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**Language policy and practice in a Chinese junior high school
from global Englishes perspective**

by

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ABSTRACT

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

LANGUAGE POLICY AND PRACTICE IN A CHINESE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL FROM
GLOBAL ENGLISHES PERSPECTIVE

By Haibo Liu

Along with globalization, English as a lingua franca (ELF) has played a more and more important role in international settings. Among English users, the number of English non-native speakers (NNS) has reached more than 2 billion which has already overtaken the number of English native speakers (NS). However, the fact of using ELF has not been fully recognized, especially in China where there is a huge population of English users and learners who still take English as a foreign language (EFL). Since junior high school education in China affects the largest population of English learners and users and their language beliefs and language behaviours, it is very necessary to investigate the influences of global Englishes on language policy and practice or the compatibility that language policy and practice has had with global Englishes in junior high school in China.

The research was a predominantly qualitative study with a quasi-ethnographic approach. The fieldwork took place over a three month period in a public junior high school in China. Questionnaires, interviews and observation were all explored as research instruments for a thick and full description of the research context. With qualitative content analysis approach and from global Englishes perspective, the thesis compares, analyses and integrates how English is stated in English national curriculum (NEC), how it is performed in classroom teaching performance, and how it is perceived by teachers and students. Findings show many inconsistencies and contradictions on English, English using and English teaching/learning among NEC statements, classroom performance and participants' perception. Importantly, testing, which was Standard English ideology oriented, turned out to have a great wash-back on English learning and teaching, and was found to be one of the most significant factors for

the inconsistencies and contradictions. The thesis also shows data for the forthcoming test reform in China. Implications for English pedagogy in China are also given.

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DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, HAIBO LIU,

declare that this thesis entitled

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GLOBAL ENGLISHES PERSPECTIVE

and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my
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Signed:

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ABBREVIATIONS USED

CA	Cultural awareness
CLT	Communicative language teaching
CT	Complexity theory
EFL	English as a foreign language
EIL	English as an international language
ELF	English as a lingua franca
ELT	English language teaching
ENL	English as a native language
ESL	English as a second language
ICA	Intercultural awareness
L1	First language
L2	Second language
LEP	Language education policy
NEC	National English Curriculum
NES	Native English speaker
NS	Native speaker
NNS	Non-native speaker
SCT	Socio-cultural theory
SLA	Second language acquisition
TBL	Task-based language teaching
WE	World Englishes

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background, development and rationale of the thesis

This thesis is about language policy and practice in a Chinese junior high school from a global Englishes perspective. In order for readers to be clear why the research has been undertaken, in the following section, the research will be justified from three aspects, i.e. reasons for researching from a global Englishes perspective, researching on language policy and practice, and researching at high school level. In addition, a general picture of global Englishes development, current English usage in China, global Englishes oriented English language education policy and practice in academic research and English education policy and practice in China will be addressed.

- Reasons for researching from a global Englishes perspective

I became aware of global Englishes during my postgraduate studies at Durham University in the UK. The one year experience of living and studying abroad gave me many thoughts about English language. It was the first time I had been abroad and also the first time that I realized that the English played on the radio in my English classes in China was very different from the English spoken by people with diverse linguacultural backgrounds in an international university. I began to ask myself one question: why do students in China have to learn American or British English when people can successfully communicate with various different Englishes in practice? With such a question in mind, I chose World Englishes as one of my postgraduate courses, and I learned that there are lots of countries that struggle for their own English norms and rights. I began to question English native speakers' ownership of English. Then, I started my Master's dissertation on China English. I attempted to find a way to include China English in the WE paradigm. I believed that if it was recognised as being an independent English variety, Chinese English learners may avoid the domination of Standard English.

However, after critically reviewing many works from both domestic and foreign scholars (e.g. Hu, 2004, 2005; Jenkins, 2007; Xu, 2010), I realized that, recognizing China English as a variety of English is not the most appropriate description of English use in China. For example, unlike people from Outer Circle countries who are eager to recognize their own variety of English for reasons of national identity after many years of colonization (Jenkins, 2015), Chinese people learn and use English in a more utilitarian way, for reasons such as

holding international conferences, doing international business, going abroad to study, or finding a better job after graduation (e.g. Jiang, 2003; Yun and Jia, 2003). English functions as a tool for international communication instead of intra-national communication in China (e.g. Wang, 2013, 2015). Besides this English use, in the academic field, many linguistic features that domestic scholars (e.g. Hu, 2002, 2005; Xu, 2010) recognize are not unique to China English, but have much in common with various Englishes in English non- native speaker countries (e.g. Jenkins, 2007). In short, the WE paradigm is not suitable for China English.

Realizing the impossibility of including China English in the WE paradigm, I decided to carry on seeking a reasonable explanation for the English used in China in a PhD study at the Global Englishes Centre at Southampton University where global Englishes, especially ELF (English as a Lingua franca) research has been pioneered and developed. During my studies at the Global Englishes Centre, I obtained a more insightful understanding of English language. I realized that, along with globalization, English has become a lingua franca for people with different linguacultural backgrounds. According to Crystal (2012), among English users, there are 2 billion English non-native speakers. The number of English non-native speakers (hence NNS) has already overtaken the number of English native speakers (hence NS), where the latter group accounts for less than one third of English speakers around the world (Brumfit, 2001). More importantly, with the development of advanced technology, communication now crosses many geographic and political boundaries (Seidlhofer, 2011). English has become more and more flexible and dynamic. Such use of global Englishes has caused many scholars to describe English use in an ELF sense. For example, as a result of many years of empirical research involving international participants, Jenkins (2000) identifies Lingua Franca Core (hence LFC) at phonology level, which indicates that together with accommodation strategies, various accents are not the main cause for misunderstandings in communication. Lexical innovation in ELF settings is also recognized by scholars, like Seidlhofer (2004) and Dewey (2007). In short, non-native speakers constitute the majority of English users worldwide and the ownership of English by English native speakers is now being challenged (Widdowson, 1994).

However, in many countries including China, the status of ELF has not been recognized. English in China has been described in three ways. First, English is defined as American or British English. Second, English variations are considered as ‘bad’ English, also referred to as ‘Chinglish’. Third, English variations are regarded as China English, part of the World

Englishes paradigm (Chen and Hu, 2006; Hu, 2004; Hu, 2005; Kirkpatrick and Xu, 2002). There are only a few studies of ELF in China (Wang, 2013; Zheng, 2013). As a consequence of the limited research on ELF in China, it is very hard to raise people's awareness of English being plural, global and transgressive. Thus, global Englishes practice and the research gap on the function of English in China are the main reasons why I undertook such a PhD project from a global Englishes perspective.

- Reasons for researching language policy and practice

With more reading and study, I found that along with the question of English native speakers' ownership of English, the English native speaker model in language teaching is also questioned by global Englishes scholars. More and more researchers are trying to interpret ELT from a global Englishes perspective and from different aspects, for example: ELF and SLA (Jenkins, 2006a); form and function (Jenkins, 2000; Seidlhofer, 2011); ELF and intercultural awareness in ELT (Baker, 2012); socially sensitive pedagogy (McKay and Bokhorst-Heng, 2008); a post-norm approach (Dewey, 2012). However, there is a large conceptual gap between how ELF has been used for many years in communication and the acceptance and recognition of the legitimate status of ELF in ELT around the world, especially in China. Chinese government has launched several reforms of English education which have involved large financial investment and increased teaching resources but students' English proficiency still fails to meet expectations. Chinese scholars have conducted research to find the cause of this but few of them have questioned the ENS model in ELT (Hu, 2002, 2003, 2005; Liao, 2004; Li and Baldauf, 2011; Li, 2004; Sun and Cheng, 2002). English variations are still considered as 'interlanguage' or errors. Assumptions like 'ELT research and pedagogy should be informed by native speaker models'; 'the cultural content for ELT should be derived from the cultures of native English speakers', still exist and are popular in China.

Then, I turned to language policy, which is believed to be one of the most influential factors in the conceptual gap between ELF reality and ENS in ELT (e.g. Jenkins, 2007, 2014). Language policy has a great influence on people's attitudes and language behaviour by 'determine(ing) criteria for language correctness, oblige(ing) people to adopt certain ways of speaking and writing, create(ing) definitions about language and especially determine(ing) the priority of certain languages in society and how these languages should be used, taught and learned' (Shohamy, 2006, p.77). More importantly, behind this overt language policy are certain language ideologies, such as Standard English ideology, which are distributed through

educational institutions and are thus internalized in people's minds (e.g. Galloway and Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2007). One of the reasons for this is the influential mechanisms of policy, such as textbooks, tests and classroom teaching, especially tests. There are risks with challenging these top-down policies, due to the pressure of Standard English-based language tests, which are also considered as the main reason why ELF is not recognized or accepted (e.g. Jenkins and Leung, 2013; Lowenberg, 2002). The knowledge of global Englishes, language policy and ELT situations in China made me realize that to change the situation of ELT in China and to raise people's awareness of global Englishes, language policy must be investigated.

- Reasons for researching at high school level

The research was conducted at ZH junior high school in China. There are several reasons why I chose a high school as the research context. First, due to the relationship between language attitude and behaviour in which the former may probably lead to readiness of action (Garrett, 2010), it is very important to make sure students are guided in an appropriate way when they are forming language attitude at the very beginning; that is to inform them the language use practice clearly in their language learning process, i.e. global Englishes practice where various English are used and English functions as a *lingua franca*. Such a clearly acknowledgment on language use practice is very helpful to students' language attitude development and to affect their language behaviour. Second, there are language ideologies hidden behind language policy (Spolsky, 2004, 2009). The more time that is spent in the education system, the deeper the language ideology will be internalized in students' minds, the more difficult they will find it to accept something new, and the further away they will be from global Englishes practice (e.g. Jenkins, 2007).

Furthermore, high school ELT directly affects a larger number of English learners in the formal education system than ELT at any other educational level, since in China compulsory education is for nine years, which includes five years of primary study and three years of junior high school study. According to the most recent official statistics that the Chinese central government collected nationwide in 2005 (China Education and Research Network, 2005), the number of junior high school students who were enrolled had reached 62,149,442. The number must have climbed further by 2015 when the government were nudged to invest heavily in education over the last 10 years. Chinese high school learners are probably the biggest single group of English learners globally. Thus, it is very meaningful and necessary to examine whether such a big population is affected by Standard English ideology or takes negative language attitude to global Englishes.

1.2 Research aims, questions and potential contributions

The research aims at investigating the influence of global Englishes on language policy and practice in high school and the compatibility of global Englishes with English language policy and practice in high schools in China. Language policy in this thesis refers to the National English Curriculum (henceforth, NEC), which was issued in 2001 and revised in 2011; while language practice refers to the classroom performance of both teachers and student participants and their language beliefs. Such an understanding of language policy and practice is based on Spolsky's (2004, 2009) language policy framework, which advocates that language policy needs to be interpreted on three levels: language management, language practice and language beliefs and Shohamy's (2006) emphasis on language mechanisms.

The reason for interpreting language policy at three levels is that language practice is not usually consist with the expectation of language management (Spolsky, 2009). Sometimes, when language beliefs in language management are contradicted by language beliefs of people in language using practice, there will be resistance to the top-down language policy (ibid.). Besides the contradiction between language policy and practice, covert but powerful mechanisms in the language policy implementation process are another important reason for examining language policy from those three aspects (Shohamy, 2006). As Shohamy (2006) points out, in order not to alert people's notice, agendas are frequently used in a subtle way to reproduce language ideologies and thus affect language beliefs and behaviours. In this way, it is very important to compare language documents, language practice and language beliefs to identify the language ideologies.

With an understanding of global Englishes, the importance of the power of language policy, and the problem of English education in China, I developed three research questions for this thesis:

- RQ 1: to what extent has the National English Curriculum (NEC) taken account of the use of English as a global language?
- RQ 2: what is the relationship between English language education practices in junior high school and the NEC with regard to global Englishes?
- RQ 3: what are junior high school teachers' and students' perceptions of the NEC and classroom practices in terms of global Englishes?

As the research questions indicate, this research project is about ‘what’ rather than ‘how’. Although many suggestions have been provided on language teaching, testing, and policy making, the research does not aim to give instructions about how to design a policy or test or manage a classroom. It is about investigating language policy documents, language practice and language beliefs from a global Englishes perspective.

Hopefully, the research will make a contribution to raising global Englishes awareness in four groups: the ELF research field, Chinese scholars, Chinese policy makers and Chinese English high school teachers. I hope that this global Englishes oriented research will make more Chinese scholars work on understanding English usage in China, where English is not used as Standard English or China English but functions as a lingua franca. In ELF research development, the high school context is usually overlooked by scholars. They mainly focus their research on investigating ELF in higher education or in the business field. It would be exciting if this research could inspire further research into ELF in high schools and global Englishes in general. In addition to the academic area, I also hope that policy makers in China will reflect on their definition of English in language policy from a global Englishes perspective and realize how powerful language policy mechanisms are in terms of their influences on language practice and people’s language beliefs. More importantly, it is hoped that this research will raise high school teachers’ global Englishes awareness in their language teaching practice. The research does not advocate the teaching of global Englishes in practice. Global Englishes is not teachable due to its dynamic, emergent, and flexible nature, but it is hoped that language teachers in China will develop sufficient awareness to teach English from a global Englishes perspective.

1.3 Structure of the PhD

This thesis consists of 10 chapters. Chapters 2 to 4 predominantly review the relevant literature concerning global Englishes, Standard English ideology, language policy theories, language education policy and its mechanisms, language teaching practice and teachers and language policy and practice in China. The following chapters turn to the research itself with methodology discussed in chapter 5, data presented in chapters 6 to 8, a discussion of the

findings in chapter 9 and a conclusion including answers to research questions, implications and limitations of the research in chapter 10.

Chapter 2 aims at providing theoretical frameworks for the thesis. It begins with the concept of global Englishes. In an attempt to allow readers to understand the concept of global Englishes clearly and insightfully, crucial terms, like ‘English native speaker vs. English non-native speaker’, ‘variety’ and ‘community’, are re-examined. Research on the linguistic, pragmatic and intercultural features of global Englishes in practice is also presented. This is followed by discussion of Standard English ideology, which affects people’s language beliefs and behaviours so widely that the recognition of global Englishes is hindered. Next, language policies, through which Standard English ideology can be reproduced are discussed. It is argued that the interpretation of language policy needs to be completed on three levels, including language management, language practice and language beliefs (Spolsky, 2004, 2009). In this chapter, mechanisms which are used as overt or covert devices to transmit language ideology into practice are also emphasized, based on Shohamy’s work (2006). A brief discussion of postmodernism (e.g. Pennycook, 2006) is also given as the justification for questioning English language from a global Englishes perspective in this thesis.

Chapter 3 details language policy and global Englishes in educational settings. It is argued that language mechanisms, like curricula, textbooks, and tests, which are used to implement language policy and have a significant influence on language practice, reinforce Standard English ideology either explicitly or implicitly. In addition to these three mechanisms, the chapter also emphasises the examination of Standard English ideology in classroom teaching practice. Second language learning, teaching methods, and the teacher’s role and attitudes are then discussed from a global Englishes perspective.

Chapter 4 takes up issues concerning research into language policy and practice in the Chinese context. It begins with a discussion of English usage in China. Three descriptions of English usage in China by Chinese scholars are offered, i.e. Chinglish from the Standard English perspective, China English from a World English perspective and ELF from a global Englishes perspective. The chapter then briefly presents recent English education policy developments in China to familiarise the reader with the research background. Finally, the chapter details language policy and practice in China by reviewing recent, relevant research on language policy statements, textbooks, tests and English teaching practice in the classroom.

Chapter 5 turns to the research itself with a discussion of the selected research methods. Firstly, the chapter suggests that this research uses a quasi-ethnographic qualitative method supported by certain quantitative data. An explanation of and justification for the use of qualitative and ethnographic methods is then provided. Furthermore, the research processes are presented transparently, including introduction of the research context, the selection of participants, fieldwork and research instruments. The qualitative content analysis approach and coding procedures are also explained in this chapter. Finally, issues of ethics and risks, validity and research limitations are discussed.

Chapter 6 presents the quantitative findings, and aims to provide a general picture of language learning/teaching/usage for readers. The findings are divided into four sections. The first consists of background information, including participants' personal information, language teaching/learning information and language usage. Information about participants' language learning hours, learning/teaching content and frequency of listening to or using certain 'English varieties' is provided in this section. Next teacher and student perceptions of global Englishes concepts are offered. Such concepts include various Englishes, English native speakers, authentic English, English ownership, communication target and Englishes. For a comparison of their perceptions, the final two sections focus on their perceptions of global Englishes in communication and in classroom teaching practice respectively.

Chapters 7 and 8 offer qualitative findings divided into six themes: general pedagogical goals, linguistic knowledge/skill, learning affect and attitude, learning strategy, cultural awareness, and language tests. Those six themes are both concept-driven and data driven. The first five themes are the main categories in the National English Curriculum (hence NEC) for junior high schools in China and the final theme emerged during fieldwork. All themes in these two chapters are analysed on three levels for comparison: how they are stated in the NEC, how they are performed in the classroom and how they are perceived by participants.

Chapter 9 is a final discussion chapter which findings will be drawn together from chapter 6, 7 and 8 and related to theories reviewed in chapter 2, 3 and 4. First, the concept of English in NEC statement, classroom performance and participant's perception is examined basing on postmodernism theory. This is followed by the investigation on three language policy components basing on Spolsky's policy theory and three major inconsistencies have been identified. To reveal causes for the inconsistencies, hidden agendas such as mechanisms and language ideologies is also dealt with in this chapter. The chapter is ended with a discussion

on reproduction and resistance in language policy and practice. The forthcoming reform of tests in China is also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 10 provides a summary and conclusion for this thesis. It begins with a review of the research rationale, research questions and research methods and then returns to the research coding and analytic framework. The chapter also summaries research findings by clearly answering three research questions. Following this the implications for research with regard to curricula, textbooks, tests and teaching practice from a global Englishes perspective are offered. The chapter ends with a discussion of research limitations and suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2 Language policy and practice and global Englishes

2.1 Introduction

This chapter attempts to provide readers a theoretical picture of the thesis by explaining key terms in the research title, i.e. ‘global Englishes perspective’ and ‘language policy and practice’. It begins with a re-examination on some crucial terms in global Englishes practice, like ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ English speakers, variety and community. Next, Standard English ideology in global English practice will be addressed and the relationship of Standard English ideology and language policy will be identified. Finally, language policy theories on which the thesis is based will be explored which include Spolsky’s (2004, 2009) language policy, Shohamy’s (2006) understanding of language policy, and postmodernism in language policy (Pennycook, 2006).

2.2 Global Englishes

As a consequence of historical influences, where English was spread around the world as a by-product of colonisation, and current globalisation forces, where English speaking countries, especially America, possess advanced scientific technology and dominant political and economic power around the world, the number of English speakers has increased to at least two billion (Jenkins, 2015). 88 countries use English as their official language, 90 per cent of international organisations in Asia and the Pacific use it as a working language, 150 million people from over 20 countries receive English radio, 75 per cent of the worlds’ mail/email and over 80 per cent of films are in English and so on (See more statistics in Galloway and Rose, 2015, p. 11-12). Among those two billion English speakers, only around 329,140,800 are English native speakers, which means that most are non-native English speakers (Crystal, 2012).

The use of English by such a large population has resulted in it developing as a language from being local to global with its form changing from singular to plural, i.e., global Englishes (Galloway and Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2015; Murata and Jenkins, 2009; Pennycook, 2007). The term ‘global Englishes’ might be misinterpreted as ‘a blend on the one hand of critical theories of globalisation, where globalisation is seen as an inherently destructive force homogenising the world, and world Englishes on the other where English is seen as a pluralised entity’ (Pennycook, 2007, p.18). In fact, along with globalisation where

‘worldwide interconnectedness in terms of society, culture economy, politics, spirituality and language’ is strengthened (McIntyre, 2009 cited in Galloway and Rose, 2015, p. 11), global Englishes becomes a term which refers not only to a blend, mix and reshaping of Englishes but more importantly to translation, transmodality, transculturality and transtextuality among Englishes and other languages (Pennycook, 2007).

On the homepage of the website of the Global Englishes Centre of Southampton University where global Englishes research has been pioneered and developed, there is a description of what global Englishes covers:

CGE (Centre for Global Englishes) produces and disseminates research on the linguistic and sociocultural dimensions of global uses and users of English (Global Englishes), and on English as a Lingua Franca in particular.

Global Englishes is thus taken as an umbrella term with an inclusive and mixed nature which covers all global uses and users of English and its linguistic and sociocultural dimensions, such as WE (world Englishes), EIL (English as an international language), ELF (English as a lingua franca) (Murata and Jenkins, 2009). Since this thesis is focusing on the context of China which, according to traditional research (Kachru, 1965), is an Expanding circle country with English being a foreign language, I will interpret global Englishes particularly in an ELF sense, which is defined as ‘any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option.’ (Seidlhofer, 2011, p.7).

In the following sections, some existing concepts which are relevant to this thesis and are challenged in global Englishes practice will be addressed. It is necessary to rethink those concepts, in order to explicate further the meaning of global Englishes and also for later discussion on language education policy from a global Englishes perspective. After that, in order to give readers a full picture of global Englishes, I would like to describe how English is actually used in practice by introducing some theoretical and empirical researches from a linguistic aspect, a cultural aspect and a pragmatic aspect.

2.2.1 The dichotomy of ‘native’ and ‘non-native’

The first concept that is challenged by global Englishes practice is that of the native English speaker. Traditionally, native English speakers have been posited as a yardstick of competence or a goal for language learning and teaching in both language theories and language using practice (e.g. Chomsky, 1965; Hymes, 1966). However, the term ‘native English speaker’ is so problematic that it causes much critical debate (e.g. Galloway and Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2015; Seidlhofer, 2011). For example, many scholars have already addressed issues such as the blurred distinction between ‘native’ and ‘non-native’, and the fact that there is no ‘standardised’ version of English among native English speakers (e.g. Davies, 2013; Galloway and Rose, 2015; Seidlhofer, 2011). In addition to these issues, more problems with the term have been pointed out from a global Englishes perspective.

The first problem of the term ‘native speaker’, as Seidlhofer points out, is ‘the connotations that they (native speakers) have come to carry, and with the considerable ideological baggage they have accumulated over a long time’ (2011, p.5). The term ‘native English speaker’, like the term ‘Inner Circle’, suggests a unidirectional power with which language norms are designed; while the other group have to follow ‘native English speaker’ norms (Brutt-Griffler, 2002). The label of being ‘non-’ something indicates some sort of deficit (Galloway and Rose, 2015). The other problem is the inappropriateness of using one group’s norm to measure the other group’s standard of English when the two groups are not the same. ‘Non-native English speaker’ use global Englishes in practice. They own such Englishes and have the right to change and adapt them (Jenkins, 2015). The Englishes they use are different and also irrelevant to ‘native English speaker’ English (Galloway and Rose, 2015). Thus, it is unfair for ‘non-native English speaker’ to conform to and to be evaluated by ‘native English speaker’ norms when the former group have their own Englishes.

To deal with the above issues, many scholars attempt to seek better ways to define English speakers (Jenkins, 2015; Paikeday and Chomsky, 1985; Rampton, 1990; Seidlhofer, 2011;). Among those new definitions, some still have negative connotations, like Rampton’s ‘expertise’ and ‘non-expertise’; while some are too simple and general, like Seidlhofer who simply defines native English speakers as people who have English as their L1 while non-native English speakers are those who have other languages as L1. I prefer the distinction made by Jenkins’, who defines ‘speakers of English who speak no other language’ as monolingual English speakers and ‘proficient speakers of English and at least one other

language, regardless of the order in which they learned the languages’ as bi- or multi-lingual English speakers (Jenkins, 2015, p.98). This concept not only removes the possible negative connotations of ‘non-‘ groups but also clearly shows the greater linguistic competence of bilingual English speakers than monolingual English speakers. One limitation of Jenkins’ concept, as she points out herself, is ‘the arbitrary nature of the distinction’ (ibid.).

However, in this thesis, for the convenience of potential readers who may internalise the traditional distinction of ‘native’ and ‘non-native’, and also for the convenience of writing where most of my participants frequently adopted those two terms, I will continue use the terms ‘native English speaker’ (for NS) and ‘non-native English speaker’ (for NNS).

2.2.2 Rethinking ‘variety’ and ‘community’

Among the different models that describe the global spread of English (e.g. Gorlach, 1988; Kachru, 1985; McArthur, 1987), Kachru’s ‘Three circle model of World Englishes’ (1985) has been the most influential. Based on geography and history, Kachru (1985) divides World Englishes into three circles, the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle. The Inner Circle refers to Britain and other countries where English was first spoken. In those countries English is used as a native language (ENL). The Outer Circle refers to countries to which English spread during the second diaspora with colonisation. English is used as a second language or an official language in these countries (ESL). The Expanding Circle refers to the rest of the world, where English is used as a foreign language (EFL). Usually, English in the Inner Circle is considered as norm-providing. ESL is considered as norm-developing, which means that ENL can be institutionalised with certain local norms.

However, in the Expanding Circle, EFL is viewed as norm-dependent, which indicates people in the Expanding Circle are not allowed to change or develop other English norms but only to conform (Jenkins, 2015).

As Trudgill (1999) suggests, the descriptions of languages are all justified for some particular purpose. English varieties are created to ‘define the communal space in which they can invest their group identity and in which they can feel socially secure’ (Seidlhofer, 2011, p.77). For example, the political and social purpose of describing English as separated stable varieties is for national unification and identity in Outer Circle countries which are newly established after colonialism. But this is not the purpose for English using of English speakers in Expanding Circle countries where English is used for ‘intelligibility and communication in a

NNS or mixed NNS-NS interaction' (ibid.). According to Kachru (1985), English in the Expanding Circle is a foreign language (EFL) that needs to depend on NS norms in their language learning and use. However, ELF recognises the ownership of language users in the Expanding Circle who can adapt and change English in accordance with their needs and for their benefit. English functions as a lingua franca which is 'a dynamic, locally realised enactment of a global resource, best conceptualised not as a uniform set of norms or practices, but as a highly variable, creative expression of linguistic resources which warrants a distinct analytical framework.' (Dewey, 2009, p.76).

The WE paradigm has received much criticism. For example, 'the model is based on geography and history rather than on the way speakers currently identify with and use English' 'this is often a grey area between the Inner and Outer Circle' 'and increasingly this is a grey area between the Outer and Expanding Circle' (Jenkins, 2015, p.20). As for the plural form of 'Englishes', Pennycook (2007) points out that World Englishes is essentially monolingual oriented rather than multilingual oriented. It is ironic since on the one hand World Englishes challenge Standard English, but on the other hand they build new 'standard Englishes' within national units.

The traditional community which are closely linked with English varieties in WE paradigm also needs to be rethought. English in those fixed specific communities is used as a mark of membership to include or exclude people. However, in terms of ELF settings, those traditional communities seem to become meaningless. Instead, considering the flexible and dynamic nature of ELF communication, Community of practice (CoP) attracts more attention.

According to Wenger, CoP consists of three parts: domain, community and practice. The domain refers to 'a shared domain of interest' and 'a shared competence that distinguishes members from other people'; these members construct a community in which they 'engage in joint activities and discussion, help each other, and share information'; during these interaction processes, they develop 'a shared repertoire of resources' which makes these members CoP practitioners (Wenger, 1998, p.2). People form, change and reconstruct the community by shuttling in or out or by negotiating for benefits (Canagarajah, 2013). One of the biggest differences between this and Speech community is that people do not necessarily have the same native language in CoP (Seidhofer, 2011). CoP has much in common with ELF settings. For example, in both CoP and ELF settings, speakers who come from different lingual cultural backgrounds share mutual interests and information and thus co-construct an

ad hoc and provisional community for a practical communicative purpose (Dewey, 2007, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2011; Wenger, 1998).

However, Wenger's theory of CoP is also not so appropriated for ELF communication (Dewey, 2007, 2009; Ehrenreich, 2009). CoP should free ELF speakers from same 'domain' to same 'interest' or 'purpose'. In ELF, people may not share a domain, but can still communicate successfully for functional purposes. Furthermore, it is argued that CoP should be stretched in a wider global scale (Seidlhofer, 2011). This is because with the influences of globalization, 'traditional boundaries become more fluid, and more often transgressed' and 'interconnection and contact become ever more important to our understanding of the world' (Dewey, 2009, p.89). ELF is defined in a particularly global sense while CoP is defined as both intra-national and international (Seidlhofer, 2011).

2.2.3 Global Englishes in practice

The above sections have discussed global Englishes on a conceptual level to provide readers with a better understanding of the meaning of the term. The development of global Englishes is not only supported by theoretical research. Recently, there are more and more researchers expanding their studies on an empirical level to reveal how English is used in practice in ELF settings (e.g. Breiteneder, 2009; Cogo & Dewey, 2006; Dewey, 2007, 2012; Jenkins, 2000, 2007, 2015). In the following I would like to introduce influential empirical researches on global Englishes practice from linguistic aspects, cultural aspects and pragmatic aspects.

From large amounts of NNS data, it has been found that there are certain frequently used linguistic features of ELF. The main features of phonology can be represented by Lingua Franca Core (henceforth, LFC) which is proposed by Jenkins in 2000. After several years of collecting an extensive amount of data from NNS participants in ELF settings, Jenkins distinguishes certain pronunciation features that may easily cause miscommunication and others that are unlikely to do so. She labels the former as non-core features and the latter the lingua franca core (Jenkins, 2000). In terms of core features, Jenkins compares ELF targets and EFL targets with emphasis on aspects of 'the consonantal inventory' 'phonetic requirements' 'consonant clusters' 'vowel quantity' and 'tonic (nuclear) stress' (Jenkins, 2000, p.23). The empirical research of Jenkins (2000) provides evidence that things like 'weak forms' 'features of connected speech' 'stress-timed rhythm' 'word stress' and 'pitch

movement' are not really essential causes of unintelligibility. Along with accommodation skills, those non-core features can be adapted and used flexibly without miscommunication.

Besides phonological level, there also many scholars trying to summarise the lexical grammar features of ELF based on copra (Breiteneder, 2009; Cogo & Dewey, 2006; Dewey, 2007 ;). Seidlhofer and her teams have summarized certain lexical grammar features: 'dropping' the third person present tens-s; 'confusing' the relative pronouns who and which; 'omitting' definite and indefinite articles where they are obligatory in ENL, and inserting them where they do not occur in ENL; 'failing' to use correct forms in tag questions; inserting 'redundant' prepositions; 'overusing' certain verbs of high semantic generality; 'replacing' infinitive-constructions with that-clauses; 'overdoing' explicitness (Seidlhofer, 2004, p.220). She also identifies possible reasons for the creativities of those language forms, that is, to exploit redundancy, regularise patterns, enhance prominence, or accommodate interlocutors (Galloway and Rose, 2015). Thus, it is obvious that for ELF speakers, linguistic forms emerge and are negotiated during the communication rather than pre-given (Seidlhofer, 2011). The objectives of communication are to be intelligible rather than to be native-like.

Besides linguistic competence, the practice of using global Englishes can also be found in ELF speakers' intercultural competence and pragmatic strategies. For example, pragmatic strategies have been found to play a very important role in ELF. The intelligibility is always questioned because of the ELF context which includes diverse English varieties and diverse cultural backgrounds (Kaur, 2009). However, few ELF communications fail when they use accommodation strategies (Cogo, 2009; Cogo & Dewey, 2006; Kaur, 2009; Klimpfinger, 2009; Pitzl, 2009). Accommodation is a process by which speakers adjust their communicative speech to that of their interlocutors in order to facilitate communication (Cogo, 2009). Four accommodation strategies are frequently found in empirical research which are repair, repetition, paraphrase and code-switching. L1 in ELF communication is regarded as a language resource rather than interference.

The Linguistic code and pragmatic strategies alone are not adequate for successful communication between people from various linguistic cultural backgrounds. In ELF settings, there are transcultural flows which spread cultural forms across boundaries (Pennycook, 2007). It is a process of 'borrowing, blending, remaking and returning' and a process of 'alternative cultural production' (Pennycook, 2007, p.6). Baker (2011), through empirical research into the Thai context, identifies that intercultural awareness (ICA) and competence

are very important for successful communication in ELF settings. Extending Byram's (1997) framework on ICC, Baker (2011, 2012) reveals twelve components of ICA in terms of the ELF context which can be interpreted on three levels: basic cultural awareness, advanced cultural awareness, and intercultural awareness. In successful communication, proficient ELF speakers have 'a conscious understanding of the role culturally based forms, practices, and frames of understanding can have in intercultural communication, and an ability to put these conceptions into practice in a flexible and context specific manner in real time communication' (Baker, 2011, p.5). That is to say, communication in ELF settings not only requires a basic understanding of culture, a clear understanding of the influence of local cultures and other cultures on behaviours, beliefs and values; but also of the differences and similarities among cultures. It is necessary to be able to negotiate the differences and co-construct successful communication.

In 2015 Galloway and Rose summarises the findings of recent ELF researches, showing the key features of how Englishes are actually used in practice:

- *ELF has a global ownership;*
- *ELF users exploit the language in different ways to suit their own needs;*
- *ELF is a very different phenomenon to ENL or EFL;*
- *ELF usage, and the use of 'non-standard' norms, are more than mere 'errors' caused by the different first languages of users who are somewhere on a cline towards native English competence—there is a degree of systematicity to ELF usage;*
- *ELF users in their negotiations orientate towards content as well as their interlocutors, as opposed to 'native' English norms, and exploit their linguistic and plurilingual resources to achieve communicative success.*

(Galloway and Rose, 2015, p.150)

In summary, this section mainly focuses on global Englishes practice. First, the term global Englishes is interpreted as an umbrella term covering all Englishes and users. It also points out that the term would be used in an ELF sense since the research context is China, a country which is traditionally labelled as an Expanding Circle country. After that, some existing concepts are reconsidered in terms of global Englishes practice: the dichotomy of 'native' and 'non-native', variety and community. It turns out that the distinction between 'native' English speaker and 'non-native' English speaker is not only blurred due to globalisation; but carries connotations which suggest that the former have higher status and

privilege while the latter's English is deficient and they need to follow the former group. However, the thesis will continue to use the terms 'native' and 'non-native', but with different meanings, so that 'native' refers to monolingual English speakers and 'non-native' English speakers are bilingual or non-monolingual English speakers. As for the variety and community, due to the highly changeable, flexible and creative features of Englishes which are mixed, rendered, and reshaped in globalisation trends, the stable variety of English and its related community gradually lose sense. Community becomes more fluid in accordance with ELF speakers' communication purposes.

2.3 Standard English ideology

In contrast to ELF which is the flexible and adaptive, Standard English ideology is more normative. In broad terms, language ideology can be defined as 'the structured and consequential ways we think about language' (Seagreant, 2009, p.26). Thus, standard language ideology is about beliefs regarding what are or are not standards of language. For a specific definition, standard language ideology refers to 'a particular set of beliefs about language...[which] are typically held by populations of economically developed nations where processes of standardisation have operated over a considerable time to produce an abstract set of norms—lexical, grammatical and...phonological—popularly described as constituting a standard language' (Milroy, 1999, p.173). Those standards are designed and operated by populations who possess economic and political power, such as those in USA. Their controls on language standards last such a long time that such standard language ideology 'tends to have been so internalised by most people who have been socialised in conventional settings that it tends to operate at the subconscious level' (Seidlhofer, 2011, p.43). Standard English ideology is a special case of standard language ideology which can transgress nations and have a significant global impact.

One typical feature of Standard English ideology is that it attaches ownership of English to English native speakers (Galloway and Rose, 2015). In most cases, people regard English native speakers as the owners of English, and consider that they have the authority to design language standards just because their ancestors originally created the language. This is exactly what Jenkins (2007) criticises—the 'English first' argument, which refers to 'the assumption that because the native language had an earlier place in the chronological

development of the English language it is somehow more suitable than other varieties for use as an international lingua franca several centuries later' (p.31). The historical fact of first creating and using English cannot justify their custody over English forever (Widdowson, 1994). English has become an international language, the number of non-native English speakers is much larger than that of native English speakers and English native speakers are no longer the only or main communication targets (see more global English practice in section 2.3). As Widdowson (1994) points out, an international language is an independent language. It is not the privilege of the native English speaker to make decisions about language standards. Instead, the right belongs to any English user and speaker who can adapt and change English in accordance with their communication purpose.

