 3) if students do not adhere to the pre-planned ways to use English and scenario of using English, is there any correction.			
6. Teacher training : This section is about teachers so I don't fill the student box although the information extracted from students survey inform me of further exploration of teacher training. **Also, the literature review indicates the lack of implications of ELF research for teacher education. Thus, I particularly focus on theories or ideas of teaching.**	**6.1 Open approach to teaching and learning English 6.2 pre-given/structured input and output vs. fluidity of language use 6.3 Teachers' perception of NES or NNES of English 6.4 Teachers' reflective teaching 6.5 Teachers' awareness of Reproduction, resistance, reduction or maintenance of teaching 6.6 Making good teachers to address student needs**	**6.1 Open approach to teaching and learning English 6.2 pre-given/structured input and output vs. fluidity of language use 6.3 Teachers' perception of NES or NNES of English 6.4 Teachers' reflective teaching 6.5 Teachers' awareness of Reproduction, resistance, reduction or maintenance of teaching 6.6 Making good teachers to address student needs**	**6.1 Open approach to teaching and learning English:** *the questions about asking teachers to identify theories that are most informative and the use of English as the only instructional language* **6.2 pre-given/structured input and output vs. fluidity of language use:**	**6.1 Open approach to teaching and learning English:** *No approach regarding the selection and use of linguacultural resources identified useful for teaching and their positive answers to the use of their English for the main instructional language motivate me to ask teachers whether and how the 1), multiple linguacultural resources can be introduced for teaching/learning in addition to their English, 2) opportunities created for students' development of their English in various ways if teachers' English dominates the classroom*	Teacher training

			the question about asking teachers to identify the useful activities and resources for speaking and listening training **6.3 Teachers' perception of NES or NNES of English:** *question to teacher about their anticipation of students' learning from their teaching*	*discourses; 3) re-evaluation of the available linguacultural resources for teaching and learning* **6.2 pre-given/structured input and output vs. fluidity of language use:** *according to teachers' answers to the useful activities, the answers show their use of certain activities. Building on their answers, I would like to understand more about how teachers use the identified activities. To gain this understanding , I need to ask teachers questions about : 1), what activities and resources which are introduce to students and reproduce the pre-determined the structures or language use contexts on students' language use inside of classroom; 2) what activities and resources are introduced and teachers and students resist the pre-*	

			6.4 Teachers' reflective teaching: *the question about asking teachers to identify theories that helps their teaching* **6.5 Teachers' awareness of reproducing or resisting linguacultural resources and input teaching** *the question about asking teachers to identify theories that*	*determined structure and language use and develop their own; 3) any theories or ideas of teaching to support teachers and students deal with pre-given input no matter they reproduce or resist the selected activities and resources;* **6.3 Teachers' perception of NES or NNES of English for the real-world use**: *the common answer of teacher to this question is to prepare students for using English to meet various purposes. Building on their teaching to enable students to use English, I would like to explore teachers' perception of and idea of teaching speaking and listening about : 1) whether students need to acquire NES competence of using English 2)Yes or no, why and why not.* **6.4 Teachers' reflective**	

			helps their teaching **6.6 Making good teachers to address student needs** *the question about teachers' anticipation for their teaching*	**teaching:** *Teachers' answers did not include theories or reflect the ideas of teaching in relation to sociolinguistics or lingua franca use of English, so I would like to know whether teachers reflect on their teaching in relation to the mentioned areas even though they did not mention in the questionnaire survey. To this end, I need to understand 1), whether and how teachers relate the listening and speaking training to the theories (i.e. sociolinguistic or their own language use experience) that they did not identify in the questionnaire; 2) how these theories inform their teaching practices through reflecting the (use of) available linguacultural resources and input* **6.5 Teachers' awareness of reproducing or resisting**	

				linguacultural resources and input: *based on teachers' answer to the theories of teaching, it is still not clear about any theories that teachers did not mention but may stimulate their reflection on the ways to evaluate, deal with the linguacultural resources: by considering reproducing or resisting the ideas of teaching offered in textbooks as well as the linguacultural resources for input* **6.6 Making good teachers to address student needs:** *the data of students survey indicates students' wish to learn English for communication. Their learning goal coincide teachers' anticipation for teaching in order to prepare students for language use : it is thus important to know 1) how teachers evaluate their listening and*	

				speaking training meets students' needs and their anticipation to conclude their teaching	

Appendix 5.1 Transcription Convention Systems for content analysis of interviews and classroom practices (Adapted from David Silverman's (2006: 398-399) Simplified Transcription Symbols)

1. **Teacher and student participants' pseudonyms for interviews**: Student participants are presented as follows: S1, S2, S3… the first student, the second student, the third student to represent the order in which their interviews were coded.