Another feature of standard language ideology is that it involves the beliefs 'that imposed language uniformity is good for society and that the standard variety is the only legitimate one' (Seidlhofer, 2011, p.42). Standard language ideology is highly related to standard language which 'is the term used for the variety of a language that is considered to be the norm' (Jenkins, 2015, p.21). Standard language is used as a yardstick against which any deviation is measured and judged as incorrect. For example, standard English is defined as English spoken by English 'middle or upper class' or 'educated' English native speakers, although the terms 'middle class' 'upper class' and 'educated' English native speakers are difficult to define (more definitions are listed in Jenkins, 2015, p.24-25). Thus, other English native speakers' English is considered to be non-standard (Jenkins, 2015). In addition, although new Englishes have been accepted and codified, Standard English still labels varieties of Englishes developed in Outer Circle countries as 'fossilisation' or 'deficient'. Standard English ideology also has an effect on education policies in Expanding circle countries where Standard English ideology is promoted by 'providing to students a limited range of models of English that usually adhere to General American or British RP norms' (Galloway and Rose, 2015, p. 46). In other words, Standard English ideology is one kind of standard language ideology which 'attributes Standard English a special and privileged status' and degrades other English uses around the world (Seidlhofer, 2011, p.43).

There are many ways to reinforce Standard English ideology. One of them is to enhance the stereotype of the 'native English speaker', the use of native English as a standard to measure others' English, and the portrayal of English native speakers' culture through social media, such as TV or film, or through linguistics and the ELT Press (Galloway and Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2007). As a consequence, Standard English ideology would be transmitted to

teachers and students in a subtle but quite influential way in an educational context. For example, critical analysis of three ELT periodicals — ‘EL Gazette’ The Guardian weekly ‘Learning English’ supplement, and IATEFL Issues— which teachers typically read and use, leads Jenkins (2007) to note that most of articles are written by native English speakers or by non-native English speakers who show a preference for native English speakers’ norms. She also finds that among those three periodicals, ‘it seemed that the sheer weight of the NS ideology being communicated to NNS teachers around the world on a regular basis is convincing many of them...that ‘good’ English is NS English, and that its most important experts are NSs in terms of both the language itself and by a somewhat curious and tenuous link’ (p. 58-59). More importantly, this reinforcement of Standard English ideology or NS ideology seems to be happening without raising teachers’ awareness.

Although channels such as social media and linguistics or the ELT Press have had a significant influence by reproducing Standard English ideology, they still cannot compare to language education policy which is regarded as the most powerful mechanism to implement language ideology and affect language practice (Jenkins, 2007; Shohamy, 2006). In this section, I have discussed the definitions of Standard English ideology and typical features of Standard English ideology and reviewed how it is reproduced in society. In the next chapter, I would like to introduce some specific mechanisms used in educational settings which are used to implement English education policy with Standard English ideology embedded. But before that, I would like to introduce the language policy theories that underpin that discussion and this research project as a whole.

2.4 Language policy theories

In Ricento’s overview of theoretical perspectives in the language policy field, the root of the term ‘theory’ is traced back to Greek history. The original meaning can be interpreted as ‘a statement, or series of statements, proposed by an individual or group of individuals, about a position on an understanding of the world or some aspect of it’ (2006a, p.3). In this original meaning, ‘theory’ is more like a synonym of ‘opinion’ or ‘perception’ due to the subjective and descriptive features. However, such a theory type is not sufficient for a research field, such as language policy, which is interested in ‘addressing social problems which often involve language, to one degree or another, and in proposing realistic remedies’ (Ricento, 2006b, p.11).

Language policy as a research field has been developing since the 1950s. Language policy researches in the past 60 years can be divided into two trends: one concerns language policy and planning, aiming at prompting national development by solving language problems (e.g. Cooper, 1989; Hornberger, 1990; Neustupny, 1974). As a result, corpus planning and status planning, which are ‘beneficial to nation-building and national unification’ and which can decide which language would best...provide access to advanced, that is Western, technological and economic assistance’ (Ricento, 2006 b,p.13), become the primary research interests during this trend. The other research wave concerns linguistic human rights to critique social and economic inequality and to appeal for specific policies which might be beneficial to international groups (e.g. May, 2006; Pennycook, 2006; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2006 ; Tollefson, 2006). Assumptions in early work in language policy, such as ‘native speaker’, ‘linguistic competence’ and ‘power’ are questioned by researchers with critical and postmodern theories.

The above review of the development of research into language policy indicates that, to approach the language policy field in a better way, theories are required not to simply be subjective or descriptive statements, but need to be practical or critical to tackle particular issues that involve language and society (e.g. Grin, 2006; Ricento, 2006b; Shohamy, 2006; Spolsky, 2004).

In terms of this research, I would like to use theories that are in accordance with this research context, aims and questions. The research investigates three areas in education: policy statement, teaching practice and participants’ beliefs. Language policy theories for this research need not only to cover and integrate those three areas, but also to guide data collection and analysis to address practical issues, because those are the starting points as well as the priorities of this research. In addition, the discrepancy between policy and practice which brings power issues into consideration calls for language policy theories which adopt a critical stance to examine implicit statements behind policy and practice.

2.4.1 Components of language policy

Although much effort has been invested in these language policy theory researches, Spolsky notices that there is still no overarching theory which can systematically cover and tackle complex issues on language policies at all levels (2004). For example, in the first trends where the focus is on language planning, the officialization and standardization of status

planning and corpus planning not only leaves little space for individuals to decide which language to learn and ignores how individuals use language in practice, but also judges, controls, punishes or marginalizes individuals for their language behaviours if they are not consistent with language standards set in language planning. In short, the first research trend takes macro level language use (e.g. official language for the nation) as primary and ignores micro level language use (e.g. individual's language use). Attempting to 'gather usable data on language policies at all levels systematically (p.4), Spolsky (2004) then proposes that research on language policy should address three components: language practices, language beliefs or ideology, and language management.

By language practices, Spolsky means 'the sum of the sound, word and grammatical choices that an individual speaker makes, sometimes consciously and sometimes less consciously, that makes up the conventional unmarked pattern of a variety of a language' (2004, p.9). For a further interpretation, the definition of language practices can be deconstructed into four key words: individual, agreed rules, situation, and language intervention. First, in practice, it is the individual who actually chooses and uses language forms rather than the authorities. It indicates that language would be used in various ways by hundreds and thousands individuals, which may lead to great possibility to go contradicted with the Standardized language policy. Second, besides linguistic choices, there are also conventional or agreed rules that the individual needs to take into consideration for language choices and behaviour. In other words, there are possible external factors that would affect people's language behaviours. Third, language choice and behaviour may vary in accordance with different situations and contexts. The last but most important point is the fact that the individual makes language choices 'sometimes consciously and sometimes less consciously', which indicates that there are areas that language intervention cannot reach or fully control. In short, individuals choose, adapt and modify language for appropriate interaction in dynamic and complex situations and contexts, which may or may not be the result of language intervention.

Language beliefs or ideologies are 'beliefs on language or language use' (Spolsky, 2004, p.5) which can assign 'values and prestige to various aspects of the language varieties' (p.14). The reason that beliefs or ideologies are important for language policy research is because there is a significant possibility that they will affect an individual's language choice and behaviour in practice and the implementation of language management (more detail in Chapter 3). There are many language beliefs that can exist at the same time. Those various language beliefs may derive from practice at bottom up or exist in language management at top down.

Sometimes, beliefs from bottom up may be contradicted by those from top down. In this case, language management may decide to either confirm or modify those beliefs from bottom up. As a consequence, usually, only one common belief that is shared by the majority of community members in practice exists as the main belief of the community.

Language management refers to ‘any specific efforts to modify or influence that practice’ (p.5). It may explicitly be written in a formal document or law, or implicitly exist as a conventional rule. No matter in what form it appears, it is usually controlled by the group with power. In short, language management is about ‘who plans what for whom and how’ (Cooper, 1989, p.31). It decides language standards and language status, and also affects how language should be used and perceived by people in practice. However, the influences on language practice and beliefs are not always as powerful as expected because ‘the existence of such an explicit policy does not guarantee that it will be implemented, nor does implementation guarantee success’ (Spolsky, 2004, p.11).

Those three components (language practice, language beliefs and language management) are strongly interrelated. Language practice produces language beliefs; meanwhile beliefs about language can affect language choice and behaviour in practice. Language management designs standards for language practice and modifies language beliefs; on the other hand, contradiction between language practice and beliefs and management may sometimes force language management to make a change. A small change in one component may bring subsequent change in the other two, although the influence of language management is more often much more powerful than the other two.

As I mentioned above, Spolsky’s aim in proposing such a framework for language policy theory is to build a theory that can be generalized to gather data from all levels in language policy research. Spolsky’s framework indeed offers an all-sided perspective on language policy research. It not only covers language management as previous language policy researches have always done, but also includes how individuals actually use language and perceive language in practice. Spolsky’s framework for language policy has a significant influence on the interpretation and investigation of language policy in this thesis because it helps to build the structure of this thesis at three macro levels: policy statement, teaching practice, and participants’ beliefs.

2.4.2 Implicit statements of language policy

Spolsky (2004, 2009) makes a significant contribution to language policy research by providing a framework to describe a full picture of language policy. But questions arise when data is obtained and organised from all levels, that is, what is inside or behind the picture? We know that the three components affect each other, but how? And who makes this ‘how’ happen and for what reason? To answer these questions and to obtain a deeper understanding of language policy, I would like to explore implicit statements behind language policy by addressing Shohamy’s work (2006), which was based on and further developed the language policy theories of Spolsky (2009).

According to Shohamy (2006), language policy is not always implemented and there is no guarantee that any implementation will be successful. Instead, sometimes, policies are ‘only lip service, declarations and intentions’ with very limited influence on practice (Shohamy, 2006, p.52). It is because language policy does not always reflect, but contradict with language practices sometimes. Such contradictions may result in battles where there are attempts to impose language policy from top-down while people in practice resist and insist on using their own language agendas from bottom-up. During those battles, in order to turn language policy into practice or vice versa, overt and covert devices are often used as tools to affect, create and perpetuate language practice. Shohamy calls these devices ‘mechanisms’ and suggests that real language policy needs to be ‘interpreted not through declared and official documents but is derived through different mechanisms used implicitly and covertly to create de facto language policies.’ (p.57).

Three typical characteristics of these mechanisms can be summarised from Shohamy’s work. The first is that dominant groups and grass-root groups can both exploit mechanisms to fulfil their aims but the mechanisms are more powerful and influential in the hands of the former group. For example, government can make rules, regulations and laws to decide on language status and standards which can affect the language choices and behaviours of the whole nation. People who have different language behaviours or standards will receive slight or harsh punishment, such as failure in test situations. The second point that needs to be considered when interpreting ‘mechanisms’ is that ‘since language is not neutral but is embedded in political, ideological, social and economic agendas, these mechanisms are not neutral either and serve as vehicles for promoting and perpetuating agendas’ (p.55). For

instance, schools are important places for the implementation of language policy. Language ideologies, like Standard English ideology, can be put into practice through teaching.

More importantly, such mechanisms are usually used in a covered and implicit way without raising people's awareness. For example, they might appear in textbook, test or curriculum (more details can be found in Chapter 3). Language ideologies can be embedded in such mechanisms. Teachers and students usually follow curriculum, teach or learn from textbook, and prepare for test without considering possible embedded language ideologies. Dominant groups reproduce language beliefs from the very beginning of students' language learning without raising their awareness of its existence.

Shohamy's interpretation of mechanisms clearly shows that the real intentions of language policy do not lie in the declared document, but can be observed in the covert devices which are used to reproduce language beliefs and in practice. Therefore, in order to obtain deeper and more insightful understanding of language policy, it is necessary to examine mechanisms of language policy in this thesis, such as textbook, curriculum and test (see more in Chapter 3).

2.4.3 Postmodernism in language policy

Although these two language policy theories (Shohamy, 2006; Spolsky, 2004) provide a multi-level perspective and insight into policy, some fundamental issues are missing. For example, there are questions about language which remain untouched, like 'what is language' and 'who defines 'what is language' for what reason' 'who are native-speakers and non-native speakers'. These questions are very important to language policy, if we leave them unquestioned, language policy research will become policy research without any investigation of language. More important, the interpretation of language from a postmodern perspective is the foundation of the interpretation of English in this thesis. Thus, in this section, I would like to question some language concepts using postmodern theory.

In simple terms, postmodernism can be viewed as 'the restive problematisation of the given' (Dean, 1994, p.4). The specific definition and its relationship with language policy can be seen in the following quote from Pennycook (2006):

'Postmodernism is principally concerned with questioning the assumptions of modernity, the so-called Enlightenment, the hegemony of Western thought in the world, and the tools and concepts that have been used to understand the world... from an applied linguistic or

language-policy perspective, the principal concerns from this point of view have to do with questioning the very concepts of language, policy, mother tongues, language rights, and so forth that have been the staples of language policy and planning up to now.’ (p.62).

In other words, postmodernism takes nothing for granted, especially concepts proposed during the Enlightenment and modern period which are so contradicted by language development in the current globalisation trend (Pennycook, 2006).

Enlightenment thinkers believe in the existence of ‘an abstract and autonomous language system’ which can be learned through ‘an abstract and autonomous cognitive system’ (Canagarajah, 2013, p.23). After that, researchers of modernity propose that there is a universal grammar for all languages which can be derived from human beings’ innate cognitive system. The idea of language as autonomous is further developed by Structuralism where language is considered as a constitution of various elements. Those assumptions about language have been spread to the whole world during modern globalisation which is ‘enabled by the ideologies of the European Enlightenment’ (Canagarajah, 2013, p.25).

There are lots of problems with those assumptions in current globalisation where cultural and material resources are ‘flowing through multiple paths and constructing social spaces which are drivers and power hierarchies that are less neat’ (ibid.). First, if language is considered to be cognitive, this isolates social context and environment. Second, language is recognised and learned as a fixed system with structures, which denies its dynamic and flexible features in practical use. Third, the assumption of the existence of abstract and universal grammar ignores the complex and changeable use of language. More importantly, the European Enlightenment ideologies result in inequalities in language, as languages from Western European communities are considered as central or superior while languages from other places are considered peripheral or inferior. This can be seen in the dichotomy between English native-speakers and non-native-speakers, where the latter have to follow language norms that are created by the former group (more detail in the next section).

From a postmodern perspective, Shohamy (2006) and Pennycook (2006) reinterpret the notion of ‘language’. First, language is ‘individual, personal and interactive’ (Shohamy, 2006, p.5). Language being individual and personal refers to the fact that every human being has their own unique features in their voice, style, accent, intonation and choice of words, etc., through which they can be identified and recognised. But these features are not fixed. People choose and change their language and express themselves in ‘approximation, negotiations

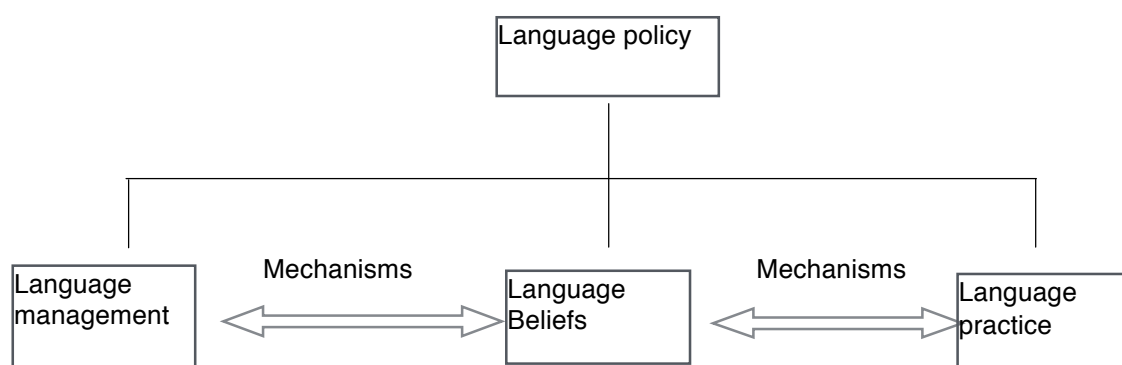
and accommodations' to 'maximise the quality of communication and interaction' (Shohamy, 2006, p.7). Second, language is 'dynamic and evolving' (Shohamy, 2006, p.8). Language constantly changes and evolves in both content and structure during the negotiation. Besides, language should be viewed across 'the fixed boundaries' (Shohamy, p.10). Shohamy points out that language defined in closed boundaries marks national boundaries and build fixed national identities. In this way, language becomes a political entity and loses its open, fluid and varied nature. Fourth, language is a communication resource and communication should be represented 'through multi-modalities' (Pennycook, 2006, p.66). Communication has many other forms apart from language. For example, forms like food, clothes, fashion, visual, gestures, and facial expression, etc., are all resources that people can use to communicate. The communication effect is created by all these resources together rather than just through words. Finally, language should be taken as an 'expression of freedom' (Shohamy, 2006, p.20). People should have the right to choose their language and the right to decide how to use it according to their needs.

2.4.4 Summary

In conclusion, there are three language policy theories which contribute to this thesis. Spolsky's framework offers the thesis an all-sided perspective to the study of language policy on multiple levels (i.e. language practice, language beliefs and language management); while Shohamy's interpretation of language policy helps to reveal implicit statements of language policy with insightful investigation into mechanisms which are used as overt or covert devices to implement language ideologies into language policy (see figure 2.1). The typical features of those two language policy theories are that they are practical and critical. They both take an ethnographic view to studying language policy by observing how language is actually used in practice and are critical of power issues concerning how language ideologies are reproduced from language management which is controlled by authorities and affects language practice.

The third theory is postmodernism which focuses on 'language' issues in language policy research. It defines the thesis's position on the interpretation of language, i.e. language is individual and interactive, dynamic and evolving, manifested through multi-modalities, and an expression of freedom.

Figure 1 Interpretation of language policy



2.5 Conclusion

It is very important to clarify the terms (e.g. native/non-native, variety, and community), language policy theories and global Englishes practice since they are the foundation of this thesis and will affect the understanding of the work. I first explained the meaning of global Englishes in this thesis. Global Englishes is not simply the summary of one word ‘global’ plus another word ‘Englishes’. Global Englishes is a term which refers to not only blending, mixing and reshaping Englishes but also to translation, transmodality, transculturality and transtextuality among Englishes and other languages (Pennycook, 2007) along with globalisation where ‘worldwide interconnectedness in terms of society, culture economy, politics, spirituality and language’ is strengthened (McIntyre, 2009 cited in Galloway and Rose, 2015, p. 11). In a simple way, global Englishes covers all English use and English users. But in this thesis, it mainly refers to English functioning as a lingua franca where ‘any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option.’ (Seidlhofer, 2011:7).

I have also re-examined some existing concepts: ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ English speakers, variety and community. Although there are negative connotations of the terms ‘native’ and ‘non-native’, for the convenience of readers who are already used to such terms and for the convenience of writing, this thesis will continue to use the terms ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ but ‘native’ will refer to monolingual English speakers while ‘non-native’ English speakers refers to those who are bilingual or multi-lingual English speakers (Jenkins, 2015). As for the

variety and community, I noted that due to the highly changeable, flexible and creative features of Englishes which are mixed, rendered, and reshaped in globalisation trends, the stable variety of English and its bounded community gradually loses sense (e.g. Dewey, 2007, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2011; Wenger, 1998). Community becomes more practical and changeable in accordance with ELF speakers' communication purposes.

After that, I addressed Standard English ideology. Standard language ideology is about language beliefs regarding standards of language. Standard English ideology is a special case of standard language ideology which can transgress nations and have a significant impact globally by attaching ownership of English to English native speakers (Galloway and Rose, 2015) by imposing language beliefs that 'language uniformity is good for society and that the standard variety is the only legitimate one' (Seidlhofer, 2011, p.42). There are many channels, such as social media, linguistics or the ELT Press, which transmit Standard English ideology into practice (Jenkins, 2007). However, among them, language education policy is regarded as the most powerful method of implementing language ideology and affecting language practice through specific mechanisms including curriculum, textbook and test.

Another important concept that I have clarified in this section is language policy. Based on Spolsky's language policy framework (2004) and Shohamy's (2006) expanding view on the implicit statements of language policy, I have made it clear that language policy in this thesis refers to the integration of language management, language beliefs, and language practice with mechanisms which are used as overt or covert devices to connect and affect each component. The second concept I have clarified is language. With reference to postmodern theory (Canagarajah, 2013; Pennycook, 2006; Shohamy, 2006), I have questioned the existing interpretation of language, which has been greatly affected by the Enlightenment movement and modernism. Instead of being an abstract and autonomous language system as it is was traditionally defined, language in this thesis is interpreted as dynamic, evolving, flexible, individual and interactive and as something which has multi-modalities.

This chapter has focused on theory to explain how the thesis defines 'global Englishes perspective', 'language policy' and 'language practice'. In the following chapter, I would like to draw on those concepts to investigate language education policy and practice from a global Englishes perspective by addressing policy mechanisms, policy agents and classroom teaching practices.

Chapter 3 Language policy and practice in education

3.1 Introduction

Global Englishes and language policy have been discussed separately and generally in last chapters for an explanation of the theoretical basis of this thesis. This chapter will combine the two research fields and focus on global Englishes in specific educational settings. Firstly, language education policy will be discussed briefly. Next the specific mechanisms that are used in language education policy to transmit Standard English ideology, such as textbook, curriculum, and test, will be discussed. The chapter will then conclude with a discussion of global Englishes in classrooms in which the language policy agents—teachers, language learning and teaching will be addressed respectively from a global Englishes perspective.

3.2 Language education policy

As discussed in section 2.5, language policy is executed by many overt or covert means. Among them, language education policy is one of the most powerful. It can not only ‘create and impose language behaviour in a system which it is compulsory for all children to participate in’, but can also ‘determine criteria for language correctness, oblige people to adopt certain ways of speaking and writing, create definitions about language and especially determine the priority of certain languages in society and how these languages should be used, taught and learned’ (Shohamy, 2006, p.77).

Basing on Spolsky’s framework (See section 2.4), in this thesis, language education policy will be divided into three levels: language management, language practice and language beliefs. Language management refers to published documents, such as English curriculum; language beliefs either refers to individual beliefs about language, or to a set of beliefs—called ideologies in language policy and practice; while language practice, in this thesis, involves language usage practice, teaching practice and learning practice. Through overt or covert devices, such as curriculum, teaching material, test or teacher education, language ideology embedded in language management can be turned into practice without people’s awareness. Alternatively, teachers and students can resist language policies through negative implementation of policy or by not implementing policy at all and can turn their actual

language usage practice into language ideology to force language management to alter. However, since powerful authorities dominate the design and implementation processes, teachers and students require courage to resist the ideologies that are imposed on them (Canagrajiah, 1999; Shohamy, 2006). Language education policy, which implements those language policy intentions in an educational context, thus, is carrying these political or ideological agendas and is far from being neutral. Such language ideologies not only exist within specific nations but also in transnational and global spaces (Shohamy, 2006). The prime example is Standard English ideology as discussed above (see section 2.3), which has had a significant influence around the world. Due to globalisation and the global role of English, English as a global language has been assigned great significance in the promotion of national competition in the world. More and more countries such as Japan and China have demanded that schools and universities should teach English in addition to one national language (Galloway and Rose, 2015). However, English in those language education policies does not represent a truly global language as the politics intended. Instead, American English or British English, which are also assumed as Standard English, are seen as global Englishes in those language education policies (Brown, 2012; Jenkins, 2014). Language education policies thus become powerful tools to reproduce Standard English ideology into practice intentionally or unintentionally. In the following sections, I would like to introduce some specific devices that are used in language educational settings to implement Standard English ideology.

3.3 Mechanisms of language education policy

3.3.1 Curriculum

Curriculum can be simply defined as ‘the overall rationale for the educational program of an institution’ (Kelly, 1989, p.14). In its narrowest sense, it is a syllabus where specific requirements for teaching content and sequence are described. In a broader sense, it involves ‘the educational purposes of the program (the ends)...the content, teaching procedures and learning experiences which will be necessary to achieve this purpose (the means)...and some means for assessing whether or not the educational ends have been achieved’ (Richards, Platt and Platt, 1992, p.24). In the following section I would like to discuss curriculum in its broad

sense by addressing educational purpose, curriculum content and curriculum evaluation; while its narrow sense will be discussed in the classroom teaching practice section.

3.3.1.1 Educational purpose

Curriculum is considered as overt LEP (language education policy) and is usually regulated by the central authority of government. Theoretically, curriculum has clear principles for all other education methods, such as textbook design, test design, and classroom teaching practice.

According to Shohamy (2006), curriculum in lots of countries requires learners to learn English in addition to one national language. In most non-English speaking countries, English is learned from secondary school, or even from the level of primary school as the main foreign language. In some countries, English is even used as the language of instruction. English learning has been emphasized for its usefulness in global communication and in access to global information in commerce, academia and technology (Brown, 2012). It appears that the role of English as a lingua franca, international or global language is recognized in LEP. However, in most cases, the ‘global’ ‘international’ or ‘lingua franca’ sense of English is not actually implemented in curriculum as might be expected (e.g. Jenkins, 2014; Jung and Norton, 2002; McKay, 2002). As Brown (2012) summarized, the traditional curriculum developers usually assumed that ‘the students need to learn the English of native speakers’, ‘that educated NSs (short for English native speaker) of English should serve as the model and standard’, and ‘that big C American or British culture should be taught’ (p.147).

One of the fundamental reasons for taking or mistaking American or British English for global Englishes lies in the economic and political intentions of curriculum in non-English speaking countries (Brown, 2012). Those curricula are developed with a political intention that English learning is for learning advanced technology, science and information in order to achieve national modernization and to improve the country’s chances in international competitions. Thus, American English and British English as the languages used in the two most economically successful English speaking countries—America and Britain—are considered to be the models to follow.

However, such intentions in the curriculum are not consistent with the learning needs and purposes of individuals. For example, in most Expanding Circle countries, most learners

learn English to obtain a better job or to gain entrance to a better university (McKay, 2008). Learners learn English not for communicating with English NSs or to be English NS-like, but learn for much more practical reasons.

Thus, Brown advocates that it is very important to make it clear ‘why people learn English’ from a global Englishes perspective during curriculum design, implementation and evaluation procedures (2012, p.147-168). Unlike traditional NS-based English curriculum in which all students are asked to learn Standard English for communication with English native speakers, Brown (2012) proposes three curriculum types for different education purposes: a World Englishes curriculum aiming to raise awareness ‘that different legitimate Englishes other than the native dialects exist’ for Outer Circle countries, an ELF curriculum where ‘the emphasis is placed more on the diversity and complexity of the process of using English internationally’ for Expanding Circle countries, and locally defined EIL curricula which ‘are all based on carefully considered local needs for English including its international uses’ for all three circles (p. 152-153).

Similarly, Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) offer three options for the target language models in curriculum: the international variety of English, speakers’ own varieties of English and an established variety of English. Although Brown’s and Matsuda and Friedrich’s proposals have some conceptual problems with the interpretation of variety and ELF (see chapter 2), they both put their emphasis on local context and students’ needs. That is to say, they argue that a global English-informed curriculum is supposed to clearly address what kind of linguistic items need to be learned according to local situational needs. In other words, they believe it is time for curriculum to shift from a one for all size design to a global Englishes informed format which ‘should be made locally and individually, taking various contextual factors into consideration, including learner goals, the teacher’s background, local attitudes toward English (es) and the availability of didactic materials’ (Matsuda and Friedrich, 2012, p.23).

3.3.1.2 Curriculum content

Curriculum content has also been criticized for failing to expose students to global Englishes (Canagarajah, 1999; Galloway and Rose, 2015; Matsuda and Friedrich, 2011; Shohamy, 2006), for suppressing cultural diversity (Baker, 2011, 2015; Galloway and Rose, 2015), and

for under representing pragmatic strategies in English pedagogy (Cogo and Dewey, 2006; Matsuda and Friedrich, 2011).

Due to the lack of knowledge about global Englishes, policy makers or teachers are not clear about terms like ‘global Englishes’ ‘English native speaker’ English’ ‘Standard English’, or are not even aware of the existence of such concepts. As a consequence, sometimes, policy makers, especially those in Expanding Circle countries, misuse American English or British English as global Englishes unintentionally (e.g. McKay, 2002; Jung and Norton, 2002). This happens much more in teaching and learning practice where teachers and learners implement Standard English ideology without resistance since they are not aware of its existence (Canagarajah, 1999; Shohamy, 2006).

Many researchers have provided suggestions about how to increase exposure to global Englishes. For example, Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) point out that a direct way to raise people’s awareness is to ‘increase students’ meta-knowledge about Englishes by making it a lesson focus’ (p. 339). By considering the impossibility of introducing all English varieties in a World Englishes paradigm and various Englishes in an ELF paradigm, Galloway and Rose (2015) suggest choosing Englishes that are both salient to students and can meet their needs through teaching material, such as textbook or listening journal. Most researchers also agreed that it is necessary and important to raise global Englishes awareness through teacher education programmes, since teachers are the agents of curriculum (Dewey, 2009; Jenkins, 2007; Matsuda and Friedrich, 2011).

Besides the lack of exposure to global Englishes, traditional curriculum is also criticized for suppressing cultural diversity. The goal of learning culture in traditional English pedagogy is ‘depicted as a means to join the native English-speaking language culture’ (Galloway and Rose, 2015, p.206). American culture and British culture are taken as models in English education which bring the danger that learners tend to limit themselves to one or two cultures and reject other cultures. Identifying such mono-cultural issues in traditional curriculum, many scholars have made suggestions about what kind of cultures should be introduced into curriculum. Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) propose three kinds of cultures that curriculum needs to include, that is, universal culture, the interlocutors’ culture, and students’ own culture. Although multiple cultures are included, the concept of culture in their proposal is still at national level, and ignores the transcultural flows of globalisation. Thus, Baker (2011; 2015) suggests that it is very important to expose learners to diverse cultures; but more

importantly, it is necessary to raise their intercultural awareness in English education. The learner should be reminded by the curriculum that they not only need to learn about the norms of specific cultures; but at the same time, learner should also acknowledge that cultural norms in specific culture are flexible and may change in accordance with different contexts, purposes and individuals (Baker, 2011; see more in section 2.3, 3.3).

In addition to suppressing cultural diversity, traditional curriculum has been challenged for marginalising pragmatic strategies in English pedagogy. Pragmatic strategies are also called strategic competence in traditional communicative pedagogy and refer to ‘the effective use of coping strategies to sustain or enhance communication’ (Savignon, 1997, p. 278). Like pragmatic strategies in global Englishes practice, communicative strategies also include paraphrasing, clarification, repetition, code-switching and so on. But unlike pragmatic strategies informed by global Englishes, communicative strategies are considered as components to ‘compensate for linguistic and other limiting factors’ in traditional pedagogy (Matsuda and Friedrich, 2011), and take native English-speakers as their model (Galloway and Rose, 2015). In brief, in traditional curriculum where linguistic learning is primary, pragmatic strategies are still peripheral with native English-speakers as their model.

However, as empirical data suggests, communication among ELF speakers is more effective since they can make use of pragmatic strategies to pre-empt communication problems (Cogo and Dewey, 2006). Pragmatic strategies thus do not compensate for ‘linguistic deficiency’ but are language resources that are used to negotiate and co-construct successful communication. In addition of the emphasis on the pragmatic strategies in communication, some researchers also advocate that curriculum needs to raise awareness that ‘communication is a two-way road’ (Matsuda and Friedrich, 2011). It is suggested that students should be reminded in curriculum that it is both the native speaker and non-native speaker’s responsibility to make themselves understood due to the number of non-English-native speakers which is much larger than that of English native speakers (Jenkins, 2007, 2014).

3.3.1.3 Curriculum evaluation

There are also challenges to curriculum evaluations from a global Englishes perspective. Curriculum evaluation is defined as ‘the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of curriculum, and assess its effectiveness

and efficiency, as well as the participants' attitudes within the context of the particular institution involved' (Brown, 1989, p.222). Every stage of curriculum planning and implementation needs to be evaluated. According to Finney (2002), there are two purposes of evaluation. One is to check whether the educational goals have been achieved or not. The evaluation approach for this purpose is through language assessment (see details in section 3.3.3). The other purpose is 'to determine the effectiveness of the curriculum and to evaluate the language programme itself, which will focus on the teachers, the methodology, and the materials and so on' (Finney, 2002, p.77). From a global Englishes perspective, Brown (2012) interprets curriculum evaluation differently, i.e. whether the curriculum has conducted EIL needs analysis, set goals and objectives for an EIL course, assessed EIL objectives, put EIL materials in place, and supported EIL teachers. In other words, the first and fundamental step to evaluate a curriculum is to question whether the curriculum is native English-speaker centred or is designed from a global Englishes perspective. Then, the curriculum can be evaluated using more traditional processes to check whether all components are systematically connected and conducted.

3.3.2 Textbooks

The second key mechanism for the implementation of language education policy is the textbook. It provides 'a route map for teacher and learners' 'structure and predictability' and 'a sense of security and self-confidence' (McKay, 2012:71). Teachers and students often regard textbook 'as a high prestige source of input by foreign students' (Matsuda, 2012:168). According to Matsuda (2012), teaching materials contribute to language teaching in two ways: they are 'a source of input'; and they 'express, reinforce, and construct a certain view of the world' (p.168). However, whatever its contribution, the textbook, which is the main teaching material in language classes, is often full of Standard English ideology.

There are two ways in which the textbook can transmit Standard English ideology. One is through Standard English grammar learning. As a result of shifting from purely grammar learning to language use in ELT from the 1960s (McKay, 2012), teaching materials in ELT are developed by addressing issues of language appropriateness. Teaching materials are apparently organised by situations or language functions; however, in fact, grammar learning still forms the main content of teaching materials. For example, dialogues, which are

supposed to be designed for communication, are actually orientated towards the imitation of an English native speaker's grammar structure (ibid.). Thus, the power of the English NS model has not disappeared in so-called communicative teaching materials; but becomes stronger in a subtle way by emphasising correctness and standardisation during grammar learning.

Another way in which Standard English is reinforced in textbook is through their cultural content. The target culture in textbook is, in most cases, the culture of Inner Circle countries, particularly America and Britain. As McKay (2012) points out, 'well-known holidays, customs and literature of English-speaking countries' take a large place in textbook. English speakers in textbook are usually described as wealthy members of an elite culture. These ideological stereotypes are internalised by learners through repeated reading and learning without their awareness. In addition, cultures from Inner Circle countries are sometimes different from the learners' own culture. For example, in textbook, there are pragmatic expectations of English-speaking countries, such as, 'modesty is not appropriate when an English NS compliments you'. But being modest is a time-honoured good quality in Confucian culture-influenced countries like Japan and China. The monoculture learning focused on English native speaking countries' culture may cause the marginalisation of other cultures and will make the learner disadvantaged in international communication with people from different cultural backgrounds.

More importantly, cultural awareness (CA) in textbook is usually raised at national level where L2 users are required to 'understand L2 communication as a cultural process and to be aware of their own culturally based communicative behaviour and that of others' in ELT' (Baker, 2011, p.64; see section 2.3). CA is appropriate in a World English paradigm since it enhances language learners' national identity by interpreting cultures in their own right. However, it is problematic since English has spread across geographical and political boundaries and is used as a lingua franca (Baker, 2015). Along with the use of ELF, the transcultural flow not only involves the spread of cultural forms across boundaries but also involves mutual influence among different cultures (Pennycook, 2007). It is a process of 'borrowing, blending, remaking and returning' and a process of 'alternative cultural production' (Pennycook, 2007:6).

Based on empirical researches, Baker (2011) advocates that it is time to shift from cultural awareness to intercultural awareness in English learning/teaching materials. At the

intercultural awareness (ICA) level, learners have the awareness of: ‘culturally based frames of reference, forms, and communicative practices as being related both to specific cultures and also as emergent and hybrid in intercultural communication’; ‘initial interaction in intercultural communication as possibly based on cultural stereotypes or generalizations but an ability to move beyond these through’; ‘a capacity to negotiate and mediate between different emergent sociocultural grounded communication modes and frames of reference based on the above understating of culture in intercultural communication’ (Baker, 2011:66). At this level, learners not only know the similarities and differences between cultures, but also need to know that they should be flexible in the face of cultural differences. They need to have the awareness that all influences that cultures bring to them are not fixed. They need to negotiate the differences and co-construct a successful communication. Thus, Baker (2011) suggests that it is necessary to develop and critically evaluate learning materials in terms of local culture and foreign cultures with ICA awareness.

Unfortunately, textbook centred on English native speaker norms and imbedded with Standard English ideology are still the most popular products in the English language teaching (ELT) industry. There are indeed books that introduce the history of English and show changes in the language, or have designed activities for global Englishes awareness, such as Kirkpatrick (2007), Melcher and Shaw (2011), Jenkins (2015) and Galloway and Rose (2015). But these limited books are not so appropriate for teaching English as a subject to lower level students. The very limited amount of global Englishes-informed teaching material results in a theory/practice divide where teachers accept the global Englishes concept but do not implement it in teaching practice (Jenkins, 2007). The lack of global Englishes-informed teaching material is thus becoming a big barrier for teaching English from global Englishes perspective (Galloway and Rose, 2015).

Although the current absence of global Englishes-informed teaching material is an issue, Seidlhofer points out that ‘what matters is not the language content but how it is exploited for learning...what is crucial therefore is not what teaching materials are used but how they are used’ (2011, p. 201). In order to avoid Standard English ideology, it is not necessary to abandon all the traditional materials and create new books. Teachers can adapt or resist the current textbook they have been using and design their own teaching materials if they have time (McKay, 2012). But before that, most scholars agree that the most important thing that needs to be done is to explore teachers’ ability to critically use textbook by raising teachers’ awareness of global Englishes, of the existence of Standard English ideology and of factors

that contribute to the existence of Standard English ideology in textbook (e.g. benefits for test takers and for publishers) through teacher education programs (Dewey, 2012; Jenkins, 2007; Kumaravadivelu, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2011).

3.3.3 Tests

Test is regarded as ‘an essential part of monitoring students’ progress and providing feedback, but also a crucial part of determining the degree to which the objectives are appropriately defined’ (Brown, 2012, p.161). From classroom-assessment perspectives, test can be divided into diagnostic assessments or formative assessments which are conducted for diagnosing students’ learning problems and improving teaching, and achievement assessments or summative assessments for grading or pass/fail decisions. According to the extent of influence, test can be divided into high-stake assessments and low-stake assessments. For example, college entrance examinations in China are high-stake assessments since they can affect whether the test taker can continue with higher education or not.

Shohamy defines test as ‘a set of mechanisms which are used in subtle ways to manipulate language and create de facto language policies’ (Shohamy, 2006, p.93). Test thus become the de facto language policies that can affect people’s language belief and behaviours (see more in section 2.2), that is, how language is actually used. In other words, if language test is consistent with language education policy, language test is the mechanism of the education policy to reproduce language ideology. However, if language test contradicts language education policy, it is the language test, rather than the official stated language educational policy, that creates language practice and affects people’s language belief and behaviour. The power of language test not only lies in their manipulation of language, such as ‘determining the prestige and the status of languages’ ‘standardising and perpetuating language correctness’ and ‘suppressing language diversity’; but also in its wash back on language education in which it can ‘determine which languages will be studied and the content and methods of teaching that should be used’ (Shohamy, 2006, p.95, p.105).

Shohamy lists some sources from which the power of language test is formed. One source for the test’ power comes from its ‘objective’ and ‘authoritative’ format. It is claimed that test especially high-stake test is designed by experts with scientific theories and administered by powerful organisations. In addition, the scores of each test item are disguised with objective

numbers or professional evaluation methods, with which it is quite easy to win people's trust. Thus, with all these guises, test can be easily used as language policy mechanisms to affect language behaviours and teaching practice.

Another reason for language test having such a significant influence is their 'strongest effects on the lives of individuals' (Shohamy, 2006, p.102). Test scores decide whether a student will be able to enter a good university, or whether a teacher will have the opportunity to win the title of 'outstanding teacher' at the end of the year. Test scores are often 'the sole indicators for placing people' (p. 103). In order to achieve high marks in test, teachers and students modify their local curriculum, teaching material or teaching/learning focus to prepare for test (Hogan-Brun, 2007), which leads to industries producing more test-oriented materials with the intention of gaining greater commercial benefits (Bailey and Masuhara, 2013). With the fear of the negative effect of test, people usually comply with language test without much resistance or without many questions, which makes the reproduction of Standard language ideologies much easier.

In terms of English language, current English tests have been strongly criticised by many scholars from a global Englishes perspective. Jenkins and Leung directly point out 'a fundamental problem with second language assessment is that the basis of its language modelling and norming has failed to keep in touch with contemporary developments in English' (Jenkins and Leung, 2014, p.1615). The authenticity of language in current tests, i.e. 'the tasks must be relevant to the environment in which the candidate will use the language' (Hogan-Brun, 2007, p.2), is also questioned by Hu (2012c), who proposes that the authenticity and situational appropriateness of the target language used in language test should be in accordance with test takers' actual language usage behaviour or intended use. Unfortunately, the English that English language test require is not the English that people actually use in practice.

Current language tests (e.g. IELTS or TOEIC) take English native speakers as their language model and Standard English as the language norm. However, as discussed in section 2.3, non-English native speakers use English as a lingua franca where English forms are creatively co-constructed, or negotiated during communication. Those language forms are different from Standard English norms, but are sufficient and appropriate for successful communication. However, current language tests label those forms that are different from Standard English norms as 'errors'. The Standard English ideology is enhanced through tests' wash back on

teaching materials, on language teaching and learning, and on its stakeholders which include ‘teachers, programme administrators, curriculum designers, the employers of adult learners and students themselves’ (Bailey and Masuhara, 2013, p.309). Thus, Jenkins and Leung remind people of the wash back effect of ‘language-testing ideology’ which is ‘preventing learners from exploiting the potential of the English language and their own resources as multilingual English speakers, and thus holding up English language change’ (Jenkins and Leung, 2014, p.1616).

In addition to the native-like model and the Standard English norms of language test, scholars also suggest that there should be an emphasis on pragmatic proficiency in language test (e.g. Canagarajah, 2007; Cumming, 2009; Elder and Harding, 2008; Jenkins, 2015; Lowenberg, 2002; McNamara and Roever, 2006). As discussed in section 2.3, pragmatic strategies play a very important role in communication that can pre-empt or resolve problems in conversation. In ELF settings, pragmatic strategies are not merely considered as supplement in language communication. Instead, those strategies are useful resources that are as important as linguistic resources in ELF settings. However, current language tests only focus on the test taker’s language proficiency on a linguistic level and ignore pragmatic strategies. With clear recognition of globalisation and global Englishes practice, Canagarajah proposes a redefinition of proficiency, which refers to ‘the ability to shuttle between different varieties of English and different speech communities’ (Canagarajah, 2006a, p.233). According to Jenkins (2006b), the measurement of proficiency depends on the degree of mutual intelligibility in the communication instead of taking Standard English as the norm. With a thoughtful interpretation of ELF and test, Jenkins and Leung (2014, p. 1616) also make suggestions about what should be penalised and what should be rewarded by saying ‘testers could, for example, reward the successful use of forms that are emerging as potential ELF variants, reward the successful use of accommodation strategies even where the result would be an error in native English, and penalise the use of forms that are not mutually intelligible in ELF, such as native English idioms’.

Pragmatics becomes one of the most important proficiency aspects that need to be tested. Thus, it is suggested that sociolinguistic skills, such as code switching, convergence or divergence strategies, should also be included in the test measurement. However, although many empirical works have shown what and how pragmatic strategies are used in practice by non-English native speakers (e.g. Cogo and Dewey, 2013), assessing these strategies is still not easy (Galloway and Rose, 2015). Currently, there is still little systematic theoretical

development or empirical work on how to include pragmatic strategies in language test. But as McNamara states, ‘we are at a moment of very significant change’ which may need a very long time to make the world different (2011, p.8). Fortunately, we have a starting point.

3.4 Classroom teaching practice

According to Auerbach (2000), classrooms are sites of struggle about whose knowledge, experiences, and ways of using language count. In other words, on one hand, classroom teaching can be seen as the mechanism through which LEP and its ideologies are implemented. In this way, classroom teaching is the practice of the top-down LEP (short for language education policy). On the other hand, classroom teaching is also the place where stakeholders create their own de facto practice from bottom up with their own ideologies. As a consequence, classroom teaching is the struggle between top-down policy and bottom-up policy. If they are in accordance with each other, LEP can be implemented smoothly and successfully. But if they contradict each other, resistance from bottom up will arise and the reform of LEP will be difficult. In this section, I would like to discuss language learning and teaching practice from a global Englishes perspective. Then, I will discuss how teachers as agents affect teaching practice and thus affect the implementation of language policy.

3.4.1 Second language learning

The relationship between pedagogy and second language acquisition (SLA) is very complex. Although it is not right to ‘assume that research in the contributing disciplines produces an agreed theory on language use or language learning that we can apply in immediate and direct ways’ (Hedge, 2000, p. 2), teaching approaches are indeed influenced by related learning theories (Ellis and Shintani, 2014). Therefore, before discussing English teaching practice from a global Englishes perspective in the next section, it is necessary to outline related language learning theories first.

In traditional SLA research development, interlanguage theory has great influences on language learning and teaching practice. Interlanguage theory is a linear language learning process involving individual cognition. It focuses on the innate mechanism and competence

within an individual (Mufwene, 2011). Interlanguage theory claims that L1 and L2 are at the two extremes of the interlanguage continuum. It treats L1 as an interference of L2 learning (Mitchell, et al, 2013), and regards English speakers as learners or failures unless they achieve the unattainable NS (Cook, 2002). The isolation from social context and the NS-centred position have been criticised by both social perspectives and global Englishes perspectives.

For example, traditional SLA interpretation is criticized for mainly focusing on cognition and ignoring social factors in language learning. Several alternative SLA approaches have been offered, such as ‘the Sociocultural Approach’ (Lantolf, 2011) which claims that ‘L2 learning is not something that happens to people but something people make happen through intentional social interaction and co-construction of reflected-upon knowledge’ (Ortega, 2011, p.171), Complexity theory (CT) which suggests there is no built-in syllabus or structure but rather interlanguage systems emerge from use that changes over time (Larsen-Freenman, 2011; Baird, Baker and Kitazawa, 2014), and the identity approach proposed by Norton and McKinny (2011) which believes that language learning and using is a process of ‘negotiating and renegotiating a sense of self in relation to the larger social world, and reorganising the relationship in multiple dimensions of their lives’ (p. 71). The features of these social approaches to SLA can be summarised as follows: (1) Language learning encompasses not only new grammar and discourse but also social practices, values, and indexicality (Ortega, 2011, p.172); (2) Language learning and language learners are not defined by deficiency (ibid.); (3) Second language learning is intentional, conscious, and creative in the interactional moment.

Such social perspectives on language learning share many commons with global Englishes researches. Global Englishes researchers also closely relates language learning to communicative practice in which social context, interaction and negotiation are emphasized (e.g. Jenkins, 2006a, Seidlhofer, 2004). However, there are fundamental difference between general social linguistics and global Englishes scholars on language learning where the former group still takes English NS as learning model while the latter group rejects English native fallacy. Those social alternatives to SLA as discussed above move beyond the cognitive perspective of SLA to a social perspective by emphasizing the social factors in language learning, but most of their efforts are concentrated on ‘finding ways of facilitating the acquisition of as near native-like competence as required by the learner, teacher, or system’ instead of interpreting language learning in a global Englishes paradigm where

English functions as a lingua franca (Jenkins, 2006a, p.139). As Jenkins points out (2006a), those scholars ‘tended not take issue with its basic premise of NS normativity’ (p.144). The pervasive view in much SLA research is ‘a tenacious deficit view of ELF in which variation is perceived as deviation from ENL norms and described in terms of errors or fossilisation’ (Seidlhofer, 2004, p.213).

One potential reason for SLA researchers taking ELF users’ English as errors or fossilisation is their unclear understanding of ELF and EFL (English as a foreign language). In her works, Jenkins has identified at least three differences between ELF and EFL (Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey, 2011; Jenkins, 2006a,). Firstly, ELF and EFL belong to different language paradigms. ELF is a part of the Global Englishes paradigm which mainly involves communication among NNS and NNS, while EFL is part of the Modern Language paradigm which takes NS as the centre. Secondly, in terms of different forms from ENL, ELF views them as the ‘emerging or potential features of ELF’; while EFL takes those forms as ‘signs of incompetence’ (Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey, 2011:284). The third difference exists in the underlying theories of ELF and EFL. For ELF, the supported theories are language contact and evolution in which accommodation strategies like code-switching are regarded as important resources. For EFL, the underpinned theories are L1 interference and fossilisation in which ‘code-switching is regarded as evidence of a gap in a NNSE’s English knowledge’ (Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey, 2012, p.284).

In short, from a global Englishes perspective, language learning needs to move beyond the cognitive world to a wider social context and avoid to taking Standard English norms as the only learning model. A global Englishes perspective also rejects the native speaker fallacy in language teaching/learning (Brian, 2005). It is because in ELF settings ELF speakers are not moving toward a target set by others, but constructing their own norms during interaction (see section 2.2). More importantly, as Hülmbauer (2009) points out, English speakers are not only learners but also English users. This is quite different from traditional linguistic theories where English speakers are often taken to be language learners (e.g. Chomsky, 1965; Hymes, 1966).

3.4.2 Language teaching and Standard English norms

The description of language teaching has always been a complicated issue in ELT field.

Many frameworks have been provided for a coherent and systematic understanding of language teaching (e.g. Antony, 1963; Richards and Rodgers, 1982; Clarke, 1983;). For example, Antony (1963) proposes a three-way distinction where approach, method and technique are considered as main elements of language teaching. Approach in this framework refers to ‘a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language and the nature of language teaching and learning’ (p.63-64), method is ‘an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material’ (p.65); while technique is defined as ‘a particular trick stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective’ (p.66). Antony (1963) is trying to explain language teaching in a hierarchical framework where method is designed based on principles that are provided by approach and implemented by specific techniques in the teaching moment in classroom teaching. Although this framework has been welcomed as a helpful tool for understanding language teaching, it also receives many critical voices for the ignorance of ‘the complex connections between intervening factors... and learner needs’ (Kumaravadivelu, 2009, p.85), for the blurred boundaries among those three elements which results in frequently interchangeably used in some literature, and especially for the drawbacks of the definition of method which is ‘so vague that it means just about anything that anyone wants it to mean, with the result that, in fact, it means nothing’ (Clarke, 1983, p.111). With the recognition of the inadequacy of Antony’s framework, many other frameworks are developed one after another, such as Richards and Rodgers’ ‘approach-design-procedure’ distinction (1982), and Kumaravadivelu’s proposal on ‘principles and procedures’ (2009). However, no matter how language teaching has been interpreted, language teaching method is still a key topic that cannot be avoided in any discussion due to its connection role between principle and practice. Thus, in the following part, teaching method would be the focus of discussion.

Teaching methods have been regarded as a crucial element in traditional classroom teaching practice. For some scholars, methods are interpreted as ‘prescription for practice’ which ‘is a fixed set of classroom practices that serve as a prescription and therefore do not allow variation’ (Bell, 2003, p.326). These methods are claimed to have ‘a universal and ahistorical value’ and provide teachers with a systematic and ready-made whole package, thus making teaching and teacher education quite easy (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p.165). However, since the 1990s, methods have received many criticism and some scholars have even claimed that ‘Method is dead’ (Brown, 2002; Kumaravadivelu, 2003, 2006, 2012).

Methods are criticized for designing based on idealized contexts rather than actual classroom reality (Richards, 1990). These methods assume ‘a common clientele with common goals’ (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p.165) which is not helpful to teachers who have to deal with variable and unpredictable situations in classrooms every day. More importantly, principles developed from those simplified contexts in methods leave little space for individuals to adapt or change methods to suit more complex contexts (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). For example, instead of exploring multi language as a communication resource in multi-lingual contexts, teachers follow the ‘English-only’ principle and marginalise or exclude mother tongue and other languages in English classes (McKay and Bokhorst-Hening, 2008).

To make teaching more flexible and practical, Kumaravadivelu (2006) proposes a post-method pedagogy which offers three parameters for language teaching. Postmethod pedagogy consists of three pedagogic parameters: particularity, practicality, and possibility. Free from the constraints of the whole-package method, teachers are able to be context-sensitive based ‘on a true understanding of local linguistic, sociolinguistic, and political particularities’, to be reflective in their teaching practice, and to have an awareness of ‘the importance of larger social, political, educational, and institutional forces that shape identity formation and social transformation’ (2006, p.184). Such a postmethod is not without critics. Some scholars who speak for method claim that accepting the etic level where scholars design those principles also involves ‘a great deal of variability at the grassroots, emic level’ (Block, 2001, p.72). More importantly, they claimed that contrary to being dead, method is re-born in a postmethod pedagogy since ‘many of the principles of a postmethod pedagogy...are in fact part and parcel of current proposals for teaching language through communication’ (Ellis and Shintani, 2014, p.37). Thus, instead of totally abandoning method, it is much better to take method and postmethod as ‘dialectically related—method imposes practices top-down; postmethod constructs practices bottom-up’ (Bell, 2003, p. 332).

In addition to their universal and fixable nature discussed above, teaching approaches are also criticised for carrying language ideologies. For example, popular teaching methods, such as communicative language teaching (CLT) and task-based language teaching (TBL), are taking English NSs’ language learning/using context and learning needs as their fundamental premise and taking Standard English as a learning model. Such methods are contradicted in ELF settings which are more diverse and complex as a result of the significant influence of globalization (McKay and Bokhorst-Heng, 2008). As Seidlhofer (2011) suggests, in ELF settings, linguistic norms are ad hoc, and negotiated according to ELF users’ needs. The

learning objective is intelligible communication in ELF rather than taking NS as models if they are not necessary. Learning processes in ELF settings are a social practice of accommodation and adaptation (see section 3.4.1). ELF users and learners creatively use and change their language to suit their needs which causes the possibility of change. Standard English-based methods are not compatible with English learning and using in ELF settings at all.

In order to reduce the domination of Standard English normativity, Dewey proposed a post-normative approach which enables practitioners to move beyond normativity to ‘generate location-specific, classroom-oriented innovative language models’ (2012, p.166). Adopting such an approach, teachers are required to reflect on the following questions before their teaching: ‘What are the contextual conditions of language use required by the learners? Is a normative approach suitable for the context of learning/use? What model(s) of English are (most) relevant? What set(s) of norms are (most) appropriate? What is the relative level of importance that should be attached to these models and norms? What additional pragmatic strategies will be contextually useful?’ (ibid.). Thus, it can be seen that although the post-normative approach challenges traditional methods from different perspectives with postmethod pedagogy (the latter on a technique level, the former on an ideological level), they both emphasise teachers’ and learners’ right to make decisions about their teaching and learning in accordance with their practical needs instead of conforming to outside norms and rules.

With specific suggestions on how to reduce Standard English normativity, Baker (2012) advocates rich explorations of the diversity of local, national and transnational cultures in the classroom through radio, film, newspapers, internet, or by inviting non-local and local teachers who have intercultural experience to share their experience and interpretations of other cultures with students. Students’ knowledge, skill, and attitude towards multi-cultural or intercultural communication will help to raise awareness of global Englishes and allow for critical reflection on Standard English norms.

However, as mentioned at the beginning of the section, classroom are ‘sites of struggle about whose knowledge, experiences, literacy and discourse practices, and ways of using language count’ (Cited in Shohamy, 2006, p.79). What and how language is taught is not only decided by policy statements, or scholars’ interpretation of teaching and learning, it is mainly decided by teachers, who can control teaching moments, teaching content and teaching approaches in

classroom teaching practice. Thus, in the following section I would like to address how teachers' roles and attitudes affect the implementation of language policy.

3.4.3 Teacher as agent: roles and attitudes

According to Brown (2012), stake-holders of language policy include students, English teachers, curriculum developers, textbook writers, and institutional administrators. Among them, teachers are considered to be the main agents for implementing the curriculum in the de facto practice (Shohamy, 2006). Teachers decide on practical implementation by 'applying specific teaching methods, controlling the number of teaching hours, allocating resources, in-service training and especially through language tests' (2006:79). Teachers are considered as the experts on theories and they practice what they have theorized (Manen, 1977; Prabhu, 1990). Based on their prior and ongoing learning and teaching experience, teachers know what is good for teaching and learning by engaging in practice, identifying problems, interpreting information, analysing situations, and choosing and evaluating alternatives before, during and after their teaching practice (Kumaravadivelu, 2012), even though sometimes they may not know and cannot explain why.

However, few of them question what types of English they are teaching and why such English has been selected. Teachers take for granted what they are asked to teach without asking questions on an ideological level. In most cases, teachers first internalize and then transmit 'the policy ideology and its agendas as expressed in the curriculum, in textbook, and other material and the very perceptions of language' (Shohamy, 2006, p.78). Standard English ideology is thus reproduced into practice when teachers lack of critical reflection on their teaching. In short, many teachers construct a class without reflecting on their teaching on a wider social, political and ideological level (Kumaravadivelu, 2012; Shohamy, 2006).

There are also special cases where teachers may critically reflect on language ideologies. But most such reflections do not lead to actions. The prime example is teachers' attitudes towards ELF and Standard English. As the data from Jenkins' empirical research on attitudes towards ELF (2007) suggests, although Standard English is required to be taught by language education policy, some teacher participants still favour ELF. Such research is also supported by Galloway (2013) who has conducted research in a Japanese context and Wang (2015) who has worked in a Chinese context. But their researches also suggest that participants accept

ELF theoretically but reject it in teaching practice. In other words, although teacher participants perceive ELF as much more appropriate for their language use, few of them would like to teach English from a global Englishes perspective.

Galloway and Rose (2015) identify several factors that affect teachers' language attitudes. For example, the societies' standard language ideology regarding the language speakers' first language may affect their attitudes towards English. In addition, stereotypes, which are formed through the authorities' use of language, may also cause inequalities among languages. In addition, familiarity may also influence language attitudes. However, among all of these factors, political factors, such as the assessment system, are considered as the most influential (Jenkins, 2007; 2015). Those empirical data collected by Jenkins (2007, 2015) and Galloway (2013) suggests that before their teaching actions, teachers evaluate the consequences of including ELF in their teaching where the NS norms dominate and constrain the current testing system. They consider that if they bring ELF in, their performance and their students' performance will run into problems under the testing system. Thus, bringing ELF into their teaching is not usually considered possible although they personally would like to.

Although some positive language attitudes toward ELF cannot be completely transformed into actions due to the unequal powers between teachers and political authority, there are also certain negative attitudes towards implementing language policy and some passive teaching behaviour in teaching practice (Canagarajah, 1999; Garrett, 2010; Shohamy, 2006).

Canagarajah calls such behaviours 'bottom-up resistance' which can be explained as 'how there are sufficient contradictions within institutions to help subjects gain agency, conduct critical thinking and initial change' (1999, p.22). The negative attitude towards implementing language policy is an implicit way for teachers to express their resistance to top-down ideology and will definitely 'have the potential to alter classroom aims and activities in ways unintended and unexpected by policy planners or curriculum designers or textbook producers' (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p.174).

3.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have examined language policy and practice in educational settings from a global Englishes perspective by addressing language ideology and policy in general, language

policy mechanisms, language policy agency and language learning and teaching in classroom teaching practice.

Curriculum is examined as the first mechanism for the implementation of language policy in this thesis. From a global Englishes perspective, traditional curriculum is identified as ignoring the language learners' educational purposes in expanding circle countries by forcing them to take English NS as their target. Traditional curriculum is also challenged for not exposing students to global Englishes, for suppressing cultural diversity and excluding pragmatic strategies. There are also problems in the traditional curriculum evolution process because the crucial point of NS normativity is ignored. From a global Englishes perspective, Brown (2012) reminds us that before any other steps of evaluation, it is necessary to question whether the curriculum is native-based or not.

Besides curriculum, textbook, which forms the main teaching material in language classes, also contains embedded Standard English ideology. There are two ways that textbook is used to transmit Standard English ideology. One is through Standard English grammar learning and the other is through their cultural content. Through textbook learning, the power of the English NS model becomes stronger in a subtle way by emphasising correctness and standardisation during grammar learning. More importantly, the monoculture learning of English native speaking countries' culture may cause the marginalisation of other cultures and will make the learner disadvantaged in international communication with people from different cultural backgrounds.

Test is considered as 'a set of mechanisms which are used in subtle ways to manipulate language and create de facto language policies' (Shohamy, 2006, p.93). Jenkins and Leung directly point out that 'a fundamental problem with second language assessment is that the basis of its language modelling and norming has failed to keep in touch with contemporary developments in English' (Jenkins and Leung, 2014, p.1616). Scholars suggest that language test not only need to use multiple language forms, e.g. ELF speakers' language form, as criteria for linguistic aspects, but also need to emphasise the pragmatic proficiency of communication (e.g. Canagarajah, 2007; Cumming, 2009; Elder and Harding, 2008; Jenkins, 2007; Lowenberg, 2002; McNamara, 2012).

After that, I focused on language learning and teaching in the classroom. From a global Englishes perspective, the traditional cognitive approach to SLA has been criticised for ignoring social factors in language learning and for taking NS normativity as the learning

target. Alternative approaches to SLA, which are compatible with global Englishes, have been discussed, such as a sociocultural approach. As for language teaching, traditional ELT has been challenged from both a postmethod perspective and a global Englishes perspective. The existence of ‘method’, the passive role of teachers, and language ideology and inequality has been criticised by post methods. From a global Englishes perspective, the premise of NS normativity has been questioned, more sensitivity to teaching context and targets has been emphasised, and multiple teaching targets, such as increasing intercultural awareness and the role of pragmatic resources, have been advocated in classroom teaching practice. Besides these factors, the agency of language policy has also been discussed. Teachers play an important role in language policy implementation. Their attitudes towards language can affect whether curriculum reform is successful or not. Many empirical researchers have identified that teachers’ attitudes towards global Englishes in communication are much more positive than it appears from classroom teaching (Galloway and Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2007).

Until now, Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 have generally discussed language policy and practice from global Englishes perspectives. Next chapter will focus on Chinese education context to see the situation of language, language policy and practice in China with literature reviews mainly on domestic scholars’ work.

Chapter 4 Language policy and practice in the Chinese context

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will offer a general picture on language policy and practice in the Chinese context. It will begin with a discussion on how English is used and perceived in China. This will be followed by a briefly explanation of the development of English language policy. Finally, researches on language policy and practice from different aspects, such as curriculum statement, textbook, test and teaching practice in the classroom, will be discussed.

4.2 English used in China

In the 17th century, English was introduced to the coastal cities in China (Bolton, 2003). Since then, English as a foreign language has been learned and taught from both cultural and linguistic aspects (Hu, 2005a). After several centuries of development, the number of English language learners and users in China has increased to more than 300 million (Crystal, 2012). China, which is supposed to be a ‘norm-dependent’ country according to Kachru’s three-circle model, has been innovatively created English norms to meet local needs. English has been changed on phonological, lexical and syntactic levels through ‘a process of nativisation and acculturation’ in China (Cheng, 1992, p.169; Hu, 2005a; Jiang, 2002). The recognition of those new forms of English in China occurred in several stages, and included labelling these forms as: Chinglish, China English, and English as a lingua franca. In the following, I would like to introduce each stage to provide a general picture of how English is used and perceived in China.

4.2.1 Chinglish and China English

Chinglish as a term is accepted as a kind of misshaped English which is neither English nor Chinese. The mix of Chinese with English is considered to be the main cause for confusion in communication with English native speakers (Lin, 2001). Before the 2008 Olympics in Beijing, the Chinese government even launched a movement to reduce the use of Chinglish. Besides the term Chinglish, the development of English forms has other labels, such as Chinese English. Chinese English is a term which is usually used by scholars to refer to the new English variety in China. For example, *Chinese Englishes: A Sociolinguistic History* (Bolton, 2003); *Chinese English: Features and Implication* (Xu, 2010).

China English is an alternative term for Chinese English which also refers to a new variety of English in China and is much more frequently used by scholars (He & David, 2009; Hu, 2004; Hu, 2005; Jiang, 2002; Jiang, 2005; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; etc.). China English is first proposed by Ge (1980). However, it did not gain recognition until twenty years later. China English is defined as a ‘developing variety of English, which is subject to ongoing codification and normalization processes. It is based largely on the two major varieties of English, namely British and American English. It is characterized by the transfer of Chinese linguistic and a cultural norm at varying levels of language, and it is used primarily by Chinese for intra- and international communication’ (Xu, 2010: 1).

Arguing for the legitimation of China English, many scholars try to codify China English by identifying its linguistic features at the level of phonology, syntax and discourse (Jiang 2005; Jiang, 2002; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002: 270-271; Xu, 2010;). For example, at a phonological level, Chinese users are identified as having a tendency to insert an extra vowel at the end of the final plosives (Deterding, 2006); because there is no final plosive in Standard Chinese (Duanmu, 2002). Another feature of the Chinese user’s English is the lack of reduced vowels (Deterding, 2006). In addition, research has also identified that one of the most difficult fricatives for Chinese learners is the fricative /θ/. Chinese students tend to substitute the sound / θ/ with /s/ or /t/ (Deterding, 2006).

However, there are many problems with those codifications. First, the validity and reliability of those codifications is questionable. The above linguistic features are merely one part of the general linguistic features of English used in China. China is a huge country where dialects differ from region to region, and the English used by people from different linguacultural backgrounds would certainly be influenced by their dialects. For example, people from a southern province like Sichuan cannot distinguish /l/ and /n/ in Pinyin (a Chinese alphabetic system), which results in the ambiguous pronunciation of /l/ and /n/ in English. More importantly, comparing the researches of Chinese scholars and the empirical researches of NNS participants and corpus analysis of ELF researchers (Cogo & Dewey, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2004), demonstrates that most of the variations in China English, especially on a phonological level, are similar to other NNS’ English. English used in China is not a variety of English which has systematic and unique language features, but instead it shares many language variations with other NNS contexts. For example, the addition of an extra vowel and reduced vowels, like schwa, happens a lot in Chinese students’ pronunciation (Deterding, 2006). Besides, Chinese students tend to substitute the sound / θ/ with /s/ or /t/. Similar

findings can be found in Jenkins' empirical research on phonology (2000), which involves participants from different linguistic backgrounds.

Although many scholars have attempted to identify the linguistic features of China English, for other scholars, it is too early to address the codification of China English. As Chen and Hu (2006) suggest, before the codification of China English, 'steps of diffusion', that is, investigations of 'an awareness of the innovation, favourable attitudes' (p.232) are needed. The importance of investigating peoples' language awareness and attitudes toward China English has been recognised by many researchers. Much empirical research has been conducted and most suggests that there is not a strong awareness of the existence of China English (Chen and Hu, 2006; Hu, 2004; Hu, 2005; Kirkpatrick and Xu, 2002).

For example, in 2004 and 2005, Hu (2004; 2005) ask 1251 college students and 589 college teachers about China English through interviews and questionnaires. When asked whether they had heard of China English, only 15.5 per cent people had heard of this term. Surveys conducted by Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002) do not show better results. They give a questionnaire with several notions about English variety to 171 university students in Beijing. The results show that 78 people disagreed that one day there will be a variety of English called Chinese English while 48 people had the opposite opinion. The notion that 'when I speak English, I want people to know I'm from China' is rejected by 104 people while only 30 people agreed with the statement. From these findings, it is easy to see that people do not have much awareness of the Chinese variety of English and there is not a favourable attitude towards China English. Therefore, the immature development of codification of China English is not surprising.

Kirkpatrick and Xu's (2002) findings on Chinese students' language attitudes and awareness does not change too much in the next seven years. In 2009, He and Li (2009) conduct empirical research with questionnaires, a matched-guise technique and interviews as the research instruments to investigate teachers' and students' language attitudes to NS-based models and China English at four different mainland Chinese universities. The resulting data show that the NS-based model of English learning and teaching is still favoured by participants. However, according to He and Li, there are also some surprising findings, that is, 'while participants tend to favor a NS-based model of English as the pedagogic model, many feel that linguistic features of 'China English' (including accent) cannot be avoided in the English-learning process and, as such, ought to be seen as a legitimate part of the local

English curriculum' (2009, p.85). Without collecting more data to prove the existence of China English, He and Li surprisingly claim it as an indication of 'shifting toward accepting 'China English' as a legitimate, indigenised variety' and suggest a recognition of the legitimacy of 'China English' and a NS-based pedagogic model with local China English linguistic features being introduced (ibid.).

From the above literature review we can see that scholars are trying their best to argue for the legitimization of China English, although most of the data suggests that there is no such thing as China English (e.g. there are no unique linguistic features, and there is little awareness of the language).

4.2.2 English functioning as a lingua franca in China

As discussed above, there are two interpretations of English variations in China. Chinglish is regarded as an interlanguage with Chinese language interfering with L2 learning; while China English, which claims to fight for the right of English speakers in China, is classified as a WE paradigm. It is argued that neither of the groups recognise the social reality of globalization or the social linguistic reality of English as a lingua franca in China.

English in China is not for intranational communication but functions as a global language for communication in ELF contexts around the world. Since the start of the 21st century, China has been involved in and hosted more international events which has resulted in the spread of English to a much wider section of Chinese Society. For example, the government of Beijing launched a campaign named 'Beijing Speaks English' for the 2008 Olympic Games which involved more than 4 million people learning and using English in the city (Jiang, 2003; Yun and Jia, 2003). Shanghai did the same for the 2001 Shanghai APEC meeting by taking English as a working language, and this was also the case for the 2010 World Fairs. People from all walks of life are encouraged to learn English and use English. Books like English for policemen, English for citizens and Taxi Drivers' English can be easily found in bookstores.

Besides those governmental needs, the personal demand for English is increasing (Jiang, 2003). An increasing number of Chinese people go abroad or communicate with foreigners for various purposes, such as business, travel and study. Such a two-way flow increases the use of English as a lingua franca by Chinese speakers in international settings. In these

contexts, British and American speakers are not necessarily the communication partners of Chinese speakers. Rather, Chinese speakers of English are more likely to use English to communicate with other NNEs as a result of expanding international communication (Wang, 2015).

Recognising the background of English as a lingua franca in China, more and more researchers have begun to conduct ELF researches related to the Chinese context (e.g. Wang, 2013; Wen, 2012; Zheng, 2013). For example, with perspectives from Chinese English users, Wang (2013) discussed non-conformity to ENL (English as native language) norms.

The ELF users' non-conformity to ENL norms, according to Wang (2013), indicates a 'shift of focus from the formal approximation to ENL to the function of NNEs' Englishes in their own right in response to the changing context of the global use of English' (p.259). In terms of ELF speakers or potential ELF speakers in China, the data from questionnaires and interviews which is collected from 502 Chinese university students and 267 Chinese professionals shows that their attitudes towards non-conformity to ENL norms are slightly positive. Also, the conflicts and struggles among English users in China can be easily identified. The data suggests that those participants can acknowledge 'functions of non-conformity in terms of communicative efficiency and cultural identity projection'; but at the same time, they are very 'cautious in supporting the use of English that does not conform to ENL norms' (p.278). In this empirical research, Wang (2013) also identifies three possible factors to explain why participants are quite 'cautious' in their supporting of non-conformity to ENL norms, that is, 'the belief in the ENL as the essence of English, the desire for fixed norms, and the aspiration for the perceived social advantage of ENL' (p. 276).