Participants	**pseudonyms**
Teacher	Grace
Student	GS1, GS2, GS3… the first student, the second student, the third student of Grace to represent the order in which their interviews were coded.
Teacher	Victor
Student	VS1, VS2, VS3… the first student, the second student, the third student of Victor to represent the order in which their interviews were coded.
Teacher	Lindsay
Student	LS1, LS2, LS3… the first student, the second student, the third student of Lindsay to represent the order in which their interviews were coded.
Teacher	Christy
Student	CS1, CS2, CS3… the first student, the second student, the third student of Chrissy to represent the order in which their interviews were coded.
Teacher	Alex
Student	AS1, AS2, AS3… the first student, the second student, the third student of Alec to represent the order in which their interviews were coded.

2. **Teacher and student participants' pseudonyms for the analysis of classroom practices**: Student participants are presented as follows: S1, S2, S3… the first student, the second student, the third student to represent the order in which students speak in class. The letter C is added to students' pseudonyms to distinguish these pseudonyms for classroom practices from those for interviews above.

Participants	**pseudonyms**
Teacher	Grace
Student	CGS1, CGS2, CGS3… the first student, the second student, the third student of Grace to represent the order in which students speak in class
Teacher	Victor
Student	CVS1, CVS2, CVS3… the first student, the second student, the third student of Victor to represent the order in which students speak in class
Teacher	Lindsay
Student	CLS1, CLS2, CLS3… the first student, the second student, the third student of Lindsay to represent the order in which students speak in class
Teacher	Christy

Student	CCS1, CCS2, CCS3… the first student, the second student, the third student of Chrissy to represent the order in which students speak in class
Teacher	Alex
Student	CAS1, CAS2, CAS3… the first student, the second student, the third student of Alec to represent the order in which students speak in class

3. **Time-related conventions:** Time is only presented in the extracts when the duration of certain listening and/speaking activity is discussed.

Duration of time	Use to indicate
(00:00)	a specific action/interaction ends
(00):00:00	time for a specific teaching incident/section
(.)	short pause, less than 3 seconds
(. 10)	long pause with time duration (e.g. 10-second pause)

4. **Content of interviews and classroom practices**

Conventions	**Used to indicate**
[text]	the commentary of any kind (e.g. to indicate in discourse where teacher continues similar practice.)
{word(s)/phrase(s)}	overlapped words/phrases between interlocutors
((word(s)/phrase(s)))	teacher's/student's verbal intervention
<translation>	translation from Mandarin into English
<< word(s)/phrase(s)>>	repeat the word(s)/phrase(s) in <<>>
[?]	use to indicate poor quality of recording and cannot be transcribed
\|\| | the omission of irrelevant exchanges between teacher and students, student and student, or interviewer and interviewee |
… | the omission of teacher's, student's talk |
"text" | text in textbook |
@@/@@@ | short/long laughter of teacher and/or students |
bold | the content and discourses to analyse and discuss in my PhD research |

Appendix 5.2 Two examples of interview transcription and classroom practice transcripts

Interviews

Example 1 The transcription of an interview with Victor's student

Researcher：那你的標準會不會是，你剛剛有講到 CD 很標準，你會朝向這個方向嗎?
VS1：嗯，對，就是朝這個方向，就是模仿 CD。
Researcher：模仿 CD？
VS1：嗯。
Researcher：那你覺得模仿 CD 有什麼好處？
VS1：就是標準嘛，就是他們不會，也不是說不會，就是說沒有夾雜其他的。
Researcher：口音。
VS1：對。
Researcher：所以你覺得要去掉口音嗎？
VS1：可能是我自己覺得這樣夾起來很好聽的關係，就是他們那種講法，我因為也聽了很久，我會覺得就這樣，覺得很順，真的是很順，可能就會朝這樣子的。
Researcher：很順是指容易聽得懂嗎？
VS1：嗯。
Researcher：那我問你，如果別人說你講話有臺灣的口音，你心裡會有什麼感覺？
VS1：你說講英文的時候。
Researcher：對，對，對。
VS1：就會有點澀，就覺得有點，什麼？真的假的，好像不夠標準，現在慢慢的有點習慣，可是如果說臺北的口音或者哪裡的口音好像也聽得出來，我說我怎麼都聽不出來，這有差嗎？都不知道，不會觀察。是說專門研究語言的比較敏感，對，就語言的部分，我是不知道，聽不太出來。
Researcher：所以你會覺得自己不夠標準。
VS1：嗯。