Another empirical study is Zheng Yongyan's (2013) inquiry into Chinese learners' English-learning motivational self-images in which she questions whether those self-images are ENL learner or ELF users. The theoretical framework for Zheng's research is Dornyei's L2 learning motivation system which includes the Ideal L2 Self, the Ought-to L2 self and learning experience. According to Dornyei (2009), the Ideal L2 self refers to how one wishes him/herself to be; while the Ought-to L2 Self refers to what one believes him/herself ought to be in terms of external pressures. Through interviews with 8 university students, Zheng (2013) identifies that the participants' Ideal and ought-to L2 Self-images are both based on native-speaker norms. The construction of such Self-images is closely related their learning environment in which 'the influence of the deeply ingrained native-speaker model' is found

in the ELT classroom along with ‘the global spread of (native) English cultural products’ (p. 341). The research also reveals that, since the achievement of the English NS-centred Ideal and ought-to L2 Self-image is unrealistic and unattainable, participants feel frustrated and the ‘motivational power to foster continued English failed to generate’ (p. 341). To sustain a long-term language learning motivation, Zheng suggests re-evaluating the dominant NS norms in ELT and shifting the learners’ motivational image from ENL learners to ELF users by raising learners’ awareness of ELF and by creating an ELF-using experience in class.

Although there are doctoral theses investigating ELF in a Chinese context, such as Ying Wang’s (2012) research on Chinese speakers’ perceptions of their English in intercultural communication’, Lanxi Hu’s (2015) exploration of ‘Influences on and Orientations towards English Medium Instruction in Chinese Higher Education’, and Fang Fan’s (2015) phonological research from an ELF perspective, the number of ELF-oriented researches in China is still very limited. More importantly, few existing researches have investigated ELF at high school level. This is why this research on language policy and practice from global Englishes perspective at high school level is undertaken.

4.3 Language education policy development in China

China is an expanding circle country with the largest English learning population (more than 300 million) in the Expanding Circle (Crystal, 2012). As Adamson (2004) has summarized: ‘at present, the role and status of English in China is higher than ever in history as evidenced by its position as a key subject in the curriculum, with its growing use as a medium of instruction as many schools adopt a bilingual approach to education; and as a crucial determinant for university entrance and procuring well-paid jobs in the commercial sector’ (p.1995). In the following part of this thesis, I would like first to introduce the development of English education policy in China briefly and then to present some key researches on English education policy in literature.

In 1956, China issued her first English syllabus for senior secondary schools via the Ministry of Education (henceforth, MOE) in which the teaching method was grammar-translation which is heavily affected by I. A. Kairov’s Russian teaching model. English language classes were required to be taught for three hours per week (Hu, 2002a). In 1963, the MOE issued a new draft which was adapted to include new ideas from the West and Japan, and which was

more scientific and systematic than before (Hu,2002a,b; Huang, 2003; Huang, 2004; Guo, 2004; Wang, 2010; Wu, 2009; Yi, 2010; Yin, 2009;). For example, it was the first time that China officially announced that English was ‘an important tool for developing cultural and scientific knowledge, engaging in international interaction, facilitating cultural exchange, and fostering understanding between peoples of different countries’ (MOE, 1963,p.1). No syllabi were issued until the end of the Cultural Revolution.

In 1978, the MOE developed a tentative syllabus for basic education and revised it four years later in 1982. The major aims of ELT in this period were to allow students to master basic knowledge and basic skills. English was considered as a weapon for ‘international struggle’ and ‘revolutionary diplomacy’ (MOE, 1978). But, at the same time, these syllabi reflected the purpose of English learning for economic development, such as the ‘Four Modernizations’ program. In order to prepare more personnel for economic development, the 1988 syllabus added functional and notional items to the language teaching. However, the requirements of these two were criticized for being too high for teaching and learning.

The low level of English proficiency drove the production of new syllabi in 1992 and 1993, which were focused on quality education for junior and senior high schools. The new syllabi took communicative teaching as the top priority (Hu, 2002a; Huang, 2003; Huang, 2004; Guo, 2004; Wang, 2010; Wu, 2009; Yi, 2010; Yin, 2009). For example, teachers were required to reduce lecturing time and increase opportunities for students to talk. Students were required to have the ability to transfer their basic skills into real-life practical communication.

To meet the challenges of the 21st century, English was given increased importance in schools. In 2001, the MOE issued guidelines named the ‘Fundamentals of curriculum reform in basic education’; English language learning was announced as a part of citizenship education. English was required to be learned nation-wide. It was also the first time that official documents replaced syllabi in the curriculum. As for English language education in school, the overall goal of the new EFL curriculum (revised version) was to ‘develop students’ comprehensive language competence on the basis of their language skills, language knowledge, cultural understanding, learning strategies, and emotions and attitudes’ (MOE, 2011). The new curriculum, which was also called National English Curriculum Standards (NEC), took Communicative Language Teaching as a top priority. Teachers’ lecturing time was not allowed to exceed 30% of the whole class time and as well as language linguistic teaching, teachers were required to develop students’ ability to learn autonomously and to

develop cognitive skills like creativity. NEC is the language education policy which I am going to analyse in the following chapters of this thesis. The specific extra-linguistic goals of ELT are listed as follows:

- *Promoting quality education and cultivating creativity and practical competence in students through implementing the policy of all-round development and education for modernization, the world, and the future;*
- *Instilling in students a respect for meritorious cultural traditions of other nations and an understanding of, as well as love for, the Chinese culture;*
- *Developing students' ability to think independently and actively, expanding their cultural and scientific knowledge, enriching their cultural experience, refining their ideology and morality, and preparing them for the needs of China's social, economic and scientific development; and*
- *Creating conditions for full individual development and laying a good foundation for lifelong learning.*

Quoted from Hu (2002a), pp. 26-27

NEC has made more progress than previous syllabi in China (Hu, 2002a). For example, it gradually shifted from traditional teaching methods to advanced and new teaching methods, such as Communicative Language Teaching and Task-based Teaching. More importantly, in order to allow for innovation in classroom practice, the syllabus offers recommendations based on general guide lines rather than detailed prescriptions. Teaching objectives are more detailed and clearer. Meantime, the requirement for language input is higher.

4.4 Researches on English language policy and practice in China

4.4.1 On language policy statements

There are many studies on language planning and policy for foreign language teaching which can be classified into two categories: (1) purely describing the development of language policy; (2) relating language policy to practice. In terms of the first group, scholars who focus on describing the development of language policy rarely bring their personal opinions or self-

reflection to their work but objectively record what actually happened at what time. The description of language policy includes the development of syllabi, curriculum reform and textbook editions.

For example, Yi (2010) conducts a study on English curriculum change in China's basic education system during thirty years of reform (1978-2008); Wang's research (2010) is a case study on thirty years of development of English textbook produced by the people's press for China's basic education system; Wu (2009) focuses on the study of contemporary freeform and the development of the high school English curriculum in China; while Chen (2006) reflects on language planning and language policy using the changes in China's high school English textbook in the previous twenty years as a basis. The content of these researches involve the influences of political or economic national policies on syllabus development, the role of English at each stage, and the progress of and issues with each syllabus. However, none of them interpreted LEP from a language ideology level. Questions like, what kind of English should be learned and why this English variety should be learned, are not raised in these studies.

Unlike the first group who conduct their researches without subjective opinions, the second group of researchers analyse language policy by relating it to teaching and learning practice. However most of the scholars in this research area still do not think critically about language power and right, and still take the NS as a model for their basic education researches. For example, Wang's (2007) research on language attitude and motivation focuses on how to effectively achieve the NS-like learning goal by improving learners' interest and motivation. Huang (2004), on the other hand, suggests more teaching activities and more content focused on Chinese culture and foreign culture; however, by foreign culture, he particularly refers to American culture. In the work by Luo (2012), globalization is interpreted as Americanisation. More importantly, it is obviously inappropriate for China to learn from American language policy since the education context and needs are very different. A comparative study can also be found in Cheng, et al. (2005), in which basic foreign education curriculum in China is compared with America, Singapore, South Korea, India, and Hong Kong. The book claims in its preface (2005, p.1) that it aims at expanding Chinese basic education to a more international horizon by learning from these countries. However, the countries listed (e.g. America, Singapore) cannot be said to represent 'international'.

Global Englishes awareness is excluded in most of the language policy researches except one: Gong and Holliday's (2013, 2015). Through empirical researches, Gong and Holliday (2013, 2015) identify that Chinese rural students do not fully understand the English NS-based culture in textbook and curriculum. Criticizing the dominant nativism in NEC, Gong and Holliday (2013, 2015) propose a multi-goal model for secondary school English curriculum. There are three goals for the new English curriculum, namely the communication goal, the social-cultural goal and the thinking and cognition goal. The communication goal is that students can express their inner world and identity and can communicate with people from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Thus, curriculum should focus on 'topics which concern human relationships, ways of thinking, and attitude towards life as well as the cultural realities of the local communities and schools' (Gong and Holliday, 2013). The social-cultural goal requires students to be able to 'take ownership, adopt, adapt, reject critique and find themselves in whatever cultural realities they encounter, taking their existing experiences and expanding them into new cultural territories' (ibid.). Thus, the social-cultural goal involves both pragmatic strategies and intercultural ability.

The cognition and thinking goal requires going 'beyond the language domain of functional and grammar knowledge learning to higher order of rational in the quality of students with different ways of thinking skills and creativity' (ibid.). From the above we can see that the underlying ideology of English native-speakerism in English teaching and curriculum in China has been challenged by Gong and Holliday. But, the challenge is limited to a cultural level (although Gong and Holliday claim that it involves the mental, physical and social well-being of the students, it is quite blurred in the article). Issues such as grammar, lexica, and pronunciation have not been discussed in the proposed curriculum. English instructional variety, English test, and classroom teaching method are also all absent in Gong and Holliday's new model for the English curriculum.

4.4.2 on textbook

In the Chinese context, English textbook is the main source of English for students and play a crucial role in ELT. Between the 1980s and the mid-1990s, the central government empowered groups at provincial level to produce textbook. English textbook is mainly edited by Chinese groups, such as the People's Education Press, Beijing Normal University Press,

and the Southeast Normal University Press. An eclectic approach with an emphasis on communicative language teaching (CLT) is adopted in textbook, in which four linguistic skills are taken as the main learning targets (Adamson, 2001). From the mid-1990s to the present, more Chinese presses have tried to produce textbook with cooperation from presses abroad. For example, in 1996, Shanghai education commission and Oxford University Press co-produced a series of English textbook by reconceptualising ‘communicative competence as comprising four essential dimensions: cognitive skills, linguistic knowledge, personal experience, and interpersonal communication strategies’ (Hu, 2002c, p.41).

Reviewing secondary English textbook, Adamson and Kwo (2002) identify two problems. One is that textbook is embedded with political ideologies. Adamson and Kwo (2002) point out that the construction of English textbook in China is for the service of political and economic development in China. The other problem is that British or American English are taken as linguistic norms and cultural topics in textbook, while Chinese English and China’s various local cultures are not included. Adamson and Kwo’s (2002) research point is supported by Gong Yafu (2011), a researcher from the National Institute of Education Sciences in China.

From an intercultural perspective, Gong (2011, 2013 with Holliday) questions the ideology of nativism in the communicative language teaching method and cultural content in Chinese school textbook and in the NEC. He questions the so-called ‘authenticity’ of the NS model in a Chinese context. Through a three-year case study in ten provinces in China which involves secondary level education in big cities, small towns and rural areas, three major problems are identified in textbook by Gong (2011). The first problem is that it is difficult for students in rural areas to understand the cultures of English speaking countries presented in Chinese authorised textbooks since those English NS-based topics are so alien to their daily life. The second problem is that textbook ignores students’ inner world which are the most important world that they want to express. By inner world, Gong (2011) refers to their personal world, which relates to ideas, feelings and life. The third major problem is the influence of the NS in the textbook on students’ mental development and value judgements. Gong (2011) states that the image of English culture in the textbook simplifies the actual English culture; the dominance of English NS culture in textbook creates an image of Chinese culture as deficient. Thus, Gong (2011) suggests that students need more culturally authentic materials.

Gong's (2011) research is much more critically oriented since it points out the problem of the NS model in textbook. However, Gong does not suggest how to solve the problem. On one hand he advocates the use of 'authentic' materials; but on the other hand he does not give an explanation of what 'authentic' means. Besides, in Gong's proposal, local cultures and humans' inner worlds are emphasised; while the widely global context seems to be ignored. In this way, there is much room for improvement in future researches.

4.4.3 On English test

Compared to the two-thousand years of testing history in China, the development of English test which have occurred over the last few decades in China is much shorter. But the billions of people who take English test make it equally or even more important than other test in China. There are various important English test in China, such as College English Tests, National Matriculation English Tests, Test for English Majors, the Graduate School Entrance English Examination, The public English Testing System, all of which are research interests for Chinese scholars (Cheng, 2008; Cheng and Gao, 2002; He and Dai 2006; Qi, 2005; Zhou, 2004). Since this research is about language policy and teaching practice at high school level, in the following I would like to introduce researches on high school level English tests.

Considering the large number of test takers, many English tests adopt multiple-choice questions 'in order to save time and manpower that would otherwise be involved in grading the test papers' (Cheng, 2008, p. 21). Thus, 'multiple-choice' questions have been widely discussed in terms of test validity. For example, with 30 student participants completed a test with 60 multiple-choice questions and another test with 60 true-false questions in three groups, Wang (1996) identifies that the true-false questions are 1.18 times more efficient than the multiple-choice questions; but in terms of reliability and discrimination, the latter discriminate more. Using these research findings, Wang draws the conclusion that true-false questions are more suitable for classroom assessment and multiple-choice questions are more suitable for large-scale tests.

Many researches have also been conducted on oral test. For example, Li and Wang (2000) have discussed the feasibility of testing English orally on a large scale in the National Matriculation English Test (NMET). In China, it is not compulsory to test English orally in the NMET but there is an optional test for test takers who would like to apply to key foreign

language universities or to study English majors. Based on their data, Li and Wang (2000) point out that the large number of test takers and the limited human resources make the oral English test much more difficult to conduct on a mass scale. But there are also benefits of testing speaking nationwide as long as a balance is maintained ‘between control and spontaneity in the required spoken output, a union of the analytical and the holistic approach to rating, and a combination of the single—examiner method in test administration and a double-marking method for scoring’ (in Cheng, 2008, p. 23).

The wash back of language testing has also been investigated. From 2003 and 2005, through interviews and questionnaires involving NMET constructors, English inspectors, 986 students and 388 teachers, Qi conducts longitude research to find out whether NMET has a significant influence on ELT practice. The most important reason for the wash back on ELT is the selection function of the NMET which leads to teachers teaching and students learning for examinations instead of for communicative purposes.

In summary, researches on English test have questioned the validity of the test format, the feasibility of oral English test on a mass scale and the wash back of language testing. Those researches certainly contribute to test development in China, however, some crucial points are absent in these works. The most important one is that the NS normativity has not been questioned (see section 3.3.3) and also the linguistic-based measurement of the test is taken for granted. More importantly, the wash back on such test on teachers and learners’ language attitude has not been considered. In short, those researches lack an awareness of global Englishes and critical reflection on Standard English ideology and power (see section 3.3.3).

4.4.4 On language teaching practice

4.4.4.1 On communicative language teaching (CLT)

4.4.4.1.1 CLT in practice

In this section, I will provide an overall picture of CLT in China in which the development of CLT, the misunderstandings of CLT and the implementations of CLT will be discussed, followed by a debate on whether CLT is suitable for Chinese context in next section. CLT has been first introduced to China in late 1970s as one of the byproduct of the reform and

opening up policy in China. In official documents, such as national education policy, or national curriculum, CLT, as a teaching approach, has always been the priority compared to other language teaching methods all these years. For example, in recent national English curriculum (NEC), CLT is again advocated in ELT to improve students' English proficiency including writing, reading and especially speaking and listening (MOE, 2001, 2011). But in ELT practice, teachers and learners gradually lose their interest in CLT. At first, it receives enormous popularity in Chinese ELT context since Chinese people were eager to get rid of the mute-English speaker image and thought CLT is the best effective approach to improve students' oral English in communication. However, the trend of using CLT calms down in the late 1980s and 1990s when people found CLT is not as almighty as it claims and that the teaching issues still remained. In the beginning of 21st century, many more voices turn up to question whether CLT is suitable for English teaching in the Chinese context.

There are misunderstandings of CLT among teachers. For many teachers, CLT is a teaching approach that totally focuses on language fluency and ignores language accuracy. For example, based on her own teaching experience, Zhu (2013) states that CLT cannot guarantee grammar teaching in a systematic way when the function of language is emphasized in class. Students in her class can barely convey information coherently or make speeches fluently after an English class period with CLT. Zhu (2013) blames CLT claiming it improves nothing but weakens their students' grammatical accuracy in reading and writing. Many English native speaker teachers who are not familiar with students' learning habits in Ouyang's university (2015) are constantly questioned and critiqued for their 'non-focus' 'non-textbook' 'non-hard knowledge' teaching. To students, they are more likely to come to class without any preparation. In fact, many university and schools now hire English native speakers to teach English for their 'authentic' English and for their 'authentic method', but most of those teachers are asked to teach non-core courses (the courses that are not important in language test), such as English culture, or oral class (Ouyang, 2015).

Some teachers have attempted to use CLT in their class but many problems occur during their language teaching process. For example, in Ouyang's class (2015), he finds the focus on oral English practicing makes his students very uncomfortable. For students who have low proficiency of oral English, they feel they are forced to speak up and thus are humiliated in front of their classmates; while for students who can speak fluent English, they are reluctant to speak out too since they do not want to show off in front of their classmates who are also their friends. Ouyang (2015) then concludes that the failure of CLT in his class is due to the

collectivism of Chinese culture where no one want to be special while CLT advocates individualism where students are encouraged to perform themselves. A similar problem is also found in the Management of teaching and researching where teachers are organized to share their teaching idea and do research together. In Chinese education system, there is always a Management of teaching and researching for every level. The director of the Management usually is the senior teacher who has many years' teaching experience. Liu (2014) finds that the director and other senior teachers who uses to traditional grammar teaching have great influence on the selection of teaching methods and contents; while young teachers who favour new teaching method, such CLT, have very limited freedom in their teaching class. The power issues make another obstacle for the implement of CLT.

In general, except some private international schools, it is very hard to find traits of CLT in normal English class in China. CLT is adopted mainly in demonstration class or teaching competition (e.g. Peng and Zhou, 2007; Zeng and Cao, 2009;). The demonstration class is prepared for inspectors to observe. The evaluation of those inspectors who may come from local or national education department in government may affect the rank of the English teaching of the school. Teaching competition happens in different scope, such as teaching competition within school, in town, or nation wide. Judges are experts in ELT field. Teachers behave quite differently in their daily teaching class and in their demonstration class or teaching competition class where the first type class focus on intensive grammar explanation and the latter spend more time on interaction and communication. Ouyang (2015) defines such a phenomena as 'teaching show' where teachers are 'actors'. The reason behind the different teaching performance lies in the discrepancy between teaching evaluation criteria from inspectors or judges who include CLT as the essential teaching method in classroom according to the requirement of official document, and from teachers who take grammar and translation method in daily teaching to meet the standards of language tests (e.g. Peng and Zhou, 2007; Shen, 2015; Xiang, 2015). Except the above evaluation criteria for practice, more factors which have been explored for the debate whether CLT is suitable or not for Chinese context will be given in next section.

4.4.4.1.2 Researches on CLT

As discussed in last section, CLT has been introduced in 1970s in China. In the recent issued curriculum, CLT is again recommended to improve students' English communicative ability (communicative language teaching) (MOE, 2001, 2011). However, many years passed, the NEC is still blamed for students' low proficiency in English. Thus, the teaching methods that the NEC has advocated has been questioned. One of the most famous debates on method is between Liao (2004) and Hu (2005b). According to Liao, there are at least three advantages to importing CLT to China. First, it helps teachers to keep up with international teaching methods theory since CLT is the most popular and advanced teaching method around the world. Second, it keeps teachers from the danger of using traditional teaching methods which merely focus on grammar and vocabulary. Last, it helps students to avoid being 'communicatively incompetent' and to be competent in communication. However, Liao's (2004) claim for needing CLT in China has been criticized as 'an untenable absolutist claim' by Hu (2005b, p.65). Hu (2005b) points out that Liao fails to acknowledge the diverse contexts of China in ELT practice.

According to Hu (2002, 2003, 2005a,c), factors such as regional differences, especially economic development differences among regions, make a significant contribution to the diverse ELT context. Since the 1990s, the decentralization education policy has empowered local government in terms of administration, English material development and even the design of assessments. But the differences in regional economic development, caused by the 1980s preferential policies for coastal regions and some large cities, widened the gap in quality of education between coastal regions, inland regions and remote rural areas. With powerful financial backing, coastal regions and large cities have great advantages in terms of infrastructural resources, such as teaching facilities and equipment, quality and quantity of teachers, teaching materials and so on. But in inland regions, infrastructural resources are less adequate. Classrooms and resources such as teachers and teaching materials in inland areas are not as good as those in coastal regions. In remote rural areas, the situation is even worse.

Even teacher resources are inadequate in some areas. A large number of English teachers in inland and rural regions 'lack the necessary subject knowledge, communicative competence in English, and professional skills to adopt a more communicative language teaching approach to ELT. In the developed coastal regions, syllabi are developed by focusing on 'communicative competence, stress an integrated development of language skills, advocate

some form of task-based instruction, and promote learner autonomy' (Hu, 2003, p.310); while syllabi in less developed areas are 'more cautious and less innovative' 'in order to maintain some continuity from the previous syllabuses and ensure the feasibility of the new syllabuses' (ibid.). The gap became even wider from 2001 when English is required to be learned from primary school all over the country but larger cities in coastal areas began the experiment of content-based English instruction. The uneven level of proficiency of students in different areas demonstrates that any universal method cannot be successful in such a diverse context.

Besides the regional differences, Hu also points out the contradictory nature of CLT and the traditional Chinese culture of learning through pedagogical practices (Hu, 2003, p.306). According to Hu (2002, 2003, 2005a,b), the most striking feature of traditional Chinese culture is 'the conceptualisation of education more as a process of knowledge accumulation than as a practical process of knowledge construction and use' (Hu, 2003, p.306). Thus, language teaching in China is a mimetic one in which the teacher is considered as the authority. Learning strategies, such as 'high receptiveness to teacher-transmitted knowledge, intense repetition of what is difficult or not understood, constant review of old knowledge to gain new knowledge and deeper understanding, accurate reproduction of learned knowledge, meticulous attention to fine details of knowledge, memorisation, and mental rather than verbal activeness', are fostered (Hu, 2003, p.306). This traditional Chinese culture of learning is exactly opposite to CLT in which teachers are considered as co-communicators, organisers, or facilitators and students are negotiators, communicators and contributors to classroom learning. This traditional Chinese culture has less influence on students in coastal regions where there are more opportunities to communicate with foreigners. Thus the students in coastal cities are more active and find it easier to accept new ideas while students in other regions are more passive (Hu, 2003).

Thus, there are barriers to the implementation of CLT all over the country, and the barriers are greater in inland and rural areas. Thus, Hu (2005c) suggests that CLT should be replaced by an ecological approach in Chinese contexts for ELT. According to Hu, an ecological perspective on ELT can 'recognize the multifaceted interaction between the language classroom and the particular political, economic, social, cultural, historical, educational, and institutional context in which it is suited' and 'precludes a priori specification of a specific set, or even several sets, of instructional practices to be adopted for teaching English in China or in a particular part of the country' (2005c, p.654-655). Thus, as we can see, Hu reflects

sensitively on social cultural context as McKay and Bokhorst-Heng (2008) mention and is also in accordance with the parameter of particularity in Postmethod pedagogy that Kumaravdivelu (2006) proposed. But the reflection is so focused on the regional differences that it overlooks the English NS-based nature of CLT. In a short, ideologies, like Standard English in CLT are not discussed.

Sun and Cheng (2000) have also been sensitive to contextual issues when discussing CLT. However, their perspective is from a WE paradigm as they point out that CLT is designed for ESL countries rather than EFL countries. Sun and Cheng (2000) state that CLT methodology ‘emphasizes authentic language input, real-life language practice, and creative generation of language output, is highly dependent on the situational context’ and requires ‘both a language setting to provide authentic input of language use and opportunity for the students to use the language in a realistic way’ (p.68). When it is transferred to EFL countries, the differences between ESL and EFL are overlooked. EFL countries, like China, cannot provide the so-called ‘authentic’ opportunity for every student to learn and use language. The authentic language input of CLT is not authentic in the EFL context. More importantly, the inconsistency between the CLT method which aims at improving communicative competence and assessment which focuses on linguistic knowledge tests in EFL countries is ignored during the importing of CLT from ESL countries. From above we can see that Hu, Sun and Cheng (2000) interpret CLT from a WE paradigm. But the WE awareness they have still does not move beyond an English NS-centred model.

Unlike the above scholars who explain why CLT is unsuitable for China from a macro diverse context perspective, Li and Baldauf (2011) reveal the reason for the lack of success of CLT in China from teachers’ and learners’ perspectives. Based on interview data, Li and Baldauf (2011) list four reasons that teachers reject or negatively implement CLT. The first reason is that it is difficult to organise large classes, which normally range from 40 to 80 students. The second reason is that teachers are already over-loaded and ‘have no time to design tasks or classroom activities for training students’ communicative competence in English language’ (Li and Baldauf, 2011, P.800). Besides these reasons, teachers do not have the language communicative competence or the ability to design such communicative tasks. More importantly, though curriculum requires teachers to use the CLT method, assessments, especially high-stake assessments, are still grammar-oriented. For students, the reasons for resisting CLT are on one hand that high marks are the priority for them and on the other hand with traditional language learning habits, they felt lost in the new method in which learners

are central to the language learning and teaching processes. From above we can see that CLT has failed the parameter of practicality since it is quite impractical for teachers in their teaching life and contexts. The difference between what teachers and learners need and what CLT provides causes teachers and learners to resist it. This resistance is what Canagarajah (1999) calls a resistant approach from bottom up, though the reproductions, like Standard English ideology or expert theory, are not consciously noticed by teachers or learners. This resistance changes the implementation of CLT and LEP which also alters the parameter of possibility in postmethod pedagogy where resistance brings with it the possibility of change in practice (Kumaravadivelu, 2012).

From the above we can see that scholars (Hu, 2002c, 2003, 2005; Sun and Cheng, 2000; Li and Baldauf, 2011) emphasise sensitivity to context in selecting teaching methods, which is in accordance with the parameter of particularity in postmethod, although they do not directly refer to that. The direct reference of ELT in China to postmethod can be found in Li (2004). Li (ibid.) points out that for many years, Chinese scholars and teachers have struggled to compare different methods, importing the best methods, or building a method and hoping that there is an effective and useful method that can be universally applied. The blind following of the so-called ‘most popular’ or ‘most effective’ methods can make the teaching even worse.

Thus, Li (ibid.) claims that critical reflection should be advocated and postmethod pedagogy should be taken into consideration. With postmethod pedagogy, first, Li (ibid.) suggests, we should take a dialectical stance on traditional teaching methods. The rote strategies that most Chinese students prefer are not all bad. Their positive aspects should be used. Second, before adapting any advanced or modern teaching methods, learners should be the primary factors that are taken into consideration. Students learning motivation, beliefs, learning strategies, attitudes and other factors should be researched first. Third, in the teaching practice, the importance of teachers should be acknowledged. Teachers should have the ability to reflect and should be given autonomy and allowed to be creative. Li’s (ibid.) suggestion of a postmethod pedagogy for China contributes a lot to breaking the blind worship of western methodology and emphasizes the importance of being sensitive to local contexts. But critical reflection, one of the most important features of postmethod pedagogy, is overlooked by Li (ibid.). For example, Standard English ideology and cultural issues in textbook are not addressed by Li (ibid.).

To sum up, the ELT contexts in China are quite diverse. There are regional differences

among the coastal, inland and remote rural areas of China. There are deep influences of traditional Chinese culture on learning and teaching. The current education system and evaluation methods, which are not in accordance with the spirit of CLT, enhance the resistance of learners and teachers towards new teaching methods. More and more Chinese researchers are realizing that language teaching should be sensitive to local contexts and local purposes. The blind worship should be replaced by context-sensitivity, but few of them recognize the role of ELF in English teaching. The gap here is one of the important factors that motivates this research.

4.4.4.2 English language teaching from a global Englishes perspective

Having criticized CLT for its native-speakerism and subject-orientation, Gong (2011) proposes an alternative method for the adaptation of CLT in China. Questioning the authenticity of language and language tasks from cultural perspectives, Gong (ibid.) revealed the influences that native-speakerism has on many aspects of English pedagogy. Gong (ibid.) points out that the authenticity that CLT pursues is appropriate for English-speaking countries but it becomes inauthentic when it is imported to China. The language used in activities and tasks in CLT is normally relevant to daily life and the culture of English-speaking countries. But this authenticity is quite irrelevant to Chinese learners' life and culture which bring lots of negative influences. For example, learners' learning interest and motivation will be reduced; learners' inner worlds, like their beliefs and attitudes, are ignored. More importantly, learners' sense of identity and their local cultures will be undermined. English native-speakerism thus gives students have the impression that English-speaking culture is superior to their local cultures.

Thus, Gong (ibid.) suggests that CLT should be adapted instead of adopted. CLT in China should first avoid the influence of native-speakerism. Local cultures and students' inner worlds should be included in CLT. Intercultural awareness should be raised with which Chinese learners can acknowledge diversity and the differences between cultures. More importantly, pragmatic strategies should also be involved in CLT for Chinese learners to negotiate and shuttle between the different cultures. From the above we can see that Gong's (ibid.) proposal for an alternative interpretation of CLT has distance from its original sense. Rather, it is more ELF-oriented. But the only and also the most essential difference between

Gong's (ibid.) proposal and ELF approaches is that the former is limited to the cultural level. It avoids issues such as whose language forms should be learned or used, in the discussion.

Another scholar I would like to address is Wen Qiufang. In 2012a/b, Wen proposes a pedagogical model for the teaching of EIL and then in the same year, she defined a pedagogical model for an ELF-informed approach to English teaching with subtle modifications. The ELF-informed approach contains three parts. The first part is the interpretation of L2 in terms of linguistic, cultural and pragmatic aspects. Accordingly, language teaching and objectives are presented from these three aspects.

At linguistic level, native varieties, non-native varieties and localized features are provided to learners 'in different proportions according to their level of proficiency' (Wen, 2012a, p.86). Native varieties are provided to learners at beginner level to 'enhance mutual intelligibility among interlocutors in an international setting'; Non-native varieties are provided to students at intermediate level 'for the receptive purpose only'; localized features are offered to advanced learners. The objective at linguistic level is to achieve effective and successful communication.

At the cultural level, teaching content includes target language cultures, non-native cultures and learners' own cultures. According to Wen, the objective at this level is to cultivate the learner's 'sensitivity to cultural differences, tolerance of cultural differences, and flexibility in dealing with cultural differences' (Wen, 2012a). At the pragmatic level, three pragmatic rules need to be taught: universal communicative rules, target language communicative rules, and non-native communicative rules.

Thus, though the ELF-informed approach that Wen proposed broke the dictatorship of NS in ELT and provided alternative teaching content at linguistic, cultural and pragmatic level, it is not a real ELF-informed approach but WE oriented. Wen's ELF-informed pedagogy at linguistic level abandons NS norms as learning objectives and focuses on communication. But the division of native varieties, non-native varieties and local features are more appropriate for a WE paradigm rather than an ELF context (see section 2.3.1). Meanwhile, at the cultural level, the framework takes cultures from English speaking countries as target language cultures, which still shows a tendency to take the inner circle countries as a centre (see section 2.3.3). At pragmatic level, pragmatics in Wen's ELF-informed pedagogy are rules that have been predefined and fixed. These pragmatic rules are divided not according to

different situations or purposes, but are used but according to the different nations from which the interlocutors originate and are thus essentialist (see section 2.3.3).

From these studies we can see that although there are researches which have investigated English pedagogy from a global Englishes perspective and made large steps away from previous traditional research, there are still gaps. For example, Gong (2011) focuses his/her study on a cultural level without addressing other aspects of global Englishes, such as the pragmatic level or linguistic level; while Wen (2012) provides a proposal from a WE perspective instead of a global Englishes perspective. More importantly, Gong (2011) has completed an empirical work but failed to interpret a language curriculum statement and Wen (2012) offers a purely theoretical framework without data to support it. These gaps provide me with a direction for my research into high school English pedagogy from a global Englishes perspective where language policy statements, teaching practice and participants' perspectives all need to be investigated.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed researches on language policy and practice in the Chinese context. At the beginning of the chapter, English used in China was discussed. Between the 17th century and the 21st century, English which had been used as pidgin by a few people in coastal cities in China developed into a major foreign language with the learner/user number climbing to more than 300 million (Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002). English has been changed and adapted in many ways and is no longer the same as the language that was brought to China in the 17th century. Although most Chinese would like to label those Englishes which are different from NS English as 'Chinglish' to indicate the language deficiency, there are more and more scholars beginning to challenge the NS normativity by including Chinese Englishes into the WE paradigm and by recognising the function of ELF within the global Englishes paradigm.

However, unlike the passion felt for conducting conceptual researches into China English, researchers show less enthusiasm for investigating teaching practice from a global Englishes perspective. For example, in examining language policy statements, researches either focus on purely describing the development of language policy or attempt to relate language policy to practice without critical reflection, or consideration of political power and language

ideology. As for textbook researches, although the NSs normativity has been questioned (Adamson and Kwo, 2002; Gong, 2011), the alternative approach, such as the global Englishes perspective, has not been proposed. There are fewer researches on testing from a global Englishes perspective. Researches on English testing have questioned the validity of test formats, the feasibility of oral English test on a mass scale and the wash back of language test.

In teaching practice, most researches criticise communicative language teaching (CLT) for not being suitable for Chinese contexts due to regional differences, inadequate teacher resources and large class sizes (e.g. Hu, 2003; Sun and Cheng, 2000); while only a few researches investigate teaching practice from a global Englishes perspective, such as Gong (2011) and Wen (2012). Gong suggested that local cultures and students' inner worlds need to be emphasised in classrooms while teachers should be careful of native-speakerism. Gong's suggestion is more ELF-oriented. However, it is limited to a cultural level. Another researcher, Wen (2012) has proposed an ELF-informed pedagogic framework in which linguistic levels, cultural levels and pragmatic levels are all involved. The ELF-informed pedagogic framework, however, turns out to be a WE-informed framework when Wen describes English as having native varieties, non-native varieties and local varieties, divides culture into target cultures, other cultures and local cultures, and classifies pragmatic strategies as universal/target/non-native communication rules.

Several points can be taken from the above literature review: (1) Standard English norms have been challenged from a global Englishes perspective, but the quantity of such researches, while growing, is still limited, particularly in China; (2) many researches on language policy lacks critical reflection on issues such as power and ideology especially in relation to global Englishes; (3) language policy mechanisms, such as textbook, curriculum, test and practice have not been well-researched as an integrated whole; (4) the majority of researches on ELT focus on teaching issues per se without questioning the premise of NS normativity in ELT; (5) researches on ELT focus on teaching practice, such as method and marginalise teachers' and learners' opinions. Based on what has been researched and what has not been investigated, I developed my research on language policy and practice from a global Englishes perspective by investigating the influence of global Englishes on curriculum statements, teaching practices, and participant perceptions in China.

Chapter 5 Methodology

5.1 Introduction

In previous chapters, I have addressed the theoretical framework of the research (see section 2.4, Spolsky's three components of language policy, Shohamy's mechanisms of language policy and Postmodernism in language policy), clarified key terms that are relevant to this research (see section 2.2, 2.3, e.g. native speakers/community/global Englishes) and reviewed research on language policy and practice (see chapter 3 and chapter 4). The review of theories and practices in the published research has helped me to identify my research aim and generate the primary research questions. The aim of this study is to investigate the influences that global Englishes has had on language policy and practice in high schools in China. Based on the understanding of language policy and the aim of the study, the primary research questions of this PhD are as follows:

- RQ 1: to what extent has the National English Curriculum (NEC) taken account of the use of English as a global language?
- RQ 2: what is the relationship between English language education practices in junior high school and the NEC with regard to global Englishes?
- RQ 3: what are junior high school teachers' and students' perceptions of the NEC and classroom practices in terms of global Englishes?

To answer these research questions, I have adopted a quasi-ethnographic qualitative research method (Dornyei, 2007, p.133) with quantitative supports. Such a research method is predominantly qualitative but includes critical ethnographic views and is supplemented with quantitative information. In the following sections, I would like first to provide an overview of and justification for the selected research method. After that, the study including research context, research questions, research participants, researcher's role and research instruments will be introduced. Following this, the analysis framework and possible ethical risks will be addressed. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of trustworthiness and potential methodological limitations.

5.2 Researching language policy and practice

As Gee (1999, p.5) says, ‘any method always goes with a theory...method and theory cannot be separated, despite the fact that methods are often taught as if they could stand alone’. In terms of this study, the quasi-ethnographic qualitative method selected for this research is closely linked to the language policy theories which need to be adopted for the research (see Spolsky’s three-components theory, Shohamy’s mechanism theory and postmodern theory on language in section 2.4). Based on the language policy theories which have been reviewed in section 2.4, in the following part, I would like to justify the quasi-ethnographic qualitative method by focusing on the explanations of ‘being qualitative’ and ‘being ethnographic’.

5.2.1 Being qualitative

Qualitative research has many strengths. Apart from its ‘exploratory nature’, it has the benefit of ‘answering why questions’, ‘broadening our understanding’, ‘being flexible when things go wrong’, ‘providing material for the research report’ (Dörnyei, 2007, p.39). Among those features, ‘making sense of complexity’ is considered as the basis of qualitative research, which can prevent the research from producing ‘reduced and simplified interpretations that distort the bigger picture’ (Dörnyei, 2007, p.39). Considering the complexity of the research, a qualitative method has been adopted as the predominant method instead of a quantitative method.

The aim of this research is to investigate the influence of global Englishes on language policy and practice. As we have discussed in Chapter 2, global Englishes is not simply the summary of one word ‘global’ plus another word ‘Englishes’, but languages embedded with various ideologies and uses involving linguistic, pragmatic and intercultural aspects in a trans-process (e.g. translation, transmodality, transculturality and transtextuality) along with changeable language identities (see section 2.3). The complex nature of global Englishes determines that ‘simple linear methodologies based on linear views of causality are inadequate’ (Cohen, et al. 2011, P.30)

The research becomes more complex in terms of language policy and practice. According to Spolsky’s theory (2004, 2009) and Shohamy’s theory (2006), language policy and practice involves three components (language management, language practice and language beliefs) as well as mechanisms, such as textbooks and tests, which are used as devices to transmit

language beliefs in battles between language management and practice (see section 2.2). The complex relationship between language policies is not going to be thoroughly and insightfully investigated with quantitative research methods which ‘involve data collection procedures that result primarily in numerical data which is then analysed primarily by statistical methods’ (Dörnyei, 2007, p.24).

A research method which can address ‘multiple causality and multi-directional causes and effects’ which are ‘networked and relate at a host of different levels and in a range of diverse ways’ (Cohen, et al. 2011, p.30) is needed to interpret global Englishes, reveal language policies and practices, and relate language policies and practices and global Englishes. This is why the qualitative research method is adopted as the main research method in this thesis.

5.2.2 Being ethnographic

Simply, ethnography can be defined as an ‘approach to social research based on the first-hand experience of social action within a discrete location, in which the objective is to collect data which will convey the subjective reality of the lived experience of those who inhabit that location’ (Pole and Morrison, 2003, p.16). It has many similarities with qualitative research. For example, they both focus on the description of ‘thick picture’ of participants’ lives and also share many instrumental tools, such as observation, interview and focus group (e.g. Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995). Therefore some scholars even take ethnography as a synonym for ‘qualitative research’ (e.g. LeCompte and Preissle, 1993; Woods, 1994).

For other scholars (e.g. Pole and Morrison, 2003; Walford, 2008), ethnography is quite different from a qualitative method because ‘the former connotes long-term residence with an individual, group or specific community...whilst the latter, often being concerned with the nature of the data and the kinds of research question to be answered, is an approach that need not require naturalistic approaches or principles’ (Cohen, et al, 2011, p.219). As for this research, ethnographic methods and qualitative methods are not going to be compared or distinguished. This is because, in this research, ethnography is not adopted in the sense of a method but as a methodology where ‘the general theoretical and philosophical underpinnings’ of ethnography are derived to instruct qualitative research (Pole and Morrison, 2003, P.6).

The justification for not using ethnography in its methodological sense is that this study only involves 3 months of fieldwork, which is far from the minimum period of 6-12 months used

in most ethnographic research (Dörnyei, 2007). On the other hand, the essential natures of the ethnographic method, which can be generally summarized as ‘a first-hand, naturalistic, well-contextualized, hypotheses-generating, emic orientation to language practices’ (Canagarajah, 2006b, p. 155), are explored and used as principles to guide the 3-month data collection process. The reasons why it is possible to explore those ethnographic natures in 3 months instead of 6-12 months include the high degree of familiarity with the research context and intensive study. In terms of my study, my closest friend who works in this school helped to familiarise me with the school environment and helped me to build a trusting relationship with her colleagues, who were the potential participants, in a very short time. I was immersed in the middle school for only 3 months but my data suggest that this was sufficient, since the data pattern repeated, which indicated the end of the research (Cohen, et al. 2011). Thus, except for the length of study, most of my research is quite similar to ethnographic research.

In short, this research is ‘quasi-ethnographic’ research which is not as prolonged as normal ethnographic research, but takes the essential natures of the ethnographic method as principles to guide the research. Having justified using ethnography in a methodological sense, in the following part, I would like to discuss those essential natures of the ethnographic method in detail and explain why they are important to language policy and practice study in this research.

Three main features of an ethnographic study are identified by Dörnyei (2007) which include: ‘focusing on participant meaning’, ‘prolonged engagement in the natural setting’, and ‘emergent nature’ (p. 131). In other words, ethnographers take an emic approach to investigate how participants themselves interpret their own behaviours, languages, customs or other living habits in their local community (e.g. LeCompte and Preissle, 1993). To obtain those data in natural settings, researchers usually spend a long time trying to win the trust of participants so they will not alter their behaviour in front of outsiders and will reveal unexpected data which cannot be obtained in a short period. Thus, prolonged observation plays a very important role in any ethnographic study (Cohen, et al. 2011). More importantly, an ethnographic study is more about producing a description of language practice instead of predicating how language will be used in practice. Evolving events and emergent themes in situ require researchers to continue to self-reflect and revise their research focuses during fieldwork (e.g. Canagarajah, 2006b; . Pole and Morrison, 2003; Walford, 2008). In short, the essential natures of ethnographic study lay in its development of grounded theories ‘about language as it is practiced in localized contexts’ (Canagarajah, 2006b, p.153).

Such a practice-based method appears unrelated to many language policy researches (see literature reviews in section 4.4 for some Chinese scholars' work) where language policy is interpreted as official documents implemented in a top-down process. However, in this research, the interpretation of language policy not only involves written paper level (i.e. language management) but also includes language practice and beliefs (see Spolsky, 2009 and Shohamy, 2006, in section 2.4). As we discussed in section 2.4, language policy is not implemented smoothly and successfully all the time. Sometimes, there is resistance to the established policies from people in local communities and contexts, who may construct alternative practices and make initial changes to language policy. Ethnography thus becomes a very important approach which reveals real language policies by comparing 'how things ought to be' as stated in language management and 'what is' in language practice (Canagarajah, 2006b, p. 153).

In addition to allowing for comparison between the macro-level of language management and the micro-level of language practice, the ethnographic method also benefits language policy research by revealing the language beliefs of participants. As we have discussed in section 3.4, teachers are agents of language policy and their language beliefs and attitudes can affect whether language policy can be implemented successfully or not. However, language attitudes and beliefs are very hard to investigate. Normally, there are direct methods and indirect methods to attitude research (Garrett, 2010). The direct method refers to investigating attitudes by asking participants questions directly. This method may be useful for revealing participants' overt language attitudes, but their covert beliefs are harder to ascertain. This is because, in language policy research, due to factors such as unequal power, participants sometimes answer questions to please researchers, but in practice, may behave differently. Examples can be found in empirical research on teachers' language attitudes to ELF (e.g. Galloway, 2011; Jenkins, 2007; Wang, 2013), where teacher participants accept ELF theoretically but reject it in teaching practice (see section 3.4.3). The indirect method uses more subtle, even deceptive, techniques to investigate people's attitudes and although it can provide a deeper understanding of language beliefs, the validity and reliability of this type of research is questionable because of its use of artificial settings or techniques (Garrett, 2010). Therefore, an ethnographic method is needed due to its focus 'on participant meaning'. With prolonged observation and interviews with participants, ethnography can help in 'the comparison and contrast between what people say and what people do in a given context and

across contexts in order to arrive at a fuller representation of what is going on' (Hornberger 1994, P. 688).

Besides the descriptive natures revealing the differences between language management and language practice, and between what participants say and how they behave, ethnography is also critical. The critical perspective is not only based on researchers' personal subjectivity, bias and attitude; but also more importantly, on the political or ideological level in a local context (Canagarajah, 2006b; Thomas, 1993). As mentioned above, ethnography has an emergent nature with unpredictable and unexpected data emerging, which requires ethnographers to reflect on specific situations and communities constantly and critically. Such critical reflection is very important to language policy research. As I have discussed (see section, 2.4), language policy is frequently not as just or objective as is declared. There are implicit statements behind language policies, and mechanisms are used in the battle between language management and language practice which both try to transmit their language ideology (Shohamy, 2006). With immediate evolving data and constant self-reflection, ethnographic methods provide language policy researchers with every detail of local contexts and can help language policy to identify what and how ideology is transmitted through covert mechanisms (e.g. Canagarajah, 2006b; Madison, 2005).

Having explained the research method that I have chosen and why it is important to the research, in the following sections, I would like to introduce how this method is executed in this study to answer the research questions in the research context.

5.3 The study

5.3.1 Research context

The research was conducted in a junior high school in the suburb of the capital city of Henan province in China. The school (hence ZH School) is a public school but the management of the school is not as same as other public schools. As a basic measure for safeguarding the equal education rights of children, a universal policy of implementing compulsory education in public schools in China means that children must enrol at a nearby school. In other words, public schools are not allowed to compete to recruit elite students. However, ZH School not only recruits students who live nearby, but also students from the entire province. That is

because ZH School is managed as a joint public-private enterprise. The administration of ZH School is divided into two parts. One part deals with general education, and the recruitment of students from the local neighbourhood and is managed in the same way as a normal public school. The other part deals with elite education and the selection of elite students from the province according to their test scores. The aim of elite education is to prepare potential students for entry to one of the school's sponsors—the provincial-level key senior high school. Thus, two types of education co-exist in ZH School but enjoy different teaching material, teacher resources and even different test systems.

There are four reasons why I chose ZH School as my research site. First, it is easily accessible, since one of my closest friend works there as an English teacher. With her help, a lot of time was saved in terms of becoming familiar with the explicit and implicit environment of the school and establishing trusting relationships with her colleagues. Second, when my friend recommended her school, she emphasized that 'ZH School attaches great importance to the training of National Curriculum teaching'. This is relevant to my research aim and investigation of the influence of global Englishes on language policy and practice. Third, as I have mentioned above, ZH School is a public school but is managed in a public-private mode, which allows the opportunity to compare the differences between these two education modes and the influences of language policy and practice from a global Englishes perspective within one school. Fourth, ZH School is a small-scale school in a suburb of the city. Educational resources, like physical facilities and teacher quality, are better than those in county-level schools but not as good as resources in city-level schools. In other words, ZH School is average and thus a good school from which to observe common issues of English language teaching in China.

5.3.2 Selection of participants

Due to the emergent nature of ethnography, it is not possible to predicate and fix the participants before the research. Instead, the sampling is 'recursive and ad hoc' and 'changes and develops over time' (Cohen, et al, 2011, p.229). Bearing in mind the nature of this sampling, I have adopted many sampling types during different stages of my research. I started with convenience sampling by choosing my close friend who happens to be a junior high school English teacher as my first participant. After that, the sampling changed to a

snowball sample where my friend introduced her colleagues as potential participants. These two sampling types benefit the research since they ‘save time and money and spare the researcher the effort of finding less amenable participants’ (Cohen, et al, 2011, p. 230). The population of those potential participants was then narrowed down or increased through theoretical sampling where individuals are selected for their contribution to the development of emerging theories (Flick, 2009, P.118). In short, the sampling for the research began with a general research purpose, to investigate the influence of global Englishes on language policy and practice in high school. This general purpose became more and more specific during the changes in sampling types where participants became more and more relevant to the research purpose.

The sampling process is shown in Table 5.1. First, all 25 English teachers in ZH School were selected for a questionnaire study. Through prolonged observation and interviews, 6 teachers were selected for a quasi-ethnographic study. They became the main participants for this research.

Table 5.1 Sampling.

	Participants	from		
The 1 st group	English teachers	ZH School	Around 25	Questionnaires
The 2 nd group	English teachers (8 th grade)	ZH School	Around 6	Interview/observation/questionnaires

In addition to the qualitative data, I have also included some quantitative data to provide a general picture of how students and teachers perceive global Englishes in language policy and practice. There are no sampling issues involved for teacher participants for questionnaires since all 25 English teachers in ZH School are included. As for the student participants, I selected around 180 students from one elite class, one key class and one regular class. The selection was random instead of strictly following the rules of any particular sampling type. This is because quantitative data in this research is not the main focus of the research but complements the qualitative data.

5.3.3 Fieldwork

The fieldwork started on 1st September 2013 and ended on 30th November 2013. I spent the first week completing a pilot study in a senior high school in a small town. Although the context of the pilot study is slightly different to the final study, they are both public schools and both implement the National English Curriculum. After that, I immersed myself in ZH School, which is a junior high school in a suburb of the capital city of Henan province. In the first two weeks of the fieldwork, I issued 180 questionnaires to students and 30 questionnaires to teachers. After that, I adopted observations and interviews as the main research instruments. Normally, I conducted a classroom observation and then a follow-up interview or vice versa. After the first round of interviews and observations, I selected 6-7 participants for a more in depth investigation using consistent observation and interview. During the three months, I also extended the data sources to documents, such as teachers' books, students' workbooks, and formative and summative examination papers. Besides the formal approach, I also collected some useful information from informal talks with teachers and students.

5.3.4 Research instruments and researcher roles

In this section, I would like to introduce the research instruments that I used, which included questionnaires, interviews, observations and documents. For each instrument, I would like to address how I designed and administered it, the researcher's role in the process of using the instrument, why I selected it, and the limitations and advantages of the instruments.

5.3.4.1 Questionnaire

Questionnaires were used to investigate students and teachers' attitudes towards language policy and practice from a global Englishes perspective. The questionnaire (see Appendix 1 and 2) is divided into three sections. The first section investigates students/teachers' attitudes towards global Englishes. It is then subdivided into two parts. The first part concerns students/teachers' attitudes towards the English accent. This part was adapted from questions in Jenkins's accent attitude research in her 2007 book. A semantic differential scale was

adapted to study participants' attitudes towards correctness, acceptability, pleasantness and familiarity of accents from seven countries and three circles. The second part was put in a Likert scale format to study participants' attitudes regarding Standard English and the ownership of English. The second section concerns attitudes towards English learning/teaching practice, teaching material and tests from a global Englishes perspective. The final section is about participants' attitude towards their current and future English use. The last two sections both involve two types of questionnaire item: Likert scale and open questions.

The Questionnaire was designed for both students and teachers. However, after a pilot study in a senior high school, it was found that the first part of the accent attitude study in the first section was quite confusing for students. First, the semantic differential scale was too complex for them to understand and second, they had never heard English spoken in any accent other than British or American. Thus, I deleted the accent attitude study part in the final questionnaires for students and kept it in the questionnaires for teachers. The time allocated for completing a questionnaire was between 20-30 minutes. This is slightly longer than the time allocated for normal questionnaires, but since the research participants were students and teachers and the research context was a school, the questionnaire was seen as similar to an exercise or a test taken in class.

Questionnaires were administered personally. The first group to fill in the questionnaires were all English teachers at ZH School and they completed them during a regular English teacher meeting time. I explained to the teachers anything that was unclear. After that, the second group of questionnaires were completed by 180 students from three classes during their self-study time and were administered by their teachers and me.

There are three reasons why I chose the questionnaire as one of my research instruments. First, questionnaires allow for the inclusion of a large number of participants, which increases validity, reliability and generalization. Second, some objective information, such as the frequency of taking tests or the time spent learning English after class, can be obtained from questionnaires which helps to provide a fuller and more objective description of the phenomenon. Third, what questionnaires show is the overt attitudes of participants, and interviews and observations are then needed to explore covert attitudes. Thus, more interesting data may be elicited if the results from questionnaires are compared with the

results of interviews and observations. This type of comparative study is useful for exploring the causes of the difference in results. Thus, more qualitative methods are needed.

5.3.4.2 Interviews

Cohen (et al. 2011) lists three interpretations of interviews based on Kitwood's (1977) classification. The first regards the interview as a 'potential means of pure information transfer' (Cohen, et al. 2011, p. 409). This emphasizes the function of the interview as a research instrument and notes that bias can be eliminated with proper interview skills. However others consider the interview as 'a transaction which inevitably has biases' and 'that needs to be recognized and controlled' (ibid.). This reminds researchers of the non-rational factors, like emotions, unconscious needs and interpersonal influences, which can affect the reliability of interviews; and suggests that these potential obstacles need to be 'removed, controlled, or at least harnessed in some way' (ibid.). The third understanding of the interview treats it 'as an encounter necessarily sharing many of the features of everyday life' (ibid.). The interview in this respect is more like a conversation which is co-constructed by both interviewer and interviewee. There are three features of this kind of interview: a trusting relationship between interlocutors, curiosity about each other and natural interaction.

These three interpretations of the interview all stress some key characteristics, for example, information transfer, subjective cautions, and natural interaction between interviewer and interviewee based on trust and curiosity. But none of them define it in a comprehensive way. More importantly, all of these interpretations overlook the role of research purpose, which is the foundation of all the interpretations and the basis of the interview design. Thus, in this research, an interview is defined as 'a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information, and focused by him on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation' (Cannell and Kahn, 1968.), which covers all the features of Kitwood's (1977) interpretations of interviews and also adds some ideas that he overlooks.

There are several types of interview, such as standardized interviews, in-depth interviews, and ethnographic interviews (see, LeCompte and Preissle, 1993; Lincoln and Guba, 1988). In my research, I have adopted two types of interview: semi-structured interviews and unstructured or ethnographic interviews. As Dörnyei (2007) states, an unstructured interview

‘allows maximum flexibility to follow the interviewee in unpredictable directions, with only minimal interference from the research agenda’ (p135). During the interview, the researcher may occasionally ask questions or give feedback but most of the time the role of the researcher is a listener. Semi-structured interviews are less flexible than unstructured interviews. A researcher in a semi-structured interview ‘provides guidance and direction (hence the ‘-structured’ part in the name), and also follows up interesting developments and to let the interviewee elaborate on certain issues (hence the ‘semi-‘part)’ (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 136).

Thus, there are two roles for me being a researcher in a semi-structured interview: one is to prompt, for example, by guiding the conversation; the other is to probe, that is to ask follow-up ‘why’ questions for a deeper understanding (Morrison, 1993). With these complex roles, the researcher should be wary of being subjective or biased. Dörnyei (2007) offers some practical techniques ‘to mitigate the undesirable, such as wording the question in a way that it suggests that the behaviour is rather common’; ‘using authority to make the sensitive issue/behaviour appear to be justifiable’ and so on (P.141). As for the probes, in order to explore topics in the right way, Fowler (2013) suggests that the researcher should always be sensitive to researcher questions and purpose and keep in mind that any questions asked should contribute to the main research questions.

The decision about which type of interview to use was mainly based on my participants. Before the interview, I always spent ten minutes having a casual conversation. If the participant was nervous or an introvert, I adopted the semi-structured interview to prompt the conversation. However, if the participant was outgoing or very interested in the topic, I chose to be a listener and to let the participant share his/her story, only taking control if the participant went too far off topic. Most of the time, interviews were conducted in a semi-structured way at the beginning but then when the atmosphere became more relaxed, they turned into unstructured interviews. There were no specific questions that were pre-designed or any strict sequence to follow, but there were general topics in my mind before and during the interviews (see Appendix 3). The topics covered included the participants’ attitudes towards global Englishes, curricula, textbooks, classroom teaching practice, tests and student learning. From these general topics, specific questions about accuracy and fluency in English teaching and learning and the drawbacks and advantages of tests, emerged in the interviews.

Interviews that formed part of the quasi-ethnographic research in ZH School were conducted individually or in a series. At the beginning of the quasi-ethnographic research, I conducted my first round of interviews, which involved six participants. This round of interviews was conducted in order to obtain a general picture of the school and the research and to allow the appropriate selection of participants who could contribute to the research. Along with this round of interviews, I also completed classroom observations, which will be discussed in the next section. During the second round of interviews, I narrowed my focus to three participants for a deeper exploration. Interviews (see Appendix 3) in this round were conducted in a semi-structured format to obtain more detailed information. The second round of classroom observations was also completed in the same period. If interesting data emerged during the observations or after the primary data analysis, follow up interviews were conducted with certain participants. During the quasi-ethnographic research, the interviews lasted between 30 and 90 minutes.

There were several reasons for choosing interviews as one of the research instruments. The main reason for using interviews is that unlike questionnaires, interviews collect information in depth. Interviews enable the collection of rich data for a full and thick picture of the phenomenon and allow insight into the participants' inner world, which cannot be accessed through observations or questionnaires. Second, interviews are conducted person to person, which allows various unexpected topics to emerge. Third, an interview is co-constructed by interviewers and interviewees. Interviewers, through negotiation, can gain the relevant information by compromising between the topics the interviewees want to talk about and the most relevant topic for the research. However, there are also limitations to interviews. For example, due to factors like emotion, power difference or privacy, participants are not always truthful. In this way, other research instruments should be used for triangulation, such as observations and questionnaires. Interviews are also time-consuming at the data collection and data analysis stage, but the benefits that they bring mean that they are worth the time.

5.3.4.3 Observation

With quasi-ethnographic research as the research method, I adopted participant observation as one of the research instruments in this thesis. Observations in my research were undertaken with the intention to 'observe participants in their natural setting, their everyday

social setting and their everyday behavior in them' (Cohen et al., 2011, P. 464). According to Hammersley and Atkinson (1983), the researcher's role can generally be divided into two types: one is comparative involvement which is 'in the forms of the complete participant and the participant-as-observer with a degree of subjectivity and sympathy'; the other is comparative detachment which is 'in forms of the observer-as-participant and the complete observer where objectivity and distance are key characteristics' (p.93-95). Thus, the dilemma between insider and outsider is considered. I decided the degree to which I participated and observed in the observation based on research context and research purpose.

Being an insider, I did not constrain my research to a prediction or pre-designed scheme before the observation but opened my mind to all the possibilities. Bias was also trying to be eliminated through daily critical reflexivity. The reflective process was thus the beginning of the primary data analysis where research focus and techniques are adjust flexibly (Cohen, et al. 2011). At the same time, I took an outsider view to see what is unusual but taken for granted by participants. For example, critical incidents, which is 'particular events or occurrences that might typify or illuminate very starkly a particular feature' (Wragg, 1994, P. 64), were noticed. Based on this understanding of researcher's role in participant observation, I positioned my role in a quite flexible and dynamic way when using different forms of observation, including inside classroom observation (classroom teaching) and outside classroom observation (school environment, textbooks used by teachers, documents issued by the school).

According to Flick (2009), participant observation includes 'observation, document analysis, interviewing, direct observation and introspection' (p.226). In this research, participant observation was also defined in a broader sense, which covered classroom observation, documents, and teacher training activity (see Appendix 6). Classroom observation in ZH School was the main data source for participant observation. The General education group had 4 English teachers in grade eight. Each teacher designed a one unit lesson plan based on textbooks which included Power point, hand-outs and exercises and then they shared their lesson plans with others. Thus, they enjoyed the same lecture schedule and lesson plan. The Elite education group did the same thing in their groups. During the first two weeks, I conducted the first round of observations by observing 4 teachers' English classes in the general education group and 2 teachers' classes in the elite education group. At the same time, I also conducted a follow up interview or interview in advance of the observation. After that,

I narrowed the focus to 2 teachers' classes in the general group and 1 teacher's class in the elite group for serial observation. The length of observations can be seen in Table 5.2:

Table 5.2 Observation.

Participants	From	Participant No.	Observation length
English teachers (8 th grade)	ZH School classroom	7 (T1-T7)	410 minutes (7 hours)

The intention of classroom observation was to observe teaching practice in classrooms which included classroom activities, teacher-student interaction, teachers' discourse, how teaching materials were used, and the wash back of tests from a global Englishes perspective. In this way, it was a semi-structured classroom observation. That is to say, I observed the classroom with some general agendas in mind, but these agendas were 'in a far less predetermined or systematic manner' (Cohen, et al. 2011:457). The reason that I adopted semi-structured observation for classroom observation was that on one hand it avoided the danger of going too far from the research purpose by focusing on some general and broad research topics in class; on the other hand, I was not constrained to these topics but opened my mind to other possibilities. The field notes for the classroom observation combine an objective description of classroom setting, date, time, place and event, subjective interpretation of the activities and critical reflection to check for possible bias or the need for follow-up enquires.

Documents were the other data sources for the participant observation and included curriculum, teachers' lesson plans, textbooks, teachers' books, students' exercise books and examination papers. As Cohen, et al. (2011) state, these documents are 'a record of an event or process' (p.249). The selection of teaching material, the use of teaching material, the design of the lesson plans and test papers are the de facto practice of implementation of language policy. Teachers' beliefs and attitudes can be reflected in their behaviour. Thus, combining interviews and observations, I attempted to explore how and why teachers deal with the documents in such a way and then reveal the de facto bottom-up practice of language policy.

Together with these data sources, I collected my participant observation data in ZH School. There were several reasons why I chose participant observation as my research collection method. First, it offered me ‘the opportunity to gather ‘live’ data from naturally occurring social situations’ (Cohen, et al. 2011, P. 456). Second, it provided a ‘reality check’ (ibid.). By observing teachers’ behaviour, I checked teachers’ attitudes towards the curriculum, classroom teaching, textbooks and tests that they had discussed in the interview. I also examined the implementation of the top-down policy in de facto practice. Third, some sensitive information that is hard to gain from interviews can be observed in practice. Fourth, I chose participant observation because of its flexible and inclusive nature. It gave me the freedom to adjust my research approach to obtain the most relevant information and to include the emergent data. But there were also limitations. For example, it was time-consuming at data collecting, data sorting and data analysing stages. Thus, field notes with key words were necessary and helpful. Besides this, the researcher’s subjectivity or bias can affect the reliability of the observation, but through critical reflection and self-checking, this subjectivity or bias can be reduced.

5.3.5 Data analysis

As I have discussed in section 5.2, the research adapted a quasi-ethnographic qualitative research method. The purpose of such a method is to describe a natural setting and how participants behave, talk and think in a local community. However, the emic and etic perspective that ethnographers usually take for the thick description sometimes means that the research is in danger of being too subjective. To prevent this, I adopted a qualitative content analysis (QCA) which analyzes and presents data in a systematic, consistent and transparent way (Schreier, 2012).

QCA is defined as ‘a method for systematically describing the meaning of qualitative material’ and is done ‘by classifying material as instances of the categories of a coding frame’ (Schreier, 2012, p.1). The systematic nature of QCA lies in consistency in data selecting, sorting and analysing. As Schreier (2012) points out, data is consistently connected through three stages: ‘all relevant material is taken into account; a sequence of steps is followed during the analysis, regardless of your material; and you have to check your coding for

consistency (reliability)' (p.9). The systematic and consistent nature of QCA makes the data analysis transparent to the reader and thus increases the reliability of the research.

Importantly, such a systematic description of data is not like quantitative content analysis in which 'a strict and systematic set of procedures' is emphasized (Mayring, 2004, P. 266). Instead, QCA is much more flexible and context-sensitive. In other words, as quantitative content analysis, QCA is partly concept-driven, which is predicted using previous knowledge, experience or document sources and then standardized coded. But at the same time, QCA is also partly data-driven and the coding frame is adapted using emerging data so as to fit the context (Schreier, 2012). It corresponds to the nature of the quasi-ethnographic qualitative method the research has adopted which is naturalistic, situational, reflexive and emergent (see section 5.2).

The other reason that I used QCA as the main data analysis method in this study is because QCA is not only descriptive but also involves interpretation of data. As ethnographers, researchers usually take both etic and emic analysis approaches to 'interpret(s) the data from participants who have already interpreted their world, and then relate(s) them to the audience in his/her words' (Cohen, et al. 2011, p.540). QCA is useful for interpreting such complex and less obvious personal meanings in the latent content (Stemler, 2001). In the coding process, the data is interpreted in the coding main categories and subcategories by describing, selecting, sorting and relating material (Schreier, 2012). In this way, QCA can 'analyse and describe the most important characteristics of large amounts of qualitative data' (Schreier, 2012, p.30).

In addition to the above features, QCA is also helpful for reducing data during and after the fieldwork. The research instruments adopted have benefited the research by providing a thick and natural picture of the local community. However, at the same time, they have also resulted in a huge amount of collected data, which greatly increased the difficulty of selecting and ordering relevant data (e.g. Pole and Morrison, 2003; Walford, 2008). QCA can reduce data through a progressive focussing process. By adopting QCA, researchers review and select data which are most salient in the emerged situation and most relevant to the research aim during the fieldwork (Parlett and Hamilton, 1976). When the fieldwork is finished, the narrowed data is further reduced in the coding process where data will be deleted if it does not fit in either a main category or a subcategory in the coding frame (Schreier, 2012). However, the reducing data process in QCA will not affect the richness of material that the

ethnographic method aims to provide because on the one hand the reducing process makes the data more relevant; on the other hand new information is produced along with the emerged situation and during the categorising process when cases are compared (Schreier, 2012).

As for the quantitative data in the questionnaires, I adopted SPSS as the data analysis approach. According to Dörnyei (2007), there are two principal areas of statistics in quantitative research: descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics are used to ‘summarize sets of numerical data in order to conserve time and space’ (ibid. p209). Such statistics make no inferences or predictions, they simply report what has been found in a variety of ways. Inferential statistics ‘are the same as descriptive statistics except that the computer also tests whether the results that we observed in our sample are powerful enough to generalize to the whole population’ (ibid.). Since the thesis employs a quasi-ethnographic method, generalization is not the intention. Thus, data analysis focuses on the descriptive function and is undertaken by the SPSS. Ordinal data, like answers for Likert-scale questions, are interpreted with their frequencies, percentages and standard deviations. For the open-questions, data is transformed to a qualitative analysis, like content analysis.

Based on the above discussion, I coded and analysed my material through 10 steps:

Step 1: identifying themes in curriculum statement data (the main categories of the coding frame)

I identified themes in the curriculum statement: linguistic knowledge/skills, learning attitude and affects, cultural awareness, and tests.

Step 2: transcribing

5 participants and 7 interviews were selected for transcribing;

Step 3: segmenting, naming, and numbering of interview data

I divided each interview into smaller parts;

I summarized the meaning of each segmentation and conceptualized it;

I gave a serial number to each concept;

Step 4: identifying themes of each interview

Based on step 3, I identified some general themes from each interview

Step 5: categorising interview data

I integrated all the themes identified in each interview and categorised similar themes in main categories by 'copy-pasting' the number and name of each code (in this way, I am able to trace the sources of each code)

Step 6: subcategorising interview data

For each category, I identified specific sub-themes.

Then I subcategorised data by 'copy-pasting' the number and name of each code

Step 7: identifying themes from questionnaire data

Based on concept-data driven since the questionnaire was designed with certain themes

Step 8: modifying coding frame with the consideration of data consistency

By comparing questionnaire data themes and each category, I revised the coding frame in order to maintain consistency

Step 9: integrating questionnaire coding, interview coding, and curriculum coding with the consideration of data consistency

Step 10: building the final coding frame

5.3.6 Ethics and risks

All my research participants were involved on a voluntary basis. Before I accessed ZH School, I submitted a research plan, which included the design of questionnaire, potential interview questions, and the general purposes and content of observation to the headmistress. Based on her suggestions, I made some adjustments to the research and obtained permission to conduct the research in the school. Since my student participants were under 16, I also obtained the parents' permission through consent forms. During the questionnaires and interviews, I explicitly explained the purpose of the research, and informed the participants of their right to withdraw at any time without any reasons and my responsibility to protect their

information. In the classroom observations, I also explained the general observation topics to the teachers and informed them that any of the recordings could be deleted if they did not like them. In the document observation, I explained to teachers how I was going to use the document in a very general way to avoid the risk of the Hawthorn effect. Also, the research was conducted by following the guidelines of the ethics Committee of university.

5.3.7 Validity

Unlike quantitative research in which validity is easily proved through strict and accurate procedures, the validity of qualitative research is often questioned due to the subjective, complex and rich data. Qualitative researchers have suggested many ways to justify the validity of qualitative studies. For example, Lincoln and Guba (1985) introduce the concept of ‘trustworthiness’ with which the validity of qualitative research can be assessed using four components: credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability. Dörnyei (2007) points out that those components of trustworthiness correspond to quantitative counterparts which make the criteria much more confused. Thus, more researches suggest interpreting and assessing validity on various relevant levels in qualitative research (e.g. Dörnyei, 2007; Maxwell, 1992; Schreier, 2012). In terms of this research, validity can be assessed in two senses: one is in a narrow sense which refers to ‘the extent to which your instruments help you capture what you set out to capture’; the other is in a broader sense which refers to ‘the overall quality of your study’ (Schreier, 2012, p.27).

In terms of the narrow sense of validity, the research instruments contain research tools at the data collection stage, such as interviews, observations and questionnaires. The validity checks of such instruments include ‘method and data triangulation’, ‘prolonged engagement and persistent observation’ and ‘longitudinal research design’ (Dörnyei, 2007, p.61-62), which can all be achieved in the data collection process. For example, there are multiple sources from which to collect data, such as interviews, questionnaires and observations and through these data can be assessed by comparing, complementing and supporting. More importantly, the uses of those instruments last for three months which can ‘reveal various developmental pathways’ and ‘document different types of interactions over time’ (ibid.). In short, those instruments are considered valid since they describe a thick picture of the natural setting they are supposed to capture.

In addition to the instruments for the data collection process, the validity of the coding frame at the data analysis stage, which refers to ‘the extent that the categories adequately represent the concepts under study’ can also be assessed for the measurement of the validity of the whole research (Schreier, 2012, p.175). For data-driven coding frames, Schreier (2012) lists three signs of low validity which include: high coding frequency for residual categories, high coding frequency for one subcategory compared to the other subcategories on that dimension, and high level of abstraction (p.188). In terms of my research, the data-driven coding can be found in the interview material (see section 5.3.6, step 3/4/5 /6/8/9 in the coding procedure). Through several sorting and selecting steps, such as segmenting, identifying themes, categorizing and subcategorizing, relevant data are all fitted to relevant categories while irrelevant or unfitted data are all deleted. Thus, it is safe to conclude that to a large extent the data-driven coding frame in this research is valid.

As for the broader sense of validity, Schreier (2012) points out that it lies in whether the research captures the phenomenon or not, i.e. whether it is naturalistic and whether it is data-driven. To achieve such a validity, researchers are asked to make sure that ‘you have gone about your research in a systematic way, that you make your procedure and your reasoning transparent to your readers, that your design and your method are appropriate to your research question, that you have taken negative case and alternative interpretations into account’ (p. 27). In other words, the broader sense of validity is similar to the reliability. As I have discussed in section 5.3.2 and 5.3.5, both the research method (quasi-ethnographic qualitative research method) and data analysis method (qualitative content analysis) aim at presenting and analysing data in a systematic and insightful way. The natural setting is thickly described and systematically coded and all data are transparent. Therefore, the overall quality of the research is guaranteed.