Example 2 The transcription of an interview with Alex

Researcher: 但是就是學生有講說，老師，因為他的上課不會讓我們很有壓力，所以我們才會敢回答老師的問題，確實他們…這一點他們再 interview 有說到。只不過就是…那我們就針對那個說的部份。我有看到老師設計的那個 speaking 的 activity，那我最常看到在課堂上就是 questioning and answering，就是你跟其中一個同學這樣子。然後不然就是另外一個 pattern 我觀察到的就是…就是 Smart Choice 不是每一課中間的地方都有一個 conversation，然後他下面會有一個類似 word bank 或什麼東西，然後可能你就會讓他們去做練習，然後去代換那個字。那…你覺得這樣子得練習對培養他們 speaking 上面有什麼樣的幫助？或者是你還有其他比較常坐得活動我沒有發覺到…？

Alex: 這樣子的活動對 speaking 有沒有幫助？他們能開口就有幫助。因為怎麼講…像這樣子一對多的班級，三十五個說多不多，說少也不少。那…嗯…如果說一對一得 Q&A 那個真的就是…隨機這樣子挑的，隨機這樣挑的。那…我的碩士論文就是在做課堂上 Q&A 的東西，那其實我一直對…像這種 question and answer…我希望能多用就多用，可是因為就是…當然你也不可能顧及到所有的學生，所以我只能每堂課可能挑幾個同學來回答這樣子。那…其他人大部分都是用 pair work 的方式。那…你說對他們的那個…Speaking 有沒有幫助，你要從理論方面來看嗎？

Researcher: 都可以。看老師你覺得哪一個方面比較認同。

Alex: 沒有…沒有…就第二語言習得我最認同的就是 interaction hypothesis，然後…Input 跟 output 的一個…的過程。那…用 pair work 的話就是用 co-construction 的理論下去看說，至少…他在跟 peer 或是其他同學或者是跟我的互動過程當中，因為…因為是真實的互動，所以我很鼓勵他們不會的話就提問，然後聽不懂…任何情況之下，you can always ask for help，那從這樣子下去看，其實是我比較認同的。

Classroom practices

Example 1: Grace, April 26, 2011

Background information: using Communicating Effectively in English to teach, the recorded duration of teaching: 1:58:44

Content of Teaching:

00:05:32 Grace: Ok, so now hum, we are going to talk about a new chapter. Ok, as you know, like hum, we are a little bit far behind our schedule, so that's why I you know want to like hurry up to catch it. So open your textbook to page hum 187, page 187. (.5) At the bottom of page 187, ok, speaking to persuade, ok, actually you know like hum, for your mid-term of presentation you guys all present something about problem-solution presentation, speech right. Ok. So actually the new

chapter, is going to teach something really similar like that kind of problem-solution speech. So it's kind of good thing, we are kind of review again. But of course, we call persuasive speech. Ok, so that's why in terms of persuasive speech, we should have more like stronger position ok about what kind of position you want to take in terms of regarding this controversial issue. Ok, so that's why basically you just need to remember it is very similar like the speech you presented for your problem-solution speech. Ok, but then just this one is called persuasive speech. OK. And now we will learn how to take a position ok. So at the bottom of this page, speaking to persuade, the first line "We all persuade others to do things in daily life." Ok, so I think you guys all know. Ok, so many, hum, many times you know hum you just want to persuade as the textbook says, you "want to persuade a friend or a relative to drive you to school so that you don't have to take the bus." Things like that happen in our daily life a lot although you don't recognize that you are actually trying to persuade others ok. You want them to trust you to believe you and then to take action. OK. So at the bottom of this page, the last line, "Learning to use appropriate persuasive techniques can benefit you and can also help you see how others persuade YOU." Ok.