5.4 Conclusion and limitations

To conclude, the research was conducted at ZH high school for three months. A quasi-ethnographic qualitative method was adopted. The reason that I chose a qualitative instead of quantitative method is due to the complexity of global Englishes and the multi-components of language policy. Ethnography was not used as a method but as a methodology where the underpinning theoretical principles of ethnography were used to guide and instruct the

qualitative research (Dörnyei, 2007; Pole and Morrison, 2003). This is because the fieldwork only lasted for 3 months, which is not as long as normal ethnographic research, but most of the essential natures of the ethnographic method have been explored to guide the research. The quasi-ethnographic method benefits language policy research in many ways. For example, it focuses on participant meanings to describe a thick picture of people's daily life in a community (Pole and Morrison, 2003; Walford, 2008). Through prolonged observation and interviews in natural settings, the quasi-ethnographic method also helps to discover the contradictions and inconsistencies between policy and practice and between what people say and their behaviour (Canagarajah, 2006). More importantly, by critically reflecting on emerging themes, research reveals the implicit statements behind language policy and the ideologies that are transmitted through covert mechanisms (Canagarajah, 2006b; Madison, 2005; Shohamy, 2006).

The research instruments included questionnaires, interviews and participant observations. With these instruments, the thick and comprehensive pictures of the research context were described. More importantly, all research questions were covered and explored in a thorough investigation. For example, observations provided data to answer the question about the influences of global Englishes on language policy and practice (classroom teaching, documents such as textbooks, tests and lesson planning); with questionnaires and interviews, I obtained data for the research question about the influences of global Englishes on teachers and learners' attitudes. The method for data analysis is qualitative content analysis. It is systematic, flexible, and interpretative. More importantly, the qualitative content analysis helps to reduce irrelevant data during the data analysis process. The ethics and risks have also been checked in this chapter, and it has been shown that there is almost no risk for the participants. In addition, the assessment of the instruments in the data collection process, the coding frame in data analysis and overall quality of the research suggest that the research is valid.

However, there also are some research limitations. First, students are not included as interview participants. The reason for the exclusion of students from the interview process in this study is the possible risk to them. If global Englishes awareness is raised in interviews, this may change their learning motivation or behaviour, which may cause them difficulties in the current Standard English ideology-based tests. In this way, I only recruited students for the questionnaire part of the study, instead of using them as interview participants. The second limitation is that policy-makers are not included as participants because I had no

access to policy makers or experts at the beginning of this study and I already had many other data sources. Third, the quantity of questionnaires for teacher participants was limited. Since there are only around 30 English teachers in ZH School, the number of questionnaires was quite small, which makes generalization difficult. However, since the aim of this research is not to make generalizations, but to conduct an insightful investigation into a local context, this has a very limited influence on the validity of the research. There is limitation of myself who were making effort to balance the role of being an insider and outsider but inevitably brought personal subjective bias during the data collection process. But, fortunately, such a limitation has been minimized through daily self-reflection and constantly checked by comparing similar data from observation, questionnaire and interview.

Chapter 6 Quantitative findings on perceptions of English, English use and English in pedagogy

6.1 Introduction

With the research method and analytic approach being explained in last chapter, this chapter presents and analyses research findings retrieved from questionnaires that have been completed by teachers and students. The purpose of this chapter is to provide a general picture of the research project. Results of teachers' questionnaires and students' questionnaires will be discussed using four identified themes: basic information, perceptions of English, perceptions of language use and perceptions of language teaching and learning.

6.2 Background information

6.2.1 Personal information

All the English teachers (20 female teachers and 1 male teacher) in ZH high school completed and returned the questionnaires. The average age of the participants is 26.45. The average number of teaching years is 4.475. Teacher participants' personal information above is clearly presented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Gender, average age, and average number of teaching years.

<i>Teacher participants:</i>	<i>Gender</i>		<i>Average age</i>	<i>Average number of teaching years</i>
<i>21</i>	<i>20 female</i>	<i>1 male</i>	<i>26.45</i>	<i>4.475</i>

164 student questionnaires were completed and returned by 53 students from a 'Regular class' (R-class for short), 60 from a 'Key class' (K-class for short), and 51 from an 'Elite class' (E-class). As mentioned in the methodology chapter, students are placed into three types of classes according to their test scores. According to the placement rules in ZH high school, students in E-class have higher test scores, and also are supposed to have a higher level of ability than students from R-class and K-class while R-class students have the lowest level of ability. My research participants come from grade 8. In grade 8, there are 7 R-classes, 1 K-class, and 8 E-classes, from which I randomly chose 1 R-class, 1 K-class and 1 E-class as

research participants. Among these 164 student participants, there are 79 boys and 85 girls. Age range for these grade 8 students is 12-14.

Questionnaires were designed based on four themes including basic information, perceptions of global Englishes concepts, of language use and of language teaching/learning, which also form the coding frame for data analysis in this chapter (see table 6.2). The four themes, which were established before data collection, are identified with the inspiration for the preliminary research questions and research aim (see section 1.2). In order to distinguish between items in the students' questionnaires and items in the teachers' questionnaires, the latter will be presented in the format 'item no.' ; while items in the students' questionnaires will be presented as 'S-item no.'

Table 6.2 Themes in questionnaires and coding frame for quantitative data analysis.

<i>Category</i>	<i>Sub-category</i>
<i>Basic Information</i>	<i>Personal information</i>
	<i>Basic teaching/learning information</i>
	<i>Basic English using information</i>
<i>Perceptions of global Englishes concepts</i>	<i>'English NS', 'authentic English' and 'English ownership'</i>
	<i>'Communication target' and 'Englishes'</i>
<i>Perceptions of language use</i>	<i>Accent and identity</i>
	<i>Acceptance of their own accents and others' accents</i>
	<i>Accuracy, fluency and code-switching</i>
<i>Perceptions of language teaching and learning</i>	<i>Various English accents in the classroom</i>
	<i>Various cultures in the classroom</i>
	<i>Grammar-lexical teaching approach in the classroom</i>
	<i>Examination in English teaching/ learning</i>
	<i>Satisfaction with current English teaching/learning</i>

6.2.2 Language teaching/learning information

The average teaching hours for teacher participants are 12.52 every week. Teaching hours here refer to teachers' teaching time in the classroom in day time. The results above do not include the 3 hours morning-reading-class tutorial or the 6 hours English tutorial spent by students on their evening-self-study-class. According to the mean score of item 33, each teacher has to teach 102 students and around 2 classes each semester. As for learners, their experience of English learning, according to the open question answers, amounts to around 5 years since most of them are required to learn English in primary school. According to the answers to S-item 30 and 31, in junior high school, each student learns English for 1.785 hours per day and for 5.675 days per week. As for the aspects on which they spend most of their English learning time, open question S-item 32 shows that 42.2 % student participants believe that grammar is the most time-consuming aspect, 42.5% student participants think that it is vocabulary and 15.3 % student participants spread their leaning time equally between grammar and vocabulary. Examination-taking frequency for them is once every 25.42 days as suggested by the data from S-item 34.

There are also figures about teaching/learning content in English classrooms. Open question item 34 considers the aspect(s) on which teachers spend most of their teaching time. The results shown that in classroom teaching, 42.85% teachers believe that grammar-lecturing takes up most of the class teaching time, while 33.33% teachers claim that they spend most of their teaching time on a combination of vocabulary and grammar. Besides vocabulary and grammar, 4.76% teachers mention reading and 14.23 % add writing and speaking to their classroom teaching duties. These results show that grammar is the primary aspect in teachers teaching and vocabulary is also very important for classroom teaching.

Teaching/learning material information can be found in open question item 35 which asks 'except for textbooks, are there any other resources that you have explored for English teaching?' The results show that 42.85 % of participants have not used any other resources except textbooks, 28.57 % of participants make use of newspapers, 19.05 % explore English videos, and 9.54 % use websites (such as VOA, BBC, and English learning websites). Some participants in this open question explained that they used bilingual newspapers which were specially designed for junior high school students. As for videos, some participants add 'occasionally' as a modifier of the verb phrase 'play English videos'. In short, the results indicate that textbooks are still the main teaching material relied on by teachers.

In terms of the evaluation system, item 36 asks ‘how often is an examination held in a semester?’ The answers to this open question are surprisingly similar; once a month. More detailed information can be obtained from the participants’ answers: ‘once a month; there are two ‘big tests’ (middle term examination and final examination) per term and ‘small tests’ per month. There are also weekly tests in the classroom once a month. We may also have classroom tests, like vocabulary tests, occasionally’. According to the participants, the difference between the ‘big tests’ and ‘small tests’ is the scope. That is, in ‘big tests’, ZH high school may invite or be invited by two or three other high schools to compete in examinations. The ‘small tests’ only involve students in the same grade within ZH high school. The results show a high possibility that testing is very important at ZH high school. The high frequency of examinations may be the reason why teachers spend most of their teaching time on grammar and vocabulary.

Students’ English learning expectations are also investigated in the questionnaire. In the student questionnaires, S-item 46 asks ‘what expectations do you have for your English?’. 29.03 % student participants indicate that they would be satisfied ‘as long as they can communicate in English smoothly and fluently’ while 22.58 % student participants expect their English to be ‘as good as English NS’. The third and fourth highest expectations are to arrive at a ‘professional level’ (16.14%) and at a ‘better than average level’ (16%). Among the rest of the student participants, some hope that their English will be fluent and accurate (around 6%), some take their teacher’s English proficiency as their final target (around 6%) while others would like to have a high level of ability in translation (around 3%). Although it is not clear by which standards ‘professional level’ and ‘better than average level’ are measured, it is quite obvious that student participants’ expectations are various and that only 22.58% expect to be ‘as good as English NS’.

6.2.3 Language using information

Before any discussion of the data, terms like ‘English native speaker’ ‘English non-native speaker’ need to be clarified. As I have discussed in section 2.2, the terms are problematic since they take ‘English native speakers’ as language models and imply that ‘English non-native speakers’ are deficient. In the questionnaire and in the interviews, I still use the term ‘English native speaker’ and ‘English non-native speaker’. This is because those terms are

widely and deeply internalised by the participants in the study. Furthermore, terms like ‘English native speaker’s English’, ‘American English’, ‘British English’, and ‘Standard English’ are found conflated used by participants, especially in interview. Although it has been clearly discussed the difference of those terms (e.g. Seidlhofer, 2010), for the transparency of data, I will follow what participant said when I present the data.

Having clarified those terms, this chapter now examines Table 6.3 in which teachers and students are found to have a similar English speaking frequency. Another obvious finding is that all the results tend to be negative ($M < 3$), which indicates that neither teacher participants nor student participants speak English frequently. In addition, it can be clearly seen that the mean score for speaking English with Chinese people is higher than that with English NS and NNS (except Chinese). It indicates that participants are more frequently speaking English with Chinese people than with others. The most likely reason for this is that they are surrounded with Chinese people meanwhile there may be fewer opportunities for them to meet and communicate with English NS and other English NNS in their daily lives. Means for the frequency of speaking in English are around 2, which suggest that participants seldom use English to communicate with English NS and English NNS (except Chinese). Thus, we may infer that English NS are possibly the least important communication target for the participants.

The participants’ access to various English accents is also addressed in the questionnaires. The result for item 45 and S-item 43 is around 3, which shows that most participants sometimes watch English videos or listen to English broadcasts (see table 6.4). In the English videos or broadcasts, the frequency of hearing various English accents (except American or British English accents) is slightly lower than ‘sometimes’ ($M = 2.7619$; $M = 2.44$). The situation becomes even worse in the listening material used in classroom teaching, in which the mean for hearing various English accents (except American or British English accents) is around 2. In short, the frequency of listening English in videos or broadcasts is very low, while the chance to access to other English accents except Anglo-American accents is very limited.

Table 6.3 English speaking frequency with English NS, NNS (except Chinese) and Chinese.

	<i>English speaking frequency with English NS (Item 42; S-item 40)</i>	<i>English speaking frequency with English NNS (except Chinese) (Item 43; S-item 41)</i>	<i>English speaking frequency with Chinese (Item 44; S-item 42)</i>
<i>Mean score (for teachers)</i>	2.29	2.29	2.62
<i>Mean score (for students)</i>	1.89	2.25	2.64
<i>Notes: 1=never; 2=seldom; 3=sometimes; 4=often; 5=always</i>			

Table 6.4 Frequency of listening to different English accents.

	<i>The frequency of watching English video or listening to English broadcasts (Item 45; S-item 43)</i>	<i>The frequency of listening to other English accents except Anglo-American accents in videos or broadcasts (Item 46; S-item 44)</i>	<i>The frequency of listening to other English accents except Anglo-American accents in listening material in class (Item 47; S-item 45)</i>
<i>Mean score (for teachers)</i>	3.33	2.76	2.10
<i>Mean score (for students)</i>	2.70	2.44	2.46

Notes: 1=never; 2=seldom; 3=sometimes; 4=often; 5=always

6.3 Perceptions of global Englishes concepts

6.3.1 Familiarity with various Englishes

Question items 1-7 are designed to investigate teacher participants' familiarity with different English accents. Items 1-7 include accents from three English speaking countries (USA, UK and Australia), accents from one Outer Circle country (India) and three Expanding Circle countries (Japan, China and Italy) (see Table 6.5). To clarify, terms like 'American English accent' or 'Indian English accent' do not imply that there are varieties of English like American-English or Indian-English. Instead, the terms represent various Englishes used by people from these countries. Participants are likely to have different conceptualisations of these terms with their own understandings. The results for the degree of familiarity with different English accents are shown in Table 6.5

Table 6.5 Familiarity with various accents.

<i>Familiarity with various accents</i>	<i>Chinese English accent</i>	<i>American English accent</i>	<i>British English accent</i>	<i>Australian English accent</i>	<i>Indian English accent</i>	<i>Japanese English accent</i>	<i>Italian English accent</i>
<i>Mean score</i>	2.52	2.67	3	4.38	5.20	5.33	5.38
<i>Note: 1=very familiar....6= much more unfamiliar</i>							

It can be clearly seen that the Chinese English accent is the most familiar accent for teacher participants. The most likely reason for this is that they are Chinese and listen to Chinese people speaking English more frequently. The second and third most familiar accents for participants are American English and British English. The slightly higher mean score for American English indicates that American English may be more popular than British English for teacher participants. The familiarity of the Australian English accent ranks at the fourth

place, which shows that the degree of familiarity is not so high, although Australia is an English speaking country. Two possible reasons for this result are: that participants know that Australia is an English speaking country but do not often hear Australian accents; that participants may not be clear about which countries are English-speaking countries around the world or do not count Australia as an English-speaking country. Results for familiarity with English accents from the remainder of the countries (Japan, India and Italy) are definitely negative ($5 < M < 6$), which suggests that participants are unfamiliar with these accents. The results for Japanese English and Indian English accents are quite surprising since both countries are geographically close to China.

6.3.2 ‘English NS’, ‘authentic English’ and ‘English ownership’

From the results below (see Table 6.6), we can see that teachers and students have quite similar perceptions of ‘English NS’ ‘authentic English’ and ‘English ownership’.

Table 6.6 ‘English NS’ ‘authentic English’ and ‘English ownership’.

	<i>English NS refers to British or American nationals? (Item 12; S-item 12)</i>	<i>Authentic English refers to English that is used by English NS in their daily lives (Item 13; S-item 13)</i>	<i>Except English NS, no one has the right to change or adapt English (Item 17; S-item 17)</i>	<i>English belongs to people who use English (Item 18; S-item 18)</i>
<i>Mean score (for teachers)</i>	2.57	3.24	2.14	4.29
<i>Mean score (for students)</i>	2.65	2.83	1.77	4.49
<i>Note: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree</i>				

In terms of the interpretation of ‘English NS’, participants showed slightly negative but close to neutral attitudes to the statement that ‘“English native speaker” refers to British or American nationals?’. Neutral attitudes are also found to the statement that ‘authentic English refers to English that is used by English NS in their daily lives’. Attitudes become much clearer in terms of the understanding of ‘English ownership’. Mean scores for item and S-item 17 are around 2, which represents a slight disagreement with the statement ‘except English native speakers, no one has the right to change or adapt English’. In item and S-item 18, the concept of ‘English ownership’ is expressed in a more positive statement, that is, ‘English belongs to people who use English’. Results show very positive attitudes to this statement, with mean scores around 4.3. It seems that participants believe that English is not exclusive to English native speakers and everyone who uses English has the right to change or adapt the language.

6.3.3 ‘Communication target’ and ‘Englishes’

Results for items and S-items 14, 15 and 16 are surprisingly similar with a tendency to scale ‘neutral’ (see Table 6.7). Mean scores for items and S-items 14 and 15 are 2.7 and 3.2, which suggests that participants think that American or British and other English speakers are equal communication targets for Chinese people speaking English, or suggests that they are not clear who Chinese people usually communicate with in English. The attitude towards the plural form ‘Englishes’ is also neutral. As previously guessed, it may indicate a ‘no idea’ mind, or a ‘neither reject nor accept’ position.

6.4 Perceptions of global Englishes in communication

6.4.1 Accent and identity

Although the results of items and S-items 17 and 18 indicate that participants believe that English belongs to people who use it and that every user has the right to change and adapt English, items and S-items 9 and 10 show some conflicting results (see Table 6.8). The mean score for item and S-item 9 is around 4, which suggests that they want to sound more like British or American English speakers. Teachers’ attitudes towards being identified as Chinese

are quite negative, since the mean score is 2.19, which is quite close to ‘disagree’ for the statement ‘when I speak English, I want to be identified as Chinese’.

It is also interesting to compare the results obtained from teacher and student participants. The mean score of 4.5238 obtained from item 9 in the teachers’ questionnaire is higher than the mean score of 3.7012 obtained from the same question in the students’ questionnaire. It may indicate that teachers have a stronger desire to sound like a British or American English speaker than student participants. In terms of attitudes towards being identified as Chinese when speaking English, teacher participants show much more negative attitudes (M=2.1905) than student participants (3.4643).

Table 6.7 ‘Communication target’ and ‘Englishes’.

	<i>Most Chinese use English to communicate with American or British nationals?(Item 14; S-item 14)</i>	<i>Most Chinese use English to communicate with other English speakers (except American or British nationals) (Item 15; S-item 15)</i>	<i>There are various Englishes, like Indian English or Singapore English (Item 16; S-item 16)</i>
<i>Mean score (for teachers)</i>	2.76	3.24	3.38
<i>Mean score (for students)</i>	2.99	2.71	3.00
<i>Note: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree</i>			

Table 6.8 English accent and identity.

	<i>When I speak English, I want to sound like a British or American national (Item 9; S-item 9)</i>	<i>When I speak English, I want to be identified as Chinese (Item 10; S-item 10)</i>
<i>Mean score</i>	4.52	2.19

<i>(for teachers)</i>		
<i>Mean score</i>	<i>3.70</i>	<i>3.46</i>
<i>(for students)</i>		
<i>Note: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree</i>		

6.4.2 Acceptance of their own accents and others' accents

The results show that participants do not want to be identified as Chinese when they speak English, but they are tolerant of their Chinese accent if it does not cause any problems with understanding (see Table 6.9). Tolerance becomes even higher when it is related to the interlocutors' accents. In item 38 and S-item 36, the statement 'during communication, I can accept various English accents as long as they do not cause any problems with understanding' obtains a mean score of 3.4, which suggests definite acceptance and tolerance of various accents in communication.

6.4.3 Accuracy, fluency and code-switching

Results are all slightly positive (see Table 6.10). Mean scores for item 39 and S-item 37 are around 3. From their neutral attitude, we may infer that accuracy and fluency may be equally important for participants. Similar mean scores are found in item 42 and S-item 38, which are related to the usefulness of code-switching in communication. The attitude between 'neutral' and 'agree' may suggest that participants think that code-switching is useful but not very useful. Overall, all these means scores are higher than 3 although only slightly. We can safely draw the conclusion that teacher participants have a certain degree of tolerance with regard to fluency and code-switching in communication.

Table 6.9 Attitudes to their own Chinese accent and the various English accents of others.

	<i>I don't mind my Chinese accent as long as it does not cause any problem with understanding</i>	<i>During communication, I can accept various English accents as long as they do not cause any problems with understanding</i>
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	<i>(Item 11; S-item 11)</i>	<i>(Item 38; S-item 36)</i>
<i>Mean score</i> <i>(for teachers)</i>	2.91	3.95
<i>Mean score</i> <i>(for students)</i>	3.07	3.41
<i>Note: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree</i>		

Table 6.10 Accuracy, fluency and code-switching.

	<i>In communication, I pay more attention to accuracy rather than fluency (Item 39; S-item 37)</i>	<i>Code-switching is useful in communication (Item 40; S-item 38)</i>
<i>Mean score</i> <i>(for teachers)</i>	3.05	3.43
<i>Mean score</i> <i>(for students)</i>	3.16	3.23
<i>Note: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree</i>		

6.5 Perceptions of global English in classroom teaching

6.5.1 Attitudes to their own English accent and students' language accuracy in class

The mean score for item 20 is near 4 (see Table 6.11), which indicates that teacher participants are concerned about their Chinese accent in class because most of them slightly agree that English with a Chinese accent makes teaching less professional. Comparing the result of item 11, the participants' are less tolerant of their Chinese accent in teaching than in

communication. A similar result is found when comparing items 21 and 40. The mean score for item 21 is 4.1429, which shows that teacher participants care about grammar accuracy very much. But item 38, as discussed above, suggests a neutral attitude towards accuracy and fluency in communication. These conflicting results may indicate that teachers have a higher tolerance of language ‘error’ in communication than in classroom teaching.

Table 6.11 Attitudes to their own English accent and students’ errors in the classroom

Table 6.11 Attitudes to their own English accent and students’ errors in the classroom.

	<i>My English with a Chinese accent will make me less professional (Item 20)</i>	<i>I will immediately correct students’ grammar mistakes in the classroom (Item 21)</i>
<i>Mean score(for teachers)</i>	3.80	4.14
<i>Note: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree</i>		

6.5.2 Various English accents in class

It is noted from Table 6.12 that the results are all slightly positive, except S-item 21. The mean score for item 22 is close to 4 while the mean score for the same statement in the student questionnaires is less than 3. This may suggest that teachers have high expectations of American or British accents in class while students have other expectations. As for the degree of agreement regarding making various English accents heard in the classroom, both students and teachers’ attitudes tend to be neutral. One possible interpretation could be that English accents are not considered to be as important in classroom teaching, which could be supported by the result of item 34, discussed at the beginning of this chapter.

Table 6.12 Various English accents in classroom teaching.

	<i>I only expect listening material with American or British accents</i>	<i>I would like my students to understand various English</i>
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	<i>(item 22; S-item 21)</i>	<i>accents (item 23; S-item 22)</i>
<i>Mean score (for teachers)</i>	3.67	3.24
<i>Mean score (for students)</i>	2.70	3.12
<i>Note: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree</i>		

6.5.3 Various cultures in class

The mean score for S-item 23 is 2.05, which shows a definite negative attitude to the exclusive teaching of American or British culture in the classroom (see Table 6.13). A striking contrast is identified in the corresponding item in the teachers' questionnaires where the mean score is close to 4. From the comparison, we may infer that teacher participants have higher expectations of American or British culture in classroom than student participants. However, in terms of introducing various cultures in the classroom, both teachers and students show a very positive attitude, with the mean score around 3.9. Regarding local culture, as the results for item 26 and S-item 25 show, participants have a tendency to agree with the introduction of more local culture in classroom teaching ($M=3.689$). It will be obvious when we compare the results of S-items 23, 24 and 25 in the students' questionnaires that the rank for the expectation of different cultures from highest to lowest will be: various cultures, local cultures, and then American or British cultures, where Anglo-American cultures are in the lowest place; while in the teachers' questionnaire, the order changes, with Anglo-American cultures being the highest expectation.

Table 6.13 Various cultures in the classroom.

	<i>I only focus on culture from Anglo-American countries</i> <i>(Item 24; S-item 23)</i>	<i>I would like my students to be introduced to various cultures in the classroom</i> <i>(Item 25; S-item 24)</i>	<i>I would like to introduce more local cultures in classroom</i> <i>(Item 26; S-item 25)</i>
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<i>Mean score (for teachers)</i>	3.71	3.90	3.66
<i>Mean score (for students)</i>	2.05	3.98	3.68
<i>Note: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree</i>			

6.6 Conclusion

From the above data analysis, we can gain a general picture of participants' personal information, teaching information, and English using information. Teachers and learners spend a long time teaching/learning English in school. Their main teaching material is the textbook and the main teaching content is grammar and lexis. More importantly, students take tests every month in ZH high school. As for language usage in practice, participants do not usually speak English with foreigners and the chance to listen to accents besides Chinese and Anglo-American is also very limited.

Based on the above findings, participants' global Englishes awareness could be interpreted and summarized as follows. The first and most important point is that although American English and British English are still the two most familiar forms of English, their privileged status seems to have become insecure. For example, both teacher participants and student participants tend to doubt the exclusive position of Americans or British as English NS. In addition, instead of fully agreeing, they take a neutral position regarding whether authentic English is the English of NS. More importantly, as findings of previous global Englishes researches (e.g. Jenkins, 2007, 2014; Widdowson, 1994), English NS' ownership of English is both questioned and challenged by participants in this research. Both teacher participants and student participants strongly object to the idea that only English NS have the right to adapt or change English. They firmly believe that English belongs to people who use English and English users have the right to change English (ibid.). For student participants, to be English-NS-like only accounts for 22.58 % of their English learning expectations. Therefore, we can see that participants seem to have a certain awareness of global Englishes and that they are beginning to question the privileged position of English NS and their ownership of English.

But this emerging awareness is far from being mature. For most of the time, participants seem to take a wait-and-see attitude to new things. From previous findings, we can see many neutral attitudes. There are two possible reasons for this 'wait-and-see' attitude. One is that the participants are only familiar with American English and British English, so they may not have a clear opinion about other Englishes (Jennkins, 2007). The other possible reason for the neutral position is that participants do not seem to be knowledgeable about the world outside school. This is possibly because they spend most of their time working at micro level, on subjects such as grammar-lexical learning, but ignore or are ignored by the outside world (McKay and Bokhorst-Heng, 2008; Kumaravadivelu, 2012). As a result, they seem to have quite a vague idea about their communication targets when they are using English. There is a danger that they will randomly choose a communication target and then take it as an English learning or teaching model. One of the possible causes for the lack of familiarity with and vague vision of the world may be the limited frequency with which these participants speak English with people from different L1 backgrounds or listen to various Englishes through different resources. As for the factors that reduce this frequency, more will be revealed in the next two chapters.

In terms of language and identity, it seems teacher participants have higher expectations with regard to being British or American like and lower expectations with regard to being identified as Chinese than students. One possible reason for the difference is that teacher participants have been influenced by external factors for longer than students, such as external formal or informal evaluations based on Standard English (Garrett, 2010). Both groups of participants believe that accuracy and fluency are of equal importance in communication. Also the usefulness of code-switching is noted. However, in the classroom, the tolerance of language fluency and code-switching problems seems to be greatly reduced. Both teacher participants and student participants have very high expectations of the immediate correction of grammar or pronunciation mistakes. Thus, a conflicting attitude is found in terms of language accuracy and fluency in communication outside the classroom and language teaching/learning inside the classroom which is corresponding to Jenkins' research in 2007 and Galloway and Ross's research in 2015.

As for the expectations of various English accents being introduced through listening materials in classroom, the results are slightly optimistic. Mean scores for the expectation of 'only American or British accents in classroom' from teachers and students are respectively 3.6667 and 2.7012. Thus, it can be seen that participants, especially student participants, do

not have high expectations of American or British accents being the only accents used in the classroom. In fact, they have an open mind with regard to more accents being introduced to the classroom. As with previous interpretations of the 'neutral position', this indicates an optimistic attitude towards the inclusion of various accents. Overall, at this moment, it may find that participants can accept various English accents in communication outside the classroom and inside the classroom to some degree. Compared to the neutral attitudes to the introduction of various accents into classroom, participants seem to be much less hesitant to include various accents in their teaching/learning. As for the fact that most of the teacher participants only focus on culture from the USA or the UK in the classroom, student participants express their dissatisfaction in their answers to S-item 23 where the mean score for the expectation of only American or British culture being used is only 2.0549.

From participants' attitudes to introducing various accents and various cultures, it can be seen that the expectations for the exclusive position of American or British accents or culture are not very high. In fact, from the student participants' perspective, it is quite low. Attitudes towards various accents or cultures, on the contrary, is either neutral or more positive. Thus, as data suggested previously, awareness of global Englishes is developing. In the next two chapters, more details about participants' beliefs to global Englishes and to English pedagogy will be given and discussed.

Chapter 7 Qualitative findings on general pedagogical goals and linguistic knowledge teaching

7.1 Introduction

Having presented quantitative data about participants' general perspectives on global Englishes in chapter 6, in this and the next chapter, I will analyse qualitative data based on NEC documents, classroom observations and interviews. The NEC document, as being partly introduced in the literature review (see section 4.4.1), is the 2011 version that was designed by MOE for students from grade 3 to grade 9 in China. The NEC statements consist of four parts: introduction, general pedagogic goals, five sub pedagogic aspects, and suggestions for implementation. In this thesis, the second and third parts of the NEC statements will be analysed.

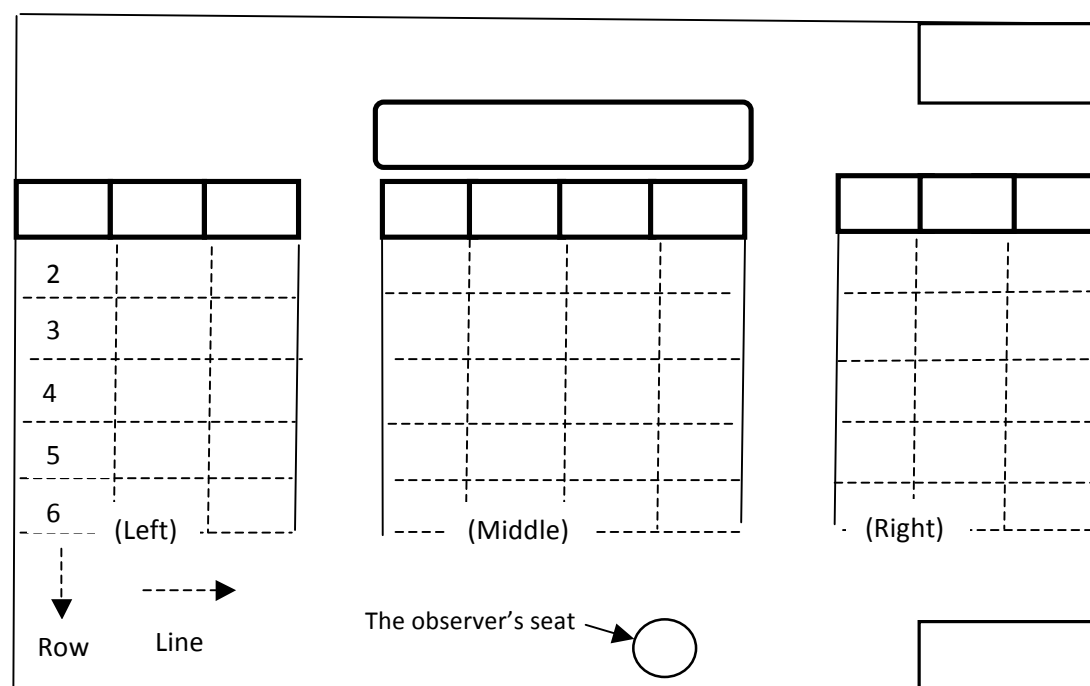
The classroom observation data come from six grade-eight classes with six English teachers over 410 minutes. In ZH junior high school, each class consists of 50-60 students. The student seating plan is presented in chart 7.1 where the seats are divided into 6 rows and 10 lines. Seat assignment is related to students' examination marks and classroom performance. Students who are considered to be good learners by the teacher are arranged in the front or middle zone; while students whose performances are far from satisfactory sit in the back or on side.

The data regarding perceptions come from interviews with six teacher participants (pseudonyms): YANG, BING, LAN, YAO, JIANG, and JAN. All these participants are female and aged between 25 and 35. BING and LAN have Master's degrees in English major while all the others have Bachelor's degrees. Except YAO who has more than six years teaching experience, the rest of the teachers have been teaching for around 3 to 4 years. Interviews were conducted before or after class and most of them were semi-structured or unstructured. The total interview time was 563.5 minutes. Each teacher was interviewed at least three times.

In my coding procedure, I used qualitative content analysis to identify themes; and text matrices to describe the coding (see section 5.3.5). Six major themes were identified by following the pedagogical structures in the NEC statements, which included general pedagogical goals, linguistic knowledge/skills, learning affects and attitudes, learning strategies, cultural awareness and tests (see table 7.1). Similar contents or topics in statements,

observation, and interview data were assigned to four major themes respectively. Then each theme was divided into sub categories. Since this study uses content analysis, I have not employed many transcription conventions for the interview material.

Chart 7.1 Students' seating plan and observer's seat:



Based on Spolsky's language policy framework (2004), this research analyses data by comparing and contrasting statements in the NEC (National English Curriculum), performance in classroom practice and participants' perceptions from interviews and questionnaires in order to obtain a complete interpretation of English education policy in China. The NEC document is organized with three parts. The first part is the overall statements on general pedagogical goal. The second part is the main body of the document which includes specific descriptions of five pedagogical goals, i.e. linguistic knowledge, language skills, learning affect and attitude, learning strategy and cultural awareness. The last part of NEC is suggestions on language test and other practical teaching skills. Basing on the main structure and content of NEC document, research data thus are coded into six themes. The specific themes that are coded and analysed are summarised in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 Coding and analysis framework.

	<i>Theme1: General education goals</i>	<i>Theme2: Linguistic knowledge/skills</i>	<i>Theme3: Learning affects and attitudes</i>	<i>Theme4: Learning strategies</i>	<i>Theme5: Cultural awareness</i>	<i>Theme6: Tests</i>
<i>Curriculum statement (data from NEC documents)</i>						
<i>Classroom performance (data from classroom observations)</i>						
<i>Perceptions (data from interviews)</i>						

7.2 General pedagogic goals

7.2.1 Statement in NEC

There are two types of pedagogical goals stated in the NEC. One is a general pedagogic goal for English learning; while the other consists of specific objectives for each level. The general objective is stated as the following:

‘Through English learning, students should develop a preliminary comprehensive language-using competence, develop mentally and improve the humanities cultivated

manners...Linguistic skills, linguistic knowledge, affect and attitude, learning strategy and cultural awareness are five aspects of the English overall pedagogic goal. These five pedagogic aspects demonstrate that English learning is not only a tool for communication, but also a process to cultivate humanities manners...’ (Personal translation from MOE, 2011, p8).

The other pedagogical goal stated in the NEC is divided into specific objectives. There are nine levels of benchmarks for English learning from grade 5 to grade 12. Since my research focuses on junior students and my participants are mainly teaching or learning at grade 8 where English proficiency is supposed to be between levels 4 and 5, I would like to use the benchmarks for level 5 as an example. The benchmark for level 5 of student learning is translated literally as follows:

Table 7.2 Benchmark for level 5.