00:07:45 Grace: Now turn to next page. On page 181 [In fact, it is 188, she read the first line and she explains her plan for students' assignment-presentation.], "Your assignment for this unit is to give a persuasive speech." Which means pretty soon actually I estimate by this week, we will finish this chapter. And then after that, we need to present the, you know, deliver your second speech. Ok, so that will happen pretty soon. Ok, so then here. "persua, persuasive speeches are" ok "common in many fields: now we see "in business" and then the next line "in courts of law" ok, and then the next line "in Politics" [Interpretation: She uses stress pOlitics rather than poLitics based on NES norm and students and herself did not make any response to her stress here.] Ok, so which means it is WIDELY used. So then on, also on this page, let me count the line, line 6. "Persuasive speeches are normally given for one of three purposes": so now you know what are the three purposes in terms of delivering a persuasive speech "(1)" you want "to reinforce a belief " which means people already have this belief and you want to make it stronger to them ok, "(2) maybe people don't have such an belief in the past and now you want to establish this belief ok (Interpretation: The second point she uses her own words completely without reading lines), the "(3)" is you want "to change a belief" which means people used to hold a belief from what you are going to, like, tell them. So that's why you want to change them. Ok, so that's basic about three purposes. Ok. And of course, "an additional goal may be too move the audience to act." Did you see here? So this is why (.) theee last time, what you presented your hum problem-solution speech, we say you need to [?] an action. Ok, ask audience to talk, to take an action. So that's why your hum solution to the problem should not be just some suggestions but should be enforceable. So this one now is again [?] the meaning, purpose.

00:09:40 Grace: so now look at the bottom of this page ok. Of course, you need to choose a topic. Ok. So of course, for this new persuasive speech, you need to choose a topic different from the previous, eer, the first presentation, the topics, ok. And then here choose the topics, er, the first line "For this assignment, choose a topic that you feel strongly about. A good place to start looking for a topic is in the list provided … (she skips words of this sentence) on our page (.) 111, ok, so which means, actually back to page 111, let's take a look. Of course, if you have any other good, you know, topic you really want to, you know, deliver, it is all welcome. If you don't really have any idea, so you can back to this, page 111, ok to refer to anything, which one maybe can give you some ideas, ok. Or if you still don't have ideas, maybe you decide from one our of this list and choose to reframe, er, your topic.' OK. [Interpretation: her open approach to topic choice and her open approach to adapting the provided topics which demonstrates two levels of openness: completely and semi-open. This further shows her flexibility in input, allowing students to operate their ways to speak English.]

Example 2: Alex May 11, 2011

Background information: teaching speaking activities in Smart Choice 2, the duration of teaching: 1:31: 22

Content of teaching:

00:04:00 Alex: Ok a (:)nd today we are going to the second part of unit 11 so(:) please turn to page 73, ok 73. (.5) Ok, we are going to cover er the rest listening part. And you can see on page 73. This is a picture of grandfather, father and son. OK. This is about interview about family history. OK. So the er the youngest kid. OK, the teenager is going to interview his father and grandfather about the family, family history. OK. So firs-, first time, ok, you are going to listen to the CD er twice. But the first time you will [==] the questions in part 2 ok. "Where were Carl's father and grandfather born?" So basically you [=] figure out in the listening where they born? Carl's father and grandfather, they born in different [==], different countries ok. Question 2 "how long have they lived in the US?" How long? Ok, number 3 "how old are they now?" So you have to figure out how old is Carl's father? Also, you have to figure out how old is Carl's grandfather? Ok. Figure out the information about two of them. All right. Now just listen to the CD for the first time. For the first time, you just figure out, you just find the answers to the three questions. Ok, ready?

00:05:51 (Alex plays Audio CD of textbook)

00:05: 51 Page 73, listening. Activity 2. Listen to the conversations. Answer the questions. (Below is the transcript of listening materials.)

"A: Hi my name is Carl Rossi, I am 24 years old, and I live in California. I'm making an audio history of my family. I'm going to talk to my dad and my grandfather to find out what they used to do when they were my age. First of all, my dad, Franco Rossi. Hi Dad…

Appendix 6.1 The analysis of textbook-detached approach to teaching

Table 6.2 The textbook-detached approach

Teacher	**Rationale for their use of textbooks and actual classroom practice**
Grace's theoretical motive	'I feel that I need to **select** key points that I think my students may overlook or need to pay attention to. … [She also mentioned that she needed to] '**reduce the time to give lectures based on the textbook'** 'in order to allow **more time to let her students** to [explore the resources of their own] to practice speaking.
Grace's teaching	**Extract 6.1 Grace's approach to use textbooks**
	and turn to next page, **on page 196**, the first line of this page, … on **page 197** OK. The first line … on the third line, … What I want you to do is back to **page 189**, 189 OK. At the bottom of this page, activity 1… , you can go back to, refer to **page 111** OK.
Analysis	Grace's beliefs about using the linguacultural resources in the textbooks are selective, such as drawing students' attention to key points in different pages in the textbook (Extract 6.1). This suggested her intention to avoid the inclusive use of textbooks. Besides, she tried to reduce her textbook-based lecture in order to spare more time for students to explore useful resources which could be from the textbooks and/or other materials for speaking practice. Extract 6.6 (Section 6.3) illustrates an example of how Grace's students gained the opportunities to explore their resources to practice speaking. This also echoes her suggestion to her students not to over rely on textbook.
Christy's theoretical motive	'…In fact, I used the activities in the textbooks [to train listening and speaking] but I needed to be **flexible** [about the use of these activities]…some [linguacultural resources] are not appropriate [to my students]. Some activities do not allow me to **get all my students involved**'.
Christy's teaching	**Extract 6.2 Christy's approach to use textbooks**
	'Good…..But one thing to note is what? When you look at the **key word**, such as the word 'centenarian' [the word prescribed on page 38 of *American Headway* 3], **you probably think I can't say this word**. Cen-, cen-, cen- if this happened [while students speak], you can say people at the age of 100. **This will also do**. You can use this **paraphrasing**'. [This is a commentary after she interacted with one student.]
Analysis	Christy emphasized her flexibility in and pragmatic strategy for the use of the linguacultural resources prescribed in the textbook. For instance, Christy suggests her students should use a paraphrasing strategy to be flexible in their use of English, especially when students cannot speak the English prescribed by the textbook. Christy got her students to get involved in speaking activities through being flexible in the use of resources (see also Extract 6.10 in Appendix 6.4) and teaching students to be flexible and to use pragmatic strategy. (see also Extract 6.16 in Appendix 6.5).
Lindsay's theoretical motive	'… some [activities] are not so appropriate. …So I did not use the activities in this textbook, but I use activities from others …'. Lindsay also pointed out that she needed to use textbooks '**beyond textbook's writer's approach to [learn English]** so she decided to know different textbooks in order to get '**other ways to do the similar activities**.
The actual practice	**Extract 6.3 Lindsay's approach to use textbooks**
	Lindsay: <<**The end** of discussion>> is what? **CLS1: The answer.** **Lindsay:** OK, the answer.… Somebody said, it's **a result** of "the final situation of the end of discussion". Good. **Probably, we have agreement**. Is that ok?...
Analysis	In addition to the use of multiple textbooks to do listening and speaking activities (Subsection 5.4.1.1), Lindsay emphasized that she used the textbook beyond textbook writers' perspective on English language and its use. Extract 6.3 showed that her feedback on student's reply (i.e. answer) is 'good' and her response to the

	prescribed language use in the material ‘agreement’ is ‘probably’. Lindsay’s response showed her process-based and open approach to allow students to negotiate ‘other’ ways (alternatives to the prescribed one by the textbook) to speak English.