<i>Benchmark level</i>	<i>Pedagogical goal description</i>
<i>Level 5</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <i>1. Have clear English learning motivation, positive and active English learning attitude and English learning confidence.</i> <i>2. Be able to make sense of discussions on familiar topics and participate in the discussion. Be able to communicate with others on daily life topics and express opinions. Be able to understand the main ideas of readings, magazines and newspapers at an appropriate level and overcome the obstacle of strange words. Be able to adopt different reading strategies for different reading purposes. Be able to make drafts and revise short essays independently.</i> <i>3. Be able to cooperate with others to solve problems and report results. Be able to make a self-evaluation of language learning and summarize learning methods. Be able to make use of various educational resources for language learning;</i> <i>4. To further enhance the understanding and appreciation of cultural difference</i>

(Personal translation from MOE, 2011, p11)

Many similarities between the NEC statements and global Englishes can be found in these two types of pedagogical goal. The most typical common feature is the understanding of language. From the above NEC statements it can be seen that the general objective is to obtain a ‘comprehensive language-using competence’. The term ‘comprehensive language-using competence’ is the literal translation from Chinese and is frequently used by Chinese scholars (e.g. Wen, 2012; Gong, 2011). By using the term ‘comprehensive language-using competence’, the NEC attempts to shift teachers/learners focus on grammatical knowledge to multiple pedagogical aspects. It indicates that linguistic knowledge or skills are not considered as the only way to learn English well; students’ affect and attitudes, learning strategies and cultural awareness also play important roles in English language learning. Students are required not only to cope with their individual cognitive world, but are required to deal with their affect and attitudes towards other people and the outside world. They not only need to have knowledge of the language, but also need to have cultural knowledge and an understanding of how to handle cultural differences. Such a ‘comprehensive competence’ pedagogical objective seems to be compatible with global Englishes in which English is not merely interpreted on a grammatical level but also on pragmatic and cultural levels (see section 2.2).

Besides, the role of language attitude (item1 in the above table) in language learning is emphasized in the NEC statements. Similarly, the investigation of language attitudes is also an important topic in global Englishes researches (such as Garret, 2010; Jenkins, 2007; Galloway and Rose, 2015; Wang, 2013, see section 3.4.3). More common ground between the NEC and global Englishes can be found in item 3 where the spirit of cooperation is emphasized in language learning and using. The spirit of cooperation involves both contribution and sacrifice during the interaction with others for a common goal. This spirit is similar to what is needed in communication in ELF settings where accommodation strategies such as ‘think of others’ and ‘change for others’ are important for successful communication (see pragmatic skills discussed in global Englishes practice in section 2.2.3).

It appears that there are many aspects in the NEC pedagogical objectives that are compatible with global Englishes. But it is too early to draw the conclusion that the NEC is global Englishes oriented. As Spolsky (2009) and Shohamy (2006) remind us, the policy statement is not always consistent with the implementation, due to the language ideology and other

external powers (see section 2.4). Thus, in order to gain a clear understanding of what the language policy really is, more work needs to be completed to examine the specific content of the NEC and to compare it with the implementation of the NEC. Therefore, in the following section/chapter? I would like to examine what the objectives teachers believed and achieved.

7.2.2 Performance in the classroom

As Steve Walsh (2006) defines, pedagogic goals ‘represent the minute-by-minute decisions teachers make’ and are ‘based on the assumption that all interaction in the L2 classroom is goal-relevant and are demonstrated in the talk-in-interaction of the lesson’ (p.65). That is to say, pedagogic goals are changeable and flexible in accordance with interactions between teachers and students. But what Steve Walsh defines are specific moment-objectives that teachers have in their minute-by-minute teaching. Besides these small changeable specific goals, there is always a main pedagogic goal that teachers need to achieve in every class (Walsh, 2006). Since it is hard to include and identify all these small pedagogic goals in language teaching practice in this section, I would like to provide a general picture of the main purpose of each class based on teachers’ instructions at the beginning of the class.

From more than ten classes of three teachers that I observed for nearly three months, I found that grammar and vocabulary were most frequently mentioned as pedagogical goals in teachers’ instructional discourse.

Example 7.1: JAN’s instruction language in English class

1. *‘In today’s class we will first read new words in the word list and then we will learn*
2. *the usage of these new words’*

3. *‘We will first review the words we learned yesterday and after that we will learn some*
4. *sentence patterns and other relevant grammar from unit 6’*

5. *‘Ok. Be quiet. I will select a student to read the passage and then I will explain the*
6. *grammar points’*

7. *‘All students sit down. We will begin our class by reviewing the usage of ‘to be’ and*
8. *‘be going to’. After that you will do some grammar exercises’*

9. *'Turn to page 56. Today we will explain the rest of the grammar and will finish this*
10. *passage'*

11. *'Take out your examination paper. We will go through each item and see which*
12. *grammar points you are not clear about and where you have made mistakes'*

By comparing the statements of pedagogical goals in the NEC and the performed pedagogical goals in practice, the inconsistencies can easily be seen. As we have seen, the main pedagogic goals in teaching practice focus on linguistic skills and knowledge. Other pedagogical aspects, especially global Englishes-relevant goals, like learning strategy and cultural awareness are not addressed in the teachers' instructional discourse. This finding is similar to the questionnaire result in which 42.85% teachers state that they spend most of their teaching time on grammar-lecturing and 33.33% teachers claim that vocabulary and grammar teaching take up most of their teaching time (see section 6.2.2). Thus, although it does not mean that they were absent in specific teaching moments (since we have not examined and analysed small teaching moments yet), it is clear that linguistic skills and knowledge were the priority in classroom teaching and that not all the pedagogical goals stated in the NEC are achieved in practice.

At this point, it is quite safe to conclude that the emphases on linguistic knowledge and skills learning conflicts with the 'comprehensive-competence' goal stated in the NEC, where five pedagogical goals are equally required to be achieved in language learning/teaching.

However, we cannot simply state that teaching practice is less relevant to global Englishes. Although the main focus in teaching practice is on linguistic skills and knowledge, there are no data that explain what students learned and how they learned. As we have discussed in the literature review (see section 2.2 and 3.3), what the global Englishes concept criticises is not learning English forms but learning one fixed language form regardless of students' needs. In other words, what matters is not whether language forms are learned or not, but what language forms are learned and why. Thus, more data on linguistic knowledge teaching need to be obtained to decide to what extent teaching practice is relevant to global Englishes. Before those data are presented (see section 7.3), I would like to return to the pedagogical goal topic to investigate the participants' perceptions, so that I can reveal the real language beliefs of participants by comparing what they have done and what they say.

7.2.3 Perceptions of participants

Some teachers are not clear about the pedagogical goals that are stated by the NEC. Take JAN as an example. She thinks that there are three pedagogical goals instead of five in the NEC. She even explains the three goals that she can remember incorrectly. For example, the attitude and affect goal stated in the NES is about students' English learning motivation, interest and confidence, but she misunderstands it as teachers' attitude to their job and their students.

Example 7.2:

13. JAN: *'The NEC requires teaching and learning from three aspects: knowledge,*
14. *attitude and some other values. The knowledge aspect involves imparting knowledge*
15. *to students; the attitude aspect requires teachers to love their students. Teachers*
16. *should also make friends with students and develop harmonious relationships with*
17. *students. I think it is quite reasonable'*

As for the implementations, most teachers demonstrate that it is quite hard to perform all of the requirements from the five pedagogical goals. They mainly focus on linguistic skills and knowledge in their teaching. Some believe that they have performed some pedagogical goals without being aware of it since they think that the statements of pedagogical goals are too abstract to be identified in practice. There are also some teachers who show little consideration for the NEC's five pedagogical goals and directly point out that their English teaching is for tests.

Example 7.3:

18. JAN: *'from my personal perspective, I think the curriculum's requirements are very good.*
19. *They cover a lot. But in daily language teaching classes, it is hard to perform all the*
20. *pedagogical goals. Some goals are more or less implemented. But it would be good if all*
21. *the pedagogical goals could be fulfilled.'*

22. WEN: *'To be honest, the curriculum's statement on the pedagogical goals is too*
23. *theoretical and abstract. Sometimes we are not sure whether we do it or not.'*

24. LAN: *'I feel that most of the pedagogical goals cannot be fulfilled in practice. What we*
25. *teach and what students learn is mainly linguistic knowledge. Learning strategy is not*
26. *involved in practice. There are still lots of students who have no idea how to study.'*

27. YAO: *'we did not do that. What we do is... to be honest...all our efforts are put into*
28. *passing tests. We focus on grammar knowledge.'*

29. BING: *'I think students cannot even reach the requirements for affect and attitudes. Some*
30. *students, obtain high scores in English tests, but when I ask about their motivation for*
31. *English learning, they do not know. They don't know why they are learning English. They*
32. *are just very obedient and do not dare to argue with teachers.'*

From teachers' perceptions, some potential reasons for the inconsistency between the stated pedagogical goals in the NEC and the performed pedagogical goals in teaching practice can be revealed: (1) teachers have a lack of knowledge about the NEC; (2) the five pedagogical goals in the NEC are too many to be fully performed; (3) the statements of pedagogical goals are too abstract to perform; (4) teachers care about tests more than anything else. Reasons (2) and (3) suggest that teachers do not follow the NEC due to intrinsic problems with it.

Reasons (1) and (4), show that teachers seem to discount the stated pedagogical goals of the NEC. The fact that teachers are not clear about the curriculum and do not show much consideration for the stated pedagogical goals indicates a bottom-up language practice. As we have discussed in the literature review section, in Spolsky's language policy framework (2004), language policy consists of language management, language ideology and language practice. Sometimes, there is a battle between language management and language practice where language management from the top tries to put certain ideologies into practice while language practice at the bottom would like to resist this ideology. One of the results of these battles will be that the implementation from the top fails and people from the bottom have more freedom. This result seems to correspond with Reasons (1) and (4) where teachers are not constrained by policy and have more freedom in their teaching practice.

However, as Shohamy (2006) suggests, language policy and practice are in a very complicated relationship and there are always implicit statements behind policy and practice. As a result, critical thinking is needed: what ideologies does the NEC contain? What ideologies is the NEC producing? Is this reproduction intentional or unintentional? What is the relationship between these ideologies and global Englishes? Why do teachers have different pedagogical goals from those in the NEC? Do teachers really have the freedom to

do what they want? To answer these questions, in the next section, I would like to analyse those five specific pedagogical goals in detail to investigate how they are described in the NEC, performed in teaching practice and perceived by teachers.

7.3 Linguistic knowledge/skill

In this section, I will discuss two pedagogical goals which both address linguistic aspects in language learning. The pedagogical goal relating to linguistic knowledge and skill is interpreted using three themes; phonology, lexis and grammar and function. Each theme will be discussed on three levels, i.e. how it is stated in the NEC document, how it is performed in the classroom and how it is perceived by teacher participants.

7.3.1 Phonology

7.3.1.1 Statement in the NEC

Phonology is considered to be a very important aspect of learning in the NEC. For level 5 (for students at grades 8 and 9) (see table 7.3), it requires that students' pronunciation and intonation should be 'basically correct' 'natural' and 'fluent' (MOE, 2011, P.19). In addition, students are expected to 'spell and read new words according to pronunciation rules and phonetic symbols' (ibid.). The criteria regarding 'correct', 'natural' and 'pronunciation rules' are not clearly explained.

Table 7.3 Benchmark for level 5 on phonology.

<i>Level</i>	<i>Linguistic knowledge</i>	<i>Description</i>
5	Phonology	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Learn about the importance of phonology in language learning; 2. In daily conversation, make sure that pronunciation and intonation are basically correct, natural and fluent; 3. Be able to understand different intentions and attitudes according

		<p><i>to stress and intonation and be able to express different intentions and attitudes by relying on stress and intonation;</i></p> <p>4. <i>Be able to spell and read new words according to pronunciation rules and phonetic symbols;</i></p>
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(Translated from MOE, 2011, p19)

Apart from the ambiguous expressions, there are many contradictory statements in Appendix 1 ‘phonology item list’ in NEC statements, where specific suggestions are given regarding phonology teaching. On the one hand, there are many statements relating to phonology which are compatible with global Englishes. For example, at the end of the first paragraph in Appendix 1, it stresses that ‘phonological teaching should combine semantics with context, and intonation with speech flow, instead of purely pursuing monophonic accuracy’ (MOE, 2011, p45). Besides the context-based perspective, the NEC statements also support learning various English accents. There is a whole paragraph on this in the NEC which states:

‘The English language has different accents. In language teaching, in order to develop students’ communicative competence, teachers should first help students to master the basics of one accent and then provide students with appropriate levels of exposure to different accents.’ (Translated from MOE, 2011, p45).

From this paragraph it can be seen, first, that the NEC recognizes that there are various English accents. More importantly, students are encouraged to learn more accents in their class after they have mastered one main accent, although the nature of this ‘one accent’ is not clear. Such statements on phonology are more or less relevant to global Englishes, where the varied nature of English accents is recognized and English learning is not bound to one fixed accent.

However, on the other hand, many more Standard English oriented statements are presented in the NEC on phonology learning. For example, the NEC lists strict rules about phonological teaching/learning which can be divided into four aspects. The first concerns basic pronunciation where vowel and consonant sounds and consonant clusters are included. The second aspect concerns stress: word stress placement and tonic stress placement. It is different to Jenkins’ LFC where the stress placement is considered important while the tonic stress is found to cause less issues with communication (2000, see section 2.2.3). The third aspects are liaison, weak form and assimilation, which are all considered less important in

communication and classified as non-lingua Franca core in Jenkins' work (2000). The fourth aspect of phonological teaching consists of intonation and rhythm. This last aspect is repeated many times in the NEC (MOE, 2011, P13, 14,15,16,19, 45), which indicates the important role that it has in phonology learning.

More importantly, in terms of how to learn these phonologic items, the NEC claims that,

'At the initial stage of language teaching, phonological teaching should mainly rely on imitation. Teachers should provide plenty of opportunities for students to listen, imitate and practice to help them to form good pronunciation habits' (MOE, 2011, p45).

Thus, pronunciation learning for the NEC is in a 'listen-imitate-practice' pattern. As with previous ambiguous terms, the question of whose English pronunciation/accents students should imitate is not addressed. In addition, this 'listen-imitate-practice' learning pattern may suggest that pronunciation tends to be fixed rather than flexible in accordance with the interlocutor and context. In short, the NEC is vague in terms of phonological goals. More importantly, many contradictory statements are found within the NEC. For example, on one hand it allows students to learn multiple accents and advocates the use of accent in accordance with context; on the other hand, it requires teaching/learning to follow strict Standard English based phonology rules. Such vague and contradictory statements may cause difficulties in the implementation process as teachers and learners are not clear exactly what rules they need to follow.

7.3.1.2 Performance in the classroom

The performance of English phonology in classroom teaching would be investigated from two aspects: what students hear and what they speak. According to the NEC, there are supposed to be other English listening practice sources, such as English radio or tapes. However, during the three months of classroom observation, only one English listening practice with an English tape occurred. The input of English phonology for students mainly comes from teachers' spoken English. Such a finding is supported by the results of questionnaires which show the frequency of listening to English from video or broadcasts is very low (see section 6.2, questionnaire item 45 and S-item 43). Thus, teachers' spoken English will be analysed in terms of phonology in this section.

All six English teachers graduated in English major from university. None of them have a completely Standard English accent (i.e. a British or American English accent). All their English accents are mixed with a Chinese accent. For most of them, English language rhythm, tonic stress and intonation are affected by their L1 but none of this causes them any issues with communication. As for their pronunciation, some salient features are found that relate to Jenkins' LFC (2000, see section 2.2). For example, /p//b//t/ and /ə//ð/, are more likely to be pronounced as /pə//bə//tə/ and /s/ /z/. Other features, like liaison, weak form and assimilation, rarely occur. Besides this, little self-correction or modification of accent or pronunciation occur in teachers' discourse in class teaching.

It is more interesting to find that teachers do not like to deal with students' phonology issues in the classroom. In the classroom, there are chances for the students to speak English: they read vocabulary and passages out loud in early morning self-study class and read vocabulary out loud, answer questions, and recite or read short passages in later classes. Students have stronger Chinese accents in their spoken English and typically reflect Jenkins' research on non-English native speakers' pronunciation (2000). During the three months of classroom observation, the teacher corrected students' English pronunciation on only three occasions, all of which were during new-words-learning activities. What is more interesting is that when teachers teach new words, they explain how to pronounce the word correctly and most of the time they remind students where to place the word stress. However, when students actually use words with the 'wrong' word stress in class, teachers seem to deliberately ignore this and let it pass. Overall, teachers spend little time on students' accents or pronunciation in class. Such tolerant attitudes towards 'pronunciation mistakes' in classroom teaching practice contradicts the questionnaire result in item 21 where most of teachers agreed that they would immediately correct students' grammar mistakes in the classroom (see section 6.5.1).

It seems that phonology in teaching practice is quite relevant to global Englishes. More importantly, it also appears that students and teachers' attitudes to their accents and pronunciation are compatible with global Englishes, quite generous attitudes are taken to accents and a pragmatic strategy – 'let it pass'— is adopted for their English (see section 2.2). But is it really true that teachers do not care about their English accents or those of their students? Why are teachers' behaviours as different from their attitudes as expressed in the questionnaires? To answer this it is needed to analyse what teachers said about phonology in their teaching in their interviews.

7.3.1.3 Perceptions of participants

In terms of how the Chinese accent affects their English accent, teachers have different attitudes and understandings. Some teachers do not mind that their English accent is affected by a Chinese accent. They believe that it is unnecessary for everybody to sound like BBC or VOA broadcasters, since people may use English for different purposes and in different contexts. They explain that they are teachers and their purpose when using English is to impart knowledge rather than to be a broadcaster. As long as they can fulfil their pedagogical goal, they do not worry about their accent.

Example 7.4:

33. JAN: *There are always some words that I cannot pronounce correctly and my English*
34. *sounds like Chinese English. I worried about it before. But now I think of it in another*
35. *way. You know, I don't think it is important anymore. My feeling is that it makes no*
36. *difference whether a teacher has a good accent or not. Teaching ability, in other words,*
37. *their professional performance, cannot be measured by their pronunciation. I have seen*
38. *some teachers who have great pronunciation and accent. But you know what, they may*
39. *not be good at teaching.*

40. XIONG: *As for English with Chinese accents, my attitude is that I neither object, nor*
41. *accept it. Actually, I do not care about my accent in language teaching. My job is to teach*
42. *them knowledge and help them to pass examinations. As long as they can understand me,*
43. *accents are not important at all.*

44. LIAN: *It depends on what you want. If you want to be a broadcaster, you need to use very*
45. *authentic Standard English. But if you use English just for daily communication, or in*
46. *situations where the requirement of accuracy is not so high, it doesn't matter whether you*
47. *speak English with a Chinese accent or with some minor mistakes. Just like foreigners*
48. *who are learning Chinese, when they say 'Nihao' (hello), we can easily identify that they*
49. *are foreigners, since they bring their first language to Chinese. We think that is fun and*
50. *we don't mind that accent.*

However, there are also teachers who prefer Standard English accents and who dislike Chinese accents in their spoken English. Some teachers suggested that all teachers should have standard accents because students may meet many English teachers during their study years. If these teachers have different accents, students will have to spend time getting used to different teachers' accents and their language learning might be affected.

Example 7.5:

*51. SHA: I prefer my students to study in an authentic English environment. Try to think like
52. this; in their three years of junior high school study, students have got used to their
53. English teachers' accent, but when they graduate and go to senior high school, their
54. English teacher will change. Thus, they have to spend a long time getting used to their
55. new teacher's accent. It makes it very hard for them in their first senior high school year.*

SHA's perception of English accents reflects the strong influence of Standard English. She thinks that being universal, Standard English makes communication much easier. There are many problems with SHA's language beliefs. First, as we have discussed in the literature review (see section 2.2), there is no such thing as universal English or a universal English accent. People from different lingual cultural backgrounds may inevitably bring the influences of L1 to their English speaking. However, such accents do not necessarily cause intelligibility problems (e.g. Jenkins, 2007, see section 2.2). As Jenkins's LFC suggests, some phonetic features with local language traits can be easily understood with both speakers' efforts and the use of accommodation strategies in the context. But in SHA's case, she not only ignores the important role of accommodation strategies in communication, but also advocates an authority image of teachers in the classroom where students need to adjust to and accommodate their teachers' new accents rather than both sides making an effort to solve accent issues.

ZHAN also dislikes her English with a Chinese accent. But unlike SHA, ZHAN worries more about others' judgement of her English, since she thinks that people may link her English accent to her English proficiency, which makes her feel inferior. Participants who share similar perspectives with ZHAN are not in a minority. According to the result of item 20 in the teacher questionnaires, the mean score is 3.80, which indicates that most teachers believe that their Chinese accent makes them seem less professional (see section 6.5.1).

Example 7.6:

56. ZHAN: *From the bottom of my heart, I am not confident...people may think that your*
 57. *English is very poor because of your accent. I know it is not right to pay too much*
 58. *attention to the evaluation of others, but I cannot help it. I am worried that people may*
 59. *look down on me. More importantly, I think that I am a little bit lost. I know my English*
 60. *will never be as good and as authentic as English native speakers' English, but I am tired*
 61. *and suffer with feelings of being weak and inferior. Sometimes, I just regret choosing*
 62. *English as my major when I was at university.*

As for their perceptions of students' English accents and pronunciations, most teachers believe that students need to follow the Standard English model. One of the reasons for this is that Standard English is considered to be the most 'authentic English'. Apart from learning the English native speakers' accent, students also need to pay attention to liaison, weak forms and vowel quality which will make their English more 'authentic'.

Example 7.7:

63. ZHAN: *It is necessary to learn liaison, weak forms and other small features because they*
 64. *make your English more authentic. We are learning their language and will communicate*
 65. *with them. Of course, we have to follow their rules and try our best to imitate them.*

66. ZHAN: *Well, lack of these small features, like liaison or weak forms would not affect*
 67. *communication or cause misunderstandings, but, it would be less authentic. It is not*
 68. *good.*

69. ZHAN: *To be authentic is to speak in the same way as English native speakers. You know,*
 70. *when they speak English, there are lots of liaisons. But we Chinese, when we speak*
 71. *English, we speak one word by one word. It is not authentic.*

It is obvious that ZHAN believes that the ownership of English belongs to English native speakers. More importantly, even though she realizes that small features, like liaison, weak forms or vowel quality, have little potential to cause misunderstandings, she still insists that students need to pay attention to these things because they make their English more authentic.

Until now, we have found many contradictions between teachers' words and their behaviour. They claim that students need to follow Standard English's phonological rules but in

classroom teaching, they spend little time on phonological issues. Some teachers revealed the reasons for this in their interviews:

Example 7.8:

72. LIAN: *I don't care much about student pronunciation mistakes or accents. At present,*
73. *most of the examination focus is on evaluating students' grammar and reading skills.*
74. *Since there is no oral test, I do not like to spend teaching time on correcting their*
75. *pronunciation or accents. It is nonsense.*

76. JAN: *Why don't I care about students' accents or pronunciation? Obviously, it is because*
77. *of the test system. You know, we (she and other English teachers) all graduated from*
78. *English major at university. We have learned linguistics and culture. We are clear that*
79. *the purpose of learning a language is to communicate, to make ourselves understood.*
80. *Thus, I don't think their minor mistakes in pronunciation will affect their communication*
81. *in future. But the most important reason that I don't correct them is that pronunciation is*
82. *not tested in English examination and I have to make*
83. *use of every minute in class to teach or train students about what examinations will test.*

The above statements, the questionnaire data (see section 6.5.1) and the interview data suggest that teachers would like to correct 'wrong' English accents which do not conform to Standard English immediately, but they still choose to deliberately ignore all things that are relevant to accent and pronunciation in classroom teaching. The fact that teachers do not correct their students' pronunciation mistakes or accents is not because they have global Englishes awareness, but due to the wash back of tests. In this way, it is quite safe to draw the conclusion that in terms of phonology, teachers' language beliefs are heavily influenced by Standard English ideology, but their teaching behaviour is controlled by tests.

7.3.2 Lexis

7.3.2.1 Statement in the NEC

Apart from phonology, another important aspect of linguistic knowledge is lexis learning. In order to reach English proficiency at level 5, students are required to learn lexis from four aspects, which can be seen in Table 7.4:

Table 7.4 Benchmark for level 5 on lexis.

<i>Level</i>	<i>Linguistic knowledge</i>	<i>Description</i>
5	<i>Lexis</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. <i>Learn that English lexis consists of word, phrase, idiom, fixed collocation and so on;</i>2. <i>Understand and grasp the basic meaning of lexis and its other meanings in different contexts;</i>3. <i>Be able to use lexis to describe events, behaviour and features; to explain abstract ideas;</i>4. <i>Learn to use 1500-1600 words and 200-300 idiomatic phrases or fixed collocations.</i>

(My personal translation from MOE, 2011, P.19)

From the above table we can see that in aspect (1) students are asked to learn that idioms and fixed collocations are two important components of lexis. The NEC further emphasizes the importance of these two components by requiring students to memorize the usage of 200-300 idiomatic phrases and fixed collocations in aspect (4). The NEC draws students' attention to idioms and fixed collocations in lexis learning by explicitly repeating the two terms twice, both in aspect (1) and aspect (4). Such a stress on idioms and fixed collocations indicates an English native speaker-centred perspective. Seidlhofer (2010) names the English NS based idiom a unilateral idiom in which meaning has nothing to do with the literal word but with historical and cultural knowledge. With such English NS-centred idioms used in communication, English NNS who are not familiar with English NS culture and history may feel lost. Empirical data suggests that these idioms have gradually lost their popularity in ELF settings (e.g. Seidlhofer, 2010; Dewey, 2007). Instead of using a unilateral idiom which only

English NS understand, English users/learners prefer to negotiate, co-construct usage of phrases or create new meanings for old idioms during their communication (Seidlhofer, 2010; Dewey, 2007). Thus, the fixed idiom or collocation memorisation required by the NEC is more or less against the trend of global Englishes.

The requirement of aspect (2) is slightly flexible and context sensitive. It requires students to remember the basic meaning of lexis and then adopt other meanings in accordance with context. In aspect (3) the NEC's understanding of the function of lexis at level 5 shows a slight orientation to link lexis learning and using to context. It is obvious that lexical forms are not mentioned in aspects (2) and (3); instead, context and the function of lexis are emphasized little bit. From these explicit stated words, it appears that lexical learning is flexible and context based. But the case is different in the appendix, where 1500 words are listed for grade 8 students to memorize. In this vocabulary list, phrases, idioms and relevant adjective or adverb forms are not included. But the person and tense of verbs and irregular plural forms of nouns are marked in brackets next to the word. The spellings of these 1500 words in the provided list in the NEC are based on British English, with 9 different American English spellings being marked in brackets. Except for these two English spellings, no other English forms are included.

From the vocabulary list it can be seen that although it claims that the principle of lexical learning is 'learning in context and using in context', there are strict and concrete requirements regarding vocabulary forms and accuracy. Thus, lexical form appropriation is not decided by function in the context, but by Standard English lexical rules. It is incompatible with Cogo and Dewey's (2012) 'form and its functional use' statement in their research on critical analysis of relevant English NNS English using corpora. Cogo and Dewey (2012) suggest that language forms are too complex to be fixed. One form can perform multiple functions and one function may have multiple various forms. Thus, instead of measuring English forms by a fixed standard, it is argued that it can have one more appropriate alternative standard, that is, one based on words' function.

To conclude, as a phonology learning statements, the lexical pedagogical goal description in the NEC is also contradictory. On one hand it advocates context based lexical learning, on the other hand it ask students to recite words and idioms. More importantly, the NEC requires students to strictly follow Standard English spelling and grammatical rules in lexical learning. In short, lexical learning in the NEC statements reflects the strong influence of Standard

English and has little relevance to global Englishes. In the following section, through classroom observation, I would like to investigate whether such Standard English ideology in the NEC statements in lexical learning is reproduced in practice or not.

7.3.2.2 Performance in the classroom

This section will focus on how vocabulary is taught and learned in classroom teaching. Through three-months of classroom observation, I identified four activities which involved lexis learning and teaching: morning reading class, lexis class, lexis review before grammar class and lexis review in intensive reading class.

Every week, there are three morning reading classes for English. Each morning reading class lasts 40 minutes (from 6:20 am to 7:00 am). Students are asked to read aloud what they have learned, such as vocabulary, passages in textbooks, or grammatical points. English teachers are required to attend morning reading classes. Their job is to walk around and provide help if students have questions. In terms of vocabulary, sometimes teachers lead reading vocabulary and students follow, but most of the time, students read vocabulary by themselves. The way that they read is more or less in a pattern of ‘the pronunciation of the word—the spelling of the word—the Chinese meaning of the word’. If there are relevant phrases or collocations, they also read them aloud. The purpose of reading aloud, according to students and teachers, is try to become familiar with the word and then to memorize it.

Some teachers told me that students find it very hard to learn vocabulary from grade 8, since the amount of vocabulary is increased and it becomes more difficult. In order to solve this problem, teachers prepare a lexis class at the beginning of the new learning unit. In the lexis class, teachers spend most of the class time lecturing while students tend to passively listen to the lecture and take notes. Teachers’ lecture content includes: the pronunciation of the word, the basic meaning and other meanings of the word, related forms of the word, relevant phrases or collocations, and examples of the usage of the word.

After lexis class, there is a grammar class. At the beginning of the grammar class, most of the teachers spend around 5 minutes reviewing words that they have learned in the last class. Sometimes teachers lead whole class interaction where they read one English word and students state the corresponding Chinese word together. Sometimes, teachers state a Chinese word and ask students to write down the corresponding English word.

Lexical teaching and learning can also be found in intensive reading classes. Intensive reading usually takes at least two classes. For most of the time, teachers go through every line of text, reviewing and emphasizing the use of grammar or new words that have been learned. In terms of vocabulary, questions that teachers frequently ask include: what are the new words we have come across; what is the meaning of the word in the reading context; what are other uses of the new word; could you make a sentence about this word? Teachers may choose a student to answer the question. But most of time, these questions are addressed to the whole class.

From these four teaching cases, it can be seen that lexis is not learned in a communicative way with interactions between teacher and students, or students and students. Functional usages of lexis are rarely introduced with practical examples. Instead, lexis learning tends to be cognitive oriented. In other words, lexis learning and teaching is more relevant to traditional second language learning where context and social practice have very limited involvement in the lexis learning and teaching process. It contradicts Jenkins's idea of social-cultural language learning in terms of global Englishes (2006a) where L2 learning and use are considered as occurring simultaneously with intentional social interaction rather than as part of an individual cognitive system with the English NS context as an ideal (see section 3.4.1).

Besides this, in these lexis learning activities, teachers behave as authorities and control most of the class moments. Lexis learning and teaching become drills without communicative practice. Students are so passive and are given so little time to speak that there is little chance for what Seidhofer (2010) and Dewey (2007) call lexical innovation and creativity. More importantly, through repeated practice, students are asked to memorize various forms, spellings, meanings of words and fixed phrases which all come from Standard English. That is to say that Standard English has much more chance of being reproduced and its ideology is enhanced through the repeated practice and memorization. As Canagarajah (1999) identifies, in most language learning classes, there is a pattern of 'reproduce-resist'. In other words, resistance almost always occurs when a certain ideology is reproduced in classroom teaching.

In this lexical teaching and learning classroom practice, not much resistance to Standard Englishes from either students or teachers is founded. In addition, it is hard to comprehend their ideas about global Englishes in terms of lexical learning and teaching. Thus, interviews are needed to reveal what cannot be observed in classroom teaching.

7.3.2.3 Perceptions of participants

In terms of lexical teaching in class, as the observation data presents, teachers do not think highly of the ‘teacher reading—student repeating’ and the ‘teacher lecturing—student taking notes’ pattern. Some teachers point out that such kinds of lexical learning and teaching are more like memorizing a fixed mathematical formula. They believe that such an emphasis on reciting lexical usage cannot help students to transfer their knowledge into practice.

Example 7.9:

84. LAN: *Actually, I don't think the ‘memorizing’ way in lexical learning is helpful to*
85. *students’ communication in practice because there are lots of phrase and words that*
86. *students store in their memory but do not know how to use in practice. They just cannot*
87. *remember which word they should use in the practical situation. I always thought that*
88. *nowadays, the way these kids learn English is more like they are learning maths. You*
89. *know, like formula or principles, that preposition should follow that verb, this adjective*
90. *cannot be put in front of the noun, the forms of the word that are frequently tested in*
91. *examinations. To them, like maths, English has strict regularities and rules. Language is*
92. *as fixed as maths, but they have to learn that way, you know, there are tests.*

As social linguists who advocate that language learning focus needs to move beyond a cognitive approach to social alternatives (see section 3.4.1), many teacher participants also feel that natural authentic context is very important for lexical learning and teaching. Just like daily conversation, they want their students to relax and focus on meaning and communication instead of thinking about spelling or appropriate word forms. More global Englishes oriented perspectives can be found from teachers like YANG and LAN. YANG thinks it is ridiculous to spend a lot of time on distinguishing the use of prepositions in lexical reciting since the context will help people to understand the semantic meaning. LAN also states that she would like to encourage lexical innovation which is not possible with Standard English. She thinks that creatively used language is very interesting.

Example 7.10:

93. YANG: *Sometimes, I think it is ridiculous to memorize those fixed expressions. For*
94. *example, in the paper, students might be asked to choose whether ‘join in’ or ‘join’ is best*
95. *for completing the sentence ‘I would _____ Jane’s birthday party’. But does it really*

96. matter in daily conversation if I use 'join' or 'join in'? Come on, there is context. You
97. would understand what I was saying.

98. LAN: I would not waste vocabulary lecturing time on grammatical rules. And also, I
99. Would never ask them to spell the words or correct their spellings. I also feel bored with
100. it. You know, sometimes I feel it is interesting when my students create some Chinglish
101. phrase, like 'good good study, day day up'. And they deliberately stress and drag the
102. pronunciation of the last 'p', so they spit on their partner; and then their partner does
103. the same. You know, things between friends like this are lots of fun. I would never stop
104. such interesting language using behaviours if English tests did not require so much
105. form correctness.

From the above statements it can be seen that most teachers are not happy with current lexical learning and teaching, but few of them made any change to the situation during my classroom observation period. Some teachers explained why they stuck to cognitive and grammatical lexical learning and teaching instead of moving on. One of the main reasons seems to be the great wash back of examinations. YAO and YANG suggest that English tests have strict requirements regarding English accuracy, such as spelling, grammatical rules and word forms.

Example 7.11:

106. YAO: In examinations, they do not test lexis in terms of context. They only test the
107. spellings, the grammatical rules and word forms. Thus, if I taught lexis with lots of
108. role play or drama, students would be happy in class but they would cry when they
109. took tests. You know, in such activities, students would not be sensitive to grammar or
110. forms.

111. YANG: Vocabulary is the main part of the language that is assessed. Multiple choice,
112. cloze and lexis focus on grammatical use and collocation. While the vocabulary size
113. will affect the reading comprehension score, spelling or grammar mistakes will
114. reduce writing marks.

In addition to the vocabulary accuracy, interview data also suggests that tests have influences on lexical learning. As we have discussed previously, the NEC states that the amount of lexis that grade 8 and grade 9 students need to learn is around 1500 and 1600 words. But some

teachers seemed have different ideas about how many words grade 8 and 9 students need to learn.

Example 7.12:

115. LAN: *For junior students, I guess the vocabulary amount should be around 3000/*
116. *4500*
117. *words..... I really don't think that a larger vocabulary means that you can*
118. *communicate better. It is unnecessary to spend lots of time to obtain a large word*
119. *base. You know, if your work is in some specific field, you may need specialized*
120. *terminology. But for daily conversation, with 1500-2000 basic words and some body*
121. *language, you can totally make yourself understood. Anyway, vocabulary does not*
122. *play an essential role in communication.....But, for students, 3000-4500 words is very*
123. *necessary. If they did not have such a large vocabulary resource, they would have*
124. *trouble in reading comprehension tests.*

From the above example we can see that LAN has two sets of standards regarding how many lexis students need to have. For communication purposes, LAN does not think that a large lexis size guarantees successful conversation. As the lexical amount that the NEC requires, LAN believes that 1,500-2,000 words in combination with pragmatic skills is adequate for simple communication. But for tests, the lexical amount that LAN thinks students need to learn increases to at least 3,000, which explains why teachers spend lots of teaching time on lexis. According to previous data, 33.33% of teachers spend most of their teaching time on vocabulary (see questionnaire findings in section 6.2.2) which includes three morning reading classes per week and one or two lexical classes in each unit (see observation data in section 7.3.2.2). One important reason for spending much more time on lexical teaching than the NEC require is the need to pass English tests.