Appendix 6.2 The analysis of the textbook-attached approach to teaching

Table 6.3 The textbook-attached approach

Victor's theoretical motive	In fact, they [students] are better and now **they don't need my help/intervention when giving answers**. They give their answers straight and their answers are **correct**. This is related to their (.) because they have received this training **for almost a year**. **I begin training with season 1** and now students are learning **season 6**. I select about **6 episodes**.
The actual practice	**Extract 6.4 Victor's approach to use textbooks**
	CVS2: I'm also really (CVS6 stopped here.) **Victor**: phy-ch-ed, phy-ch-ed, 它意思是 excited, excited, 或者是 happy 的意思. <It means excited, excited, or happy>. **CVS2**: but I'm also really psyched' cause I don't have to move in here! **Victo**r: phy-ch-ed, phy-ch-ed, phy-ch-ed, phy-ch-ed, ok, can you repeat that but I'm also really phy-ch-ed again **CVS2**: But I'm also really phyched 'cause I don't have to move in here!
Analysis	Extract 6.4 showed that Victor paraphrased the word 'psyched'. In contrast with Christy's flexibility in using textbook (Extract 6.2), Victor chose to teach listening in strict adherence to the linguacultural resources provided in *Friends* and reproduced the prescribed language by repeating the correct words several times to his students and asking students to repeat after his repetition. In addition, Victor emphasized the longitudinal use of the same material facilitate students' learning. Through the textbook-attached approach to teach and longitudinal use of the same materials, AmEng has been reinforced and it is very likely his students became very familiar with AmEng at the expense of listening to other forms of spoken English.
Alex's theoretical motive	'Basically, I use the activities on the textbook …if they [students] could discuss the topic in the textbook, I am very happy to see that because my students' English proficiency level is D [His students' English language proficiency is according to the grading system in US (Section 6.1)]…'
The actual practice	**Extract 6.5 Alex's approach to use textbooks**
	OK, well, <<next>>, we are going to move on to Smart Talk. OK, this part, you **have done this before**. … And **one is student A and one is student B**. (…) **Probably some of the names that you might not know**. (…), please **take a look at these 10 sentences**, 'cause later you are going to **use the information here to answer your partner's questions**. OK, but now <<please>>, spend three minutes to **finish Question 1 to Question 10**.
Analysis	Extract 6.5 illustrated that Alex's teaching remained textbook-dependent even though he noticed the problematic linguacultural representation to his students for speaking practice. Due to his students' English language proficiency, he still taught listening and speaking in conformity with the resources provided by textbook.

Appendix 6.3 Victor unconditionally accepted the linguacultural resources

Table 6.4 Accepting the presented linguacultural resources unconditionally

Victor (*Friends,* Scene I and II, Season 6)	**Extract 6.9 Victor's response to the inadequate resource in the textbook**
	… OK, very good. Thank you. Ok, you both sound kind of engaged and appealing [to audience]. OK. Very good. Later, see how other students read. 'Where the apartment is? It's already up there … [**Victor read this to students in a monotonic voice.**], like this, **try your best not to**, a bit, **next time try to learn the ways they** [characters] **speak**. [?] All right. So Scene II …, who would you want to be?

Appendix 6.4 The examples of teachers' critical approach to the inadequate or US/ENL linguacultural resource

Table 6.5 Four teachers' critical response to the inadequate, US/ENL dominant linguacultural resources

Grace, (*Communicating effectively in English,* page 189	**Extract 6.10 Grace's response to the inadequate resource in the textbook**
	…Of course, like this kind of statement, claims, OK, basically it doesn't really, um, if, let's say, like us, OK. **We don't go to America to live**. We are not immigrants. **We won't be affected**. We think, OK then, anyway, that's their immigrant's business. **None of our business**. OK, **however** …[She continued using US resources to teach.]
Alex (*Smart Choice 2*, page 106)	**Extract 6.11 Alex's response to the inadequate UK-related resource in the textbook**
	…**Do you have questions about these people**? (.4) {CC**AS1: I don't know them**. … Ok, **probably you don't know most of them**, I think. It is Ok, later I will explain <<who they are>>, but **at the meantime you finish**, ok, **finish these questions**. …. So Tony Blair ((CCAS2: who?)) Have you heard about him? The former UK Prime Minster …((CAS1: 英國前首相? <The former UK Prime Minister?>))。Blair ((CCAS2: 不認識。<I don't know him.>)) Ok, British politician Tony Blair used to sing in a rock band. (.) True or False? ((CCAS1: True.)) False. ((CAS1: ah?)) So what did he use to do? (.) It's true. It's true. … ((CCAS2: I guessed it's False.))
Christy (*American Headway* 3, page 42)	**Extract 6.12 Christy's response to the inadequate resource in the textbook**
	Good. …**Next one**, what colour is her hair? … Most [?] **we Asians have black hair unless you dye your hair**. [She asked one of female students whether she dyed her hair.] **Mostly we have black hair**. Right? …**Next one**, does she have blue eyes? **Does anyone here have blue eyes**? C**CS1**? [She asked CCS1 because CCS1 is an international student.] No? Brown eyes OK. …但是大部分亞洲人都是什麼？<**What colour are Asian people's eyes?>**
Lindsay (*American Headway* 3, page 5)	**Extract 6.13 Lindsay's response to the inadequate resource in the textbook**
	Please change question 7 before you begin classroom survey. Question 7,'Have you ever been to **the US**? Please change it to 'have you ever **been abroad**?'

Appendix 6.5 Three teachers' feedback-based approach to stimulate negotiation

Table 6.8 The feedback-based approach to stimulate negotiation

Christy	**Extract 6.16 Christy's response to students' English**
	CCS2: …use, use **medicine…** **Christy:**…within fifty years, or you can say **after fifty years**, people grow old but they are still active. … And how they become active? With some medicine**, injections**. OK. The word suggested in the textbook is '**injection**' but CCS5 cannot use the word 'injections' so he used the word '**medicine**' to replace the word 'injection'. That is fine as long as you **convey the key message**.
Lindsay	**Extract 6.17 Lindsay's response to students' English**
	Lindsay: Great, a strategy. Four, "the most important things you want to do ", "most important things". (.3) No? CLS2: [?]. Priorities /prɪˈɒrɪtis/ Lindsay: Sorry, **what**? CLS2: Priorities. /prɪˈɒrɪtis/ Lindsay: Priorities/prʌɪˈɒrɪtis/. **Is that what you said**? Yes, priorities. Very good. Yes, that's fine. That's the answer. Priorities. … (34:07)
Alex	**Extract 6.18 Alex's response to students' English**
	Alex: And number five? **Students**: Leo /ˈliːəʊ/ [They pronounced like male's name, Leo.] Leo /lɛːəʊ/-pard /pɑːd/ (.) **Alex**: ((Huh?)) ((Leo /lɛːəʊ/-pard /pɑːd/)) Leopard, Leopard /ˈlɛpəd/. Alright, how about number six? **CCAS3**: Leopard /ˈlɛpəd/. @@你知道這個字的重音是放在哪裡<Do you know where the stress [of the word Leopard] should be placed>? **CCAS4**: 我不知道。在中間嗎? <No, in the middle, dividing [this word] from the middle>? [While CAS4 and CAS5 were still discussing how to pronounce this word, Alex went on teaching].

Appendix 6.6 The opinions of non-English Majors' teachers on teaching for real-world communication

Table 6.13 The opinions of non-English Majors' teachers on teaching for real world communication

Christy	**Listening and speaking:** 'When playing CDs to them, if **they do not understand**, it is OK'. 'Sometimes I speak English differently, such as **speaking faster to** my students or **using more difficult words** or **differently from** the prescribed ways presented in **the textbook**, they [my students] will become puzzled. This is to l**et them know the possibility that they may not understand other** [kinds of] English.' As to **speaking**, she mentioned that 'key words [activities] only enables students to produce their own sentences by using key words…then gradually, **less and less they can count on what they remember [from textbook-based learning**]…'
	Teaching for the real-world communication: 'In fact, they [her students] have potential to use English. It is just teachers did not give them opportunities to use or '**force' them to use**. If I force them to speak, some students still produce English by **using whatever resources available to them**.
Lindsay	**Listening and speaking:** I **cannot use CDs** often because students may **get used to one kind of English presented to them**, further leading to other English being unintelligible to them'. 'My English accommodates to students, such as speaking more slowly in order to make students understand. So they may get used to my English.' '**I don't want to assign students topics to talk about. I** just let them [her students] listen to text and write down **key words** [for them to **elaborate** on what they hear.]
	Teaching for the real-world communication: 'English becomes a subject and students often associate it with examinations. In reality, English is a language to convey thoughts.' 'Once they [her students] get used to certain ways of spoken English, I change my materials.'
Alex	**Listening and speaking:** I use CDs because there are pre-designed listening questions to use to teach. Content of students' talk is very important. As long as it is **content-based**, then this kind of classroom interaction, even though it is classroom English, it is real-world English. So I try to use **Q&A** as much as I can.
	Teaching for the real-world communication: 'From SLA perspective, I think interaction hypothesis is most useful, through input and output, such as students' **interaction with me or their peers**, **it is real-world communication**'**.** English for communication may be not their learning goal because they just want to finish the learning tasks rather than **thinking over what the tasks can help them with communication**.

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