If the NEC statements are examined, classroom performance and participants' perceptions of lexical learning, we find that although, on the surface, terms like 'accuracy' and 'English NS forms' do not appear in the NEC statements and 'context' and 'lexis' function' are mentioned, it does contain Standard English ideology, which can be identified through the repeated emphasis on the roles of 'idioms and fixed collocations' and also in the 'vocabulary list' appendix where all the English spellings are based on British English or American English. This Standard English ideology is reduced in classroom practice where lexical learning and

teaching focuses on grammatical rules, forms and spellings. However, that does not mean that teachers are happy with their teaching behaviour. In the interviews, teachers discuss their compliance with current teaching and learning guidelines, which they feel are not helpful for actual communication. Examinations are considered by teachers as one of the most influential factors in their teaching and students' learning. Teachers also describe some ideal lexical learning and teaching methods which are quite similar to global Englishes researches, such as learning in using, learning for communicative purposes and encouraging lexical innovation. In short, the concept of global Englishes has a very limited influence on both the NEC and classroom teaching practice, although some teachers have initial global Englishes awareness.

7.3.3 Grammar and function

7.3.3.1 Statement in the NEC

Comparing phonology and lexis learning, grammar and function are prioritised in the NEC statements for language learning. From the pedagogical goal description chart for level 5, it is found that the NES is more like a modern syllabus where it seems to 'rightly give more attention to the functions performed by grammatical forms' (Ellis, 2006, p86). For example, in the pedagogical goal description for grammar (see Table 7.5), phrases like 'appropriate context', 'notional functions', 'practical use' and 'appropriate linguistic structures', show some emphasis on the practical usage of grammar with sensitivity to context.

Table 7.5 Benchmark for level 5 on grammar.

<i>Level</i>	<i>Linguistic knowledge</i>	<i>Description</i>
5	Grammar	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Understand grammar provided in the 'Grammar Item List' in Appendix 2 and be able to use it in an appropriate context. 2. Learn about linguistic structures that are frequently used and their related notional functions. 3. Attempt to comprehend the notional function of linguistic structures in practical use.

		<i>4. Use appropriate linguistic structures to describe people and objects; describe the occurrence and development of specific events and behaviour; describe time, place and location; compare people, objects and matters.</i>
	<i>Function</i>	<i>Be able to understand and perform functions and notions listed for level 5 (see appendix 4) through language.</i>
	<i>Topic</i>	<i>Be able to understand and use language around topics listed in Appendix 5.</i>

Besides the description of grammatical goals, the NEC also includes function as one of the aspects in linguistic knowledge pedagogical goals. Linguistic functions are described in detail in Appendix 4, which covers social communication, attitudes, emotions, time, space, existence, features, measurement, comparison and logical relations. All these functions seemed to be designed based on practical considerations, rather than taking English NS as the target. In other words, these literal statements of the NEC appear to show that, instead of taking ‘to-be-English-NS-like’ as their language using aim, language is used practically in these 10 situations (see table 7.6). Overall, from the literal pedagogical goal description in the NEC, it looks like that ‘less emphasis is placed on such aspects of grammar as sentence patterns or tense paradigms and more on the meanings conveyed by different grammatical forms in communication’ (Ellis, 2006, p86).

Table 7.6 NEC appendix 4: functional and notional items.

<i>Appendix 4 Functional and notional items</i>	
<i>Level</i> <i>5</i>	<i>1. Social communication</i> <i>2. Attitudes</i> <i>3. Emotions</i> <i>4. Time</i> <i>5. Space</i> <i>6. Existence</i>

	<p>7. <i>Features</i></p> <p>8. <i>Measurement</i></p> <p>9. <i>Comparison</i></p> <p>10. <i>Logical relations</i></p>
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By looking at these statements literally, some traits of compatibilities can be found with global Englishes. For example, the NEC advocates adapting ‘appropriate linguistic structures’ in ‘appropriate contexts’ to perform its ‘notional functions’, which are similar to ELF practice, where language users can change or adapt English forms in accordance with their language using context and communication purpose (see section 2.2). However, such appeared global Englishes-oriented statements about grammar and function are not consistent in the following pages of the NEC document. Contradictory statements appear in the grammatical items list in Appendix 2 in the NEC document. In Appendix 2 (see table 7.7), 14 grammatical categories are described in detail where word formation and building, tense paradigms and sentence patterns are all involved. All these grammars come from structural grammars and generative grammars which are based on universal grammar.

Table 7.7 NEC appendix 2: grammar item list.

<i>Appendix 2 Grammar item list</i>	
<i>Level 5</i>	<p>1. <i>Nouns (Countable nouns and plural forms; uncountable nouns; proper nouns; possessive nouns ;)</i></p> <p>2. <i>Pronouns (Personal pronouns; possessive pronouns; Demonstrative pronoun; Indefinite pronoun; Interrogative pronoun)</i></p> <p>3. <i>Numerals (Cardinal Numbers; Ordinal Numbers)</i></p> <p>4. <i>Prepositions and prepositional phrases</i></p> <p>5. <i>Conjunctions</i></p> <p>6. <i>Adjectives (including comparative degree and the superlative degree)</i></p> <p>7. <i>Adverbs (including comparative degree and the superlative degree)</i></p>

	8. <i>Articles</i>
	9. <i>Verbs (The basic form of the verbs; link verbs; Transitive verbs and intransitive verbs; Auxiliary verbs; Modal verb; tense; the passive voice)</i>
	10. <i>Word formation (Prefix, suffix; conversion; synthetic)</i>
	11. <i>Sentence types (Statements; Questions; Imperative sentence; Exclamatory sentences)</i>
	12. <i>Basic sentence structure</i>
	13. <i>Compound complex sentences</i>
	14. <i>Main-subordinate complex sentences</i>

Such Standard English based grammatical rules are incompatible with global Englishes in many ways. For example, the strict grammatical rules listed above take language as a fixed system where all language rules are pre-described (e.g. Canagarajah, 2013; Ellis and Shintani, 2015). However, for global English researchers, there are no systematic abstract grammatical rules but repeated and frequently used language patterns or forms which have settled as sediments gradually (Baird et al, 2014; Canagarajha, 2013). More importantly, language is not fixed but dynamic, flexible and changeable. The historical sedimental language patterns would be shaped, repeated, reshaped, rendered, mixed and created along with spatial and temporal changes (Pennycook, 2007). Language forms are changed moment by moment during the negotiation, co-construction, and accommodations in peoples' social interaction in different situations (Jenkins, 2006b; Cogo, 2008)). It is not appropriate to constrain language using or learning with English NS' prescribed grammar rules or to ignore social context by regarding language learning as an individual mental system (e.g. Jenkins, 2006; Lantolf, 2011). Instead of following or judging language using these fixed prescribed descriptive grammatical rules, people should adapt or measure their language forms using their own communicative purposes and context.

In short, the grammatical item list in Appendix 2 not only contradicts the NEC's emphasis on language function and meaning over forms, but is also incompatible with the global Englishes perspective, where language grammars are considered as online co-constructed and adaptable in accordance with language function.

7.3.3.2 Performance in the classroom

The data in the last section have suggested that there are contradictory statements on grammatical learning in the NEC document, where on one hand learners are required to use grammar appropriate to the context while on the other hand they are asked to follow strict Standard English based grammatical rules. In this section, I would like to investigate which of the NEC's statements have been implemented in practice.

Teacher participants in ZH School often divide grammars into two categories: big grammars and small grammars. For example, in the grammatical item list in Appendix 2 in NEC, verbs (especially tense and voice), word formation, sentence types and sentence structures are considered as big grammars; while the grammatical usage of words, phrases and fixed collocations are often regarded as small grammars which teacher participants also call 'grammar points'. According to what we have discussed in the lexical section, small grammars teaching tends to be what Ellis (2006) defines as extensive teaching, where several words' grammatical usage are addressed but each word only takes a few minutes of each lesson. Big grammar teaching in teacher participants' classes is more like intensive grammar teaching where 'a single grammatical structure or, perhaps, a pair of contrasted structures' are examined over a sustained period of time (Ellis, 2006, p93). Since small grammars' learning and teaching (grammatical usage of words, phrase, and fixed collocations) have been discussed in the previous section, here the discussion will focus on big grammars.

The order of grammar items that teachers teach is based on the sequence of grammar listed in textbooks. In textbooks, each unit is designed with a focus on certain grammatical structures and their correspondent functions. Besides these, relevant target languages that students are required to learn are provided. For each unit, teachers often arrange at least two classes for intensive grammar teaching. The most frequently used teaching model is as follows: teachers explain grammar usage first, then students complete exercises, and at the end of the class teachers and students review the grammars that they have learned (see Table 7.8).

Table 7.8 Observation of YAO's grammar class.

<i>YAO's grammar class</i>

<i>Time</i>	<i>Content</i>	<i>Activity</i>
9:21- 9:24	<i>Reading vocabulary</i>	<i>Students read word lists aloud by themselves</i>
9:25- 9:45	<i>Grammar lecturing: (past tense; be going to; will)</i>	<i>Teacher lectures; students take notes</i>
9:46- 9:57	<i>Doing exercise</i>	<i>Students do the exercises that the teacher presented on Powerpoint together</i>
9:58- 10:00	<i>Reviewing grammar</i>	<i>Teacher leads students in reviewing grammar listed in the textbook</i>

At grammar usage explanation stage, teachers use most of the talking time to lecture grammar usage intensively, which usually lasts for at least 15 minutes. Interaction between teachers and students is very limited and students have few opportunities to speak English. After that, teachers give students around 10 minutes to do the exercises. Sometimes teachers and students do the exercises together where teachers read the exercise question and students answer together. Sometimes students do the exercises by themselves and teachers walk around. Three sources of exercises have been identified: textbooks, exercise books, and questions selected from past Senior-High-School-Entrance-Examination papers. Questions in exercises often involve using appropriate tenses or word forms to complete sentences, paragraphs or to answer questions (see table 7.9). At the end of the class, teachers give feedback on students' exercises and also review what has been taught in the class. The most frequent interaction and feedback happens between teachers and the whole class. 'Errors' or 'mistakes' are corrected immediately by teachers.

Table 7.9 Example of exercise in textbook.

The grammar focus of unit 6 is 'be going to' and 'want'. The exercise 3a in unit 6 of the textbook asks students to 'complete the first two paragraphs about resolutions with the words in the box'.

<i>(3a) Complete the first two paragraphs about resolutions with the words in the box</i>

Take/listen/make/is/help/learn/are

- *Resolutions _____ promises to yourself. They may _____ to make you a better person and to make your life easier. I am going to _____ four resolutions.*
- *The first resolution is about my own personal improvement. Next year, or maybe sooner, I am going to _____ up a new hobby. I think singing _____ a great activity so I am going to _____ to sing. I think this will also make my family happy because they love to _____ to music and sing together.*

From the above observed teaching and learning performance in the classroom, it may easily conclude that teacher participants' intensive grammar teaching is language-centred teaching along with form-based input modification and limited interaction activities, and is heavily affected by structural linguistics and behavioural psychology. Language learning and teaching became 'no more than a systematic accumulation of consciously collected discrete pieces of knowledge gained through repeated exposure, practice, and application' (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p.100). During this process, teachers' major task is to drill basic language patterns using 'a series of carefully designed exercises' in order to eliminate students' 'possibility for making errors' and help students' performance 'became habitual and automatic' (P.102). More importantly, the observation data suggest that teachers and learners lack critical thinking and the ability to reflect. The evidence to support this is that during the three months of observation, I did not find any changes in the above mentioned teaching or learning pattern. The absence of critical reflection does not improve teachers' awareness of their role as agent of language policy and thus transmits Standard English ideology by leading students to drill, repeat and practice grammatical rules. Without reflecting on social context, teachers tend to take Standard English as the only teaching model, which results in the immediate correction of 'errors' or 'mistakes' in grammar teaching practice.

To summarize, grammar is intensively taught in class with English NS-based forms explicitly presented and repeatedly practiced. Teachers and students are insensitive to social context and lack critical thinking on language ideology. In short, grammar teaching is heavily

affected by Standard English; while very limited influences of or compatibilities with global Englishes are found in grammar teaching and learning performance in classroom.

7.3.3.3 Perceptions of participants

As we have discussed in section 2.4 (chapter 2), in Spolsky's language policy framework, language beliefs are sometimes contradicted by language practice. In other words, what people actually do may not be the same as what they really want to do. Reasons for the inconsistency between language behaviour and language beliefs depend on beliefs about consequences of the behaviour and evaluation of the consequences (Garrett, 2010). That is to say, teachers may have beliefs about some language behaviours. Before the implementation, they may evaluate the consequence of these language behaviours by themselves (evaluation A); meanwhile, they may also evaluate others' evaluation of their language behaviours' consequence (evaluation B). If the evaluation A is higher than B, they may perform their beliefs. But if evaluation A is lower than B, their beliefs may not be implemented.

Thus, in this section, in order to find if there any external factors affecting teachers' language beliefs, I would like to compare teacher participants' beliefs to language use outside class (evaluation A) and to language use inside classroom (evaluation B). The coding and analysis framework is as follows:

Table 7.10 Coding and analysis framework for perception of grammar and function.

	<i>Grammar and function</i>
<i>Participants' perceptions</i>	<i>Evaluation A (outside classroom)</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Perceptions of fluency and accuracy</i> • <i>Perceptions of communication target</i> • <i>Perceptions of Standard English</i>
	<i>Evaluation B (inside classroom)</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Perceptions of pure grammar lecturing teaching model</i> • <i>Perceptions of grammar teaching with context</i>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Perceptions of acceptance of global-Englishes-relevant grammar teaching</i>
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Evaluation A (towards English used outside classroom)

- Perceptions of fluency and accuracy

In classroom teaching practice, we have seen that teachers attach great importance to language accuracy. They consider language accuracy to be more important than language fluency. Any difference from English NS norms is considered as an ‘error’ or ‘mistake’ and a ‘deficiency’ to be corrected immediately. Such a finding in teaching practice is inconsistent with the data presented in questionnaire. Results for item41 in the teachers’ questionnaire and S-item 37 in the students’ questionnaire indicate that both teachers and students pay equal attention to language accuracy and fluency in communication (The mean score for both items is around 3.0, see section 6.4.3). The tolerance of language accuracy becomes much higher in teachers’ interviews. The following is an example of LAN’s perceptions of language accuracy and fluency:

Example 7.13:

125. *Researcher: For a language like English, what do you think is the main function?*
126. *LAN: Of course, communication.*
127. *Researcher: Ok, then in the communication, which do you think is more important:*
128. *accuracy or fluency?*
129. *LAN: Accuracy is more important.*
130. *Researcher: What do you mean by ‘accuracy’? Accuracy with regard to language, or*
131. *accuracy with regard to meaning?*
132. *LAN: Accuracy with regard to meaning. I mean people should be able to convey their*
133. *meaning correctly.*
134. *Researcher: So, that is to say, you may not think much about your language grammar*
135. *accuracy when you speak English?*
136. *LAN: Of course, when I speak English with people, I do not have much time to think*
137. *about grammar. Fluency and coherence of meaning is what I care about. People*
138. *probably do not notice that you wrongly use ‘in’ instead of ‘on’, that’s nothing to*
139. *worry about. But if you speak haltingly and fear grammar mistakes, you will become*

140. *an unpleasant interlocutor and will make others feel uncomfortable.*

The example shows that LAN cares about accuracy, but this accuracy refers to information accuracy. As for the linguistic aspects, LAN thinks that language fluency is more important than language accuracy. In other words, as long as information is correctly conveyed, LAN does not mind grammar ‘mistakes’. One of the reasons that LAN prefers language fluency is for the coherence of the communication and for being a pleasant interlocutor.

- Perceptions of communication target

In terms of communication targets, teachers and students showed neutral attitudes to both the statement ‘most Chinese use English to communicate with American or British’ and the statement ‘most Chinese use English to communicate with English speakers who are not American or British’ in questionnaires (The mean score of item 14/15 and S-item 14/15 in questionnaire is around 3.0, see section 6.3.3). The justification for those neutral attitudes could be that they are not clear about their communication target, or they do not care about their communication target (see section 6.3.3). Such inferences become much clearer in the interview data. Interview data show that instead of English NS, some teacher participants regard ‘English speaking people’ as their communication targets. Take JIANG for example, without hesitation, she stated that English is used to communicate with people who speak English. From JIANG’s statement we can see that she does not classify communication targets in terms of nationality or geographic boundaries. Instead, she relates her English speaking target to language function, i.e. English is used for communication, so anyone who she will communicate with in English will be her communication target. In short, combining the questionnaire and interview data, the conclusion that can be drawn is that participants do not care about whether their communication target is an English NS or not since English for them functions as a lingua franca to communicate with anyone who speaks English.

Example 7.14:

141. *Researcher: In your experience or mind, who are the communication targets for your*
142. *English?*
143. *JANG: Of course, English speaking people.*
144. *Researcher: So, could you tell me who you classify as ‘English speaking people’?*
145. *JIANG: People who can speak English. For example, if you are in France, and you*
146. *don't know French, you can use English to talk with them.*

However, such a conclusion from the questionnaire data and interview data seems unstable when compared with the observation data. As I have discussed in section 7.3.3.2, in teaching practice, English NS is taken as the communication target and grammars are taught based on English NS norms. In order to assess the reasons for the consistency between teachers' language behaviours and their language beliefs more data are required (see evaluation B in following part).

- Perceptions of Standard English

Teachers have different interpretations of Standard English. Some teacher participants consider Standard English as Basic English; while others regarded it as English NS' English. Since they constantly mixed the use of these terms in the interviews, I will also use those two terms (Standard English and English NS's English) as synonyms when I present interview data. However, no matter how they define Standard English, most of them agree that it is unfair to use one external standard to measure their students' language. Teachers, like BING, question Standard English learning. BING believes that it is meaningless to learn Standard English since the English that people actually use is different. Besides this, some teachers also believe that taking Standard English as a criteria not only affects students' learning confidence and enthusiasm, but is also in an-impossible-to-win race when competing with English NS.

Example 7.15:

147. *Yang: My interpretation of Standard English is that it is the most basic and*
148. *fundamental*
149. *English. We need to master this kind of English so different people from different*
150. *place can have a common language to communicate. But as for using Standard*
151. *English to judge students' language through examination, it is not so appropriate.*
152. *You know, people may add or cut some language around the basic elements.*
153. *BING: We treat Standard English in a biblical way. You know, this affects students'*
154. *language learning and using confidence. If I were a student, I would definitely feel*
155. *frustrated when I saw the red marks in my examination paper that reminded me of the*
156. *mistakes I had made and how bad I was. Students work very hard, but the results they*
157. *get are not perfect. I can feel their hearts break when they receive passive feedback.*
158. *Some students even give up English learning. As an adult, I know that Standard*

159. *English is not what they will use in future. Nobody will care about specific small*
 160. *grammars in actual communication. But as a teacher, I cannot tell them what they are*
 161. *learning is useless and what they are suffering is meaningless.*

162. *YAO: It is unfair to use one standard to judge my students. English is their native*
 163. *language and for us, it is a foreign language. They know how to speak English as they*
 164. *learned it when they were kids. They lived in an English only environment. How can*
 165. *we compete with them? It is impossible to be as good as they are. It is unfair to use*
 166. *their standards to judge us.*

From the above interview data we can see that teachers already have initial global Englishes awareness. They acknowledge the unattainability of English NS and question the fairness of its use as a measure of their students' English. More importantly, they realize the harm that the Standard English model does to learners' confidence. But, as the observation data suggest, they still teach Standard English norms. To reveal the hidden causes for such an inconsistency between their language and behaviour, let's go to the next part to see what external factors affect their decisions in teaching practice.

Evaluation B (on English teaching inside the classroom)

From the above we can see that most of the teacher participants seem to think highly of language fluency, tolerate grammar 'mistakes' in communication, are clear about their communication targets and have negative attitudes to Standard English learning. Based on these findings which are quite global Englishes relevant, I asked them about their feelings regarding making actual changes in their classroom teaching practice, such as: reducing intensive grammar lecturing, increasing communicative interactional activities, or accepting global Englishes in their class teaching. The results reveal certain external factors, like tests, that stop them from implementing their global Englishes relevant beliefs.

- Perceptions of pure grammar lecturing teaching model

Most of the teacher participants believe that intensive grammar teaching and learning fails to fulfil its communicative function. Some teachers feel that grammar classes are boring and

have burnout in their teaching. But they did not change their teaching situation within the two months that they were observed. One of the reasons for this is tests, the powerful external power which makes the evaluation of the potential consequences for the abandonment of intensive grammar teaching much harder.

Example 7.16:

167. LAN: *To be honest, I feel that grammar classes are very boring. Actually, I always*
168. *feel*
169. *burnout in my job. I have a Master's degree in English-translation major, but I have*
170. *to spend most of my time teaching students these grammar rules, to train them to be*
171. *test-machines. I want to share my knowledge with them, like culture, or make them*
172. *more communicative. But I can't. There are tests. The primary job is to help them to*
173. *pass tests.*

174. BING: *Learning English is supposed to be for communication. But nowadays,*
175. *students learn English to gain higher marks in examinations.*

176. YANG: *I feel that my students are very skilled at completing papers, some kids even*
177. *get full marks. They have lots of knowledge about grammars. But if you let them talk*
178. *with foreigners, they may not be able to speak English and communicate with people.*
179. *They just memorize grammar rules. They do not know how to use grammar in*
180. *practice.*

- Perceptions of grammar teaching with interactive activities

In terms of context and grammar pedagogy, most teachers believe that shifting cognitive approaches on grammar learning to social cultural approaches will benefit students in many ways. Many teachers would like to get rid of the intensive grammar teaching pattern and they would like to teach grammar in a more communicative way, such as through role play, information gap, video watching, pair work conversation, or short drama performances. However, there are many worries about changing intensive teaching to a more communicative teaching mode.

For example, one the main worries is that the communicative teaching mode is not helpful for tests. Teachers, like YAO and BING, have tried to include communicative activities in their

teaching practice. But they have given up and returned to the intensive grammar teaching mode due to pressure from students and their parents. Students complain that they cannot learn enough 'hard knowledge' from communicative activities, which may put them at a disadvantage in English entrance tests. Their parents then become very unhappy with school education and think the 'hard knowledge' is inadequately taught. As a consequence, most of parents pay extra money for 'after-school' tutorial classes to allow their children to have more grammatical practice.

Example 7.17:

181. YAO: *I have tried to teach and practice grammar through interactional activities in*
182. *The first year junior high school (7th grade). But many kids complained. They think*
183. *that such activities are designed for fun, not for learning knowledge. Although they*
184. *feel happy and relaxed when they are learning grammar in that way, they still want to*
185. *learn 'hard knowledge' because they are quite clear that 'hard knowledge' is the*
186. *thing that is tested in examinations.*

187. BING: *I have to consider parents' suggestions. You know, many parents arrange for*
188. *their kids to attend 'after-school' tutorial classes for more grammatical practice.*
189. *They just think that my classes, where students laugh, play and discuss in*
190. *communicative activities, are a waste of time. You know, students may gain lots of*
191. *grammatical knowledge information in two-hour intensive 'after-school' tutorial*
192. *classes; but in my classes such knowledge may be gained in one week. They only care*
193. *about the results on their kids' examination papers, they don't care about the learning*
194. *process. Under pressure from parents, I have to give interactional activities up and*
195. *shift to intensive grammar teaching.*

Another worry about the communicative teaching mode is that neither teachers nor learners are clear about how to organize a communicative class. As YANG points out, due to teachers' focus on abstract grammatical usage, students seem lost in interactional activities where knowledge learning depends on their inductive ability and cooperative spirit. It is very hard for students to earn grammatical points in those activities.

Example 7.18:

196. YANG: *Students cannot identify the grammar focus in interactional activities. They*

197. *prefer to learn pure grammar rules where I highlight the important parts. Some*
 198. *students suggest that I list all the grammar rules in a WORD profile and then lecture*
 199. *grammar usage based on such a profile. It is useful. You know, they can copy the*
 200. *profile and review it after class. It is convenient.*

Some students give up English learning and begin gossiping during group work. What is worse, teachers do not know how to deal with these issues. LAN revealed one reason for the failure of communicative mode. That is, there is no systematic teacher education where teachers are trained.

Example 7.19:

201. *LAN: I have done some interactional activities in my grammar class teaching. But I*
 202. *find that students have different reactions to such activities. For example, in peer*
 203. *discussion, some students are eager to participate in discussion and actively*
 204. *cooperate with others; while some students just gossip with their classmates instead*
 205. *of performing the tasks. Students have uneven language proficiency and different*
 206. *learning enthusiasm. Some like and can acquire knowledge through context, but some*
 207. *cannot learn anything from it. It is very difficult to tackle these issues. Nobody tells*
 208. *me how to do that. So I just simply decided not to do that.*

There are also other reasons that they give up on interaction activities, such as thinking they are a waste of time, being unable to provide enough information, students feeling lost in activities since they cannot see the grammar focus and teachers not knowing how to handle interactional activities. Among these specific reasons, we can identify that the essential reasons are examinations and teacher education. Teachers would like to provide more interactional activities in their grammar teaching, but they cannot because they have to prepare students for examinations and more importantly, teacher education programs do not train them in how to arrange interactional activities.

- Perceptions of teaching English from a global Englishes perspective.

Most of the teacher participants agreed to raise global Englishes awareness in their teaching classes, but none of them could accept the inclusion of global Englishes in their actual grammar teaching. Taking LAN as an example, she understands the difference between what

is taught inside the classroom and how global Englishes are used outside the classroom, but still she chooses to correct students' grammar 'mistakes' and follows Standard English rules in her grammar teaching. Because LAN believes that a teacher's duty is to help students to pass examinations.

Example 7.20:

209. *Researcher: If you communicate with someone French, his English might be heavily*
210. *influenced by his mother tongue. But you can still understand what he is saying. So*
211. *would you accept his English?*
212. *LAN: I have to. There is no better way. You know.*
213. *Researcher: What about in English teaching classes, would you accept such Englishes*
214. *in your class?*
215. *LAN: No.*
216. *Researcher: Why?*
217. *LAN: Because English is already the second language for students. They are already*
218. *struggling with English. If you introduce French English, Indian English, or another*
219. *type of English, their learning burden will be heavier. And they are too young. They*
220. *will be confused and lost if they learn too many different Englishes. More*
221. *importantly, I don't know how to include these Englishes in my teaching. Expert*
222. *suggestions should be provided regarding these changes.*
223. *Researcher: Ok then, let's take a step back. Would you like to raise students'*
224. *awareness that there are various English forms that are used and accepted in practice*
225. *other than American English or British English?*
226. *LAN: Yes, and actually I have done this occasionally. I have told them that the*
227. *English they are learning is Standard English. They don't need to reach that level in*
228. *their future language use. As long as they can communicate, that is enough. In their*
229. *actual communication, they don't need to struggle with whether the word form is*
230. *correct or not, or whether they should add 'the' or 'a' in front of noun. They should*
231. *not think about too much when they are speaking English.*
232. *Researcher: So you also choose not to correct language 'mistakes' in your class?*
233. *LAN: I do correct the mistakes because they have to take tests.*
234. *Researcher: So tests are more important?*
235. *LAN: Yes, for students, their fate may change because of one point in an examination.*
236. *Thus, if I did not correct their mistakes, I would feel that I had not done my duty.*

Besides the pressure of tests, lack of knowledge about global Englishes is another reason for their persistence of intensive grammar teaching. For example, LAN refuses to teach English from a global Englishes perspective because she thinks that if she accepts such a perspective, she will have to teach grammar for multiple English varieties, which would increase her workload. Obviously, LAN misunderstands what global Englishes are and what ‘teaching English from a global Englishes perspective’ means. As I have discussed in the literature review, global Englishes is not synonymous with world Englishes. It does not consist of multiple individual English varieties but includes various English uses from around the world (see section 2.2). More importantly, teaching English from a global Englishes perspective does not mean teaching multiple English varieties as Standard English is taught. Global Englishes is not teachable due to its flexible and dynamic nature. However English can be taught from a global Englishes perspective (see section 3.4), by introducing sociocultural perspectives on SLA, taking a post-normative approach, raising intercultural awareness, emphasizing pragmatic strategies or being tolerant of grammar forms.

To summarize, in Evaluation part A, we investigated teachers’ beliefs about language fluency and accuracy, communication targets, and Standard English; and found that most of their perceptions are global Englishes relevant. For example, they don't mind grammar ‘mistakes’ in communication and think that coherence in communication is more important. They are clear that their communication targets are people who speak English instead of English NS. More importantly, some of them recognize the fact that English NS level is unattainable and think that Standard English is an unfair measurement of student ability. However, these kinds of global Englishes relevant beliefs do not result in different classroom teaching. Teachers refuse to change intensive grammar lecturing and also exclude communicative interactional activities from their teaching. More importantly, they make it quite clear that they are not prepared to accept global Englishes relevant grammar in their classes. Two external factors have been revealed for the gaps between what they believe should be done and what they actually do in practice: examinations and teacher education, which correspond with the findings of Galloway and Rose (2015) and Jenkins (2000) (see section 3.4.3). In short, teachers cannot perform their beliefs because they have to help their students pass examinations. Even though they would like to implement these beliefs, they do not know how to do so because of the lack of training about global Englishes in teacher education.

7.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have discussed general pedagogical goals and one specific goal, i.e. linguistic knowledge/skills, at three levels including the NEC statements, classroom performance and participants' perceptions. The general pedagogical goals stated in the NEC refer to comprehensive language using ability, which can be defined as integrated ability in five aspects; linguistic knowledge, linguistic skills, learning affects and attitude, learning strategy and cultural awareness. Data from the NEC statements suggest that the general pedagogical goals stated in the NEC are frequently compatible with global Englishes. For example, they both interpret English from multiple layers where pragmatic strategies, language attitude and cultural awareness are important components of English, and both attach importance to interaction and cooperative spirit in communication (see section 7.2.1). Although only the linguistic aspects of the general goals have been implemented in teaching practice (see section 7.2.2), teachers still hope that they can cover all five goals in their teaching (see section 7.2.3). Several reasons for the inconsistencies between the NEC statements, classroom performance and teachers' perceptions are revealed in the teacher interviews, such as the fact that teachers are unfamiliar with the NEC, that the NEC statements are not practical or that they need to focus too much on tests and do not have time for the NEC goals.

In terms of the linguistic aspects of the general pedagogical goals, I have addressed three parts of linguistic knowledge that the NEC asks students to learn: phonology, lexis and grammar and function. The NEC statements are very vague about phonology learning goals, using words such as 'natural' 'fluent' and 'basically correct', which appear to be global Englishes oriented; while in the phonology list in the appendix, Standard English ideology is identified by the emphasis on a non-lingua-franca core (see section 7.3.1). But situation becomes different when teachers never correct students' pronunciation in teaching practice. However, such behaviour is not the result of global Englishes awareness but a result of the fact that phonology is not included in English tests (see interview data in section 7.3.1.2). As for teachers' perceptions of English phonology, some teachers do not mind their Chinese accents while others think that a Chinese accent affects their professional image. Most of them agreed that as long as there is no problem with understanding, they can accept various accents in communication.

Contradictions are also found at lexis level. The NEC document first emphasises the importance of language function and context in lexical learning, but then lists 1,500 words in a vocabulary list based on American/British spelling (see section 7.3.2). More importantly, students are required to memorize at least 200 idioms and fixed collocations. Standard English ideology is enhanced in teaching practice when teachers spend large amounts of teaching time explaining the use of lexis. In the interviews, many teachers demonstrate that they are compliant with lexical teaching and learning as expressed in the NEC document? Which focuses on reciting lexical usage and on accuracy of forms. However, some teachers think that lexical innovation is much more interesting.

With regard to grammar and function, the NEC states that grammar learning and use should be in accordance with ‘appropriate context’, ‘notional functions’, ‘practical use’ and ‘appropriate linguistic structures’ (see section 7.3.3). However, inconsistencies become obvious when systematic grammatical rules based on Standard English are then listed. The practice of grammar teaching is intensive and specific grammatical usage is drilled, recited and practiced in the classroom. However, the interview data suggest that teachers believe that language fluency is more important than language accuracy. Teachers do not mind grammar ‘mistakes’ in communication and think that coherent communication is more important. More importantly, most of them do not take English people as their communicative target. They think that English is used to speak to people who can speak English. Thus, it is not necessary to take Standard English as a learning model. In addition, the interview data also reveal that tests and lack of knowledge about global Englishes are the main reasons why teachers do not implement their language beliefs into practice.

Three key points can be taken from the above findings: (1) data are inconsistent or contradictory in the NEC document, classroom observations and interviews; (2) greater compatibility with global Englishes can be identified in the interview data; (3) Standard English ideology has much more influence on classroom performance; (4) one main reason for the contradiction between the three levels is tests. In the following chapters, I would like to present more data on other aspects of the general pedagogical goals which include affects and attitude, learning strategies and cultural awareness. Besides these, tests, which have been identified as the main factor affecting teachers’ teaching performance will be addressed.

Chapter 8 Qualitative findings on English learning, cultural awareness and tests

8.1 Introduction

In this section, I will continue to analyse and discuss the rest of the pedagogic aspects in terms of statements, performance and perceptions. Learning affect and attitude will be addressed first. After that, I will discuss learning strategies, which include cognitive strategy, regulative strategy, communicative strategy and resource strategy. Then, the last pedagogic aspect of cultural awareness will be addressed. Having completed this, I will present suggestions for English test design from the NEC, current English tests in China and their influences on teaching practice, and finally, I will also introduce the forthcoming test reform and participants' perceptions of it..

8.2 Learning affect and attitude

8.2.1 Statement in the NEC

Affect and attitude refers to 'factors like interest, motivation, confidence, willpower and cooperative spirit, which affect students' English learning process and production, and also awareness of nationalism and international views which are gradually developed in language learning' (MOE, 2011, p20). Specific items for learning affect and attitude in the pedagogical goals are listed in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1 Benchmark for level 5 on affect and attitude.

<i>Level</i>	<i>Affect and Attitude</i>	<i>Description</i>
5	<i>Affection and attitude</i>	<i>1. Have clear learning goals, and understand that the aim of English learning is to communicate;</i> <i>2. Have English learning aspiration and interest, and be happy to participate in all kinds of practical English activities;</i> <i>3. Have confidence in English learning, and have courage to communicate in English;</i> <i>4. Be able to actively cooperate with others, help each other and</i>

		<p><i>accomplish learning tasks together in a team.</i></p> <p>5. <i>Be able to enjoy English learning, and be happy to listen to English songs or read English books and so on;</i></p> <p>6. <i>Be able to notice and understand others' affect and emotion in communication;</i></p> <p>7. <i>Be able to take the initiative to ask for help when confronted with difficulties, and have the courage to overcome difficulties;</i></p> <p>8. <i>When encountering English in daily life, be happy to explore and imitate;</i></p> <p>9. <i>Have a deep understanding of the culture of the motherland, and have a preliminary awareness of the international world.</i></p>
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Several points are more or less compatible with global Englishes. For example, in terms of language motivation, communication is taken as the most important and only learning aim, which can also find in global Englishes oriented ELT research (Mckay, 2012; Brown, 2012; Friedrich, 2012; etc.). Furthermore, interaction and cooperation with others, which are considered as two major features of global Englishes, are explicitly put forward as abilities that students ought to 'be able to' have. In more detail, for example, item 4 suggests the importance of cooperative spirit for the accomplishment of learning tasks in teams; in item 6, students are required to 'be able to notice and understand others' affect and emotion in communication', which implies a tendency of alignment and convergence with interlocutors (Cogo, 2009; Hüttner, 2009); item 7 asks students not only to 'have courage to overcome difficulties' but also to actively seek solutions. In other words, instead of remaining in a state of passive stalemate in conversation, the NEC is encouraging students to be flexible and proactive to solve problems. This kind of flexibility and pro-active attitude are essential in global Englishes settings.

However, as in linguistic knowledge/skill goals, there are also contradictory or vague statements in terms of learning affects and attitude. For example, in item 8, the NEC suggests that students should 'explore and imitate' English in daily life. To 'imitate' others' English in language learning indicates some degree of language fixity and limits language creativity. Item 9 suggests a slight tendency towards nationalism, since the balance between local and global seems to tilt towards the former, where students are required to 'have a deep understanding' of national culture but only 'preliminary awareness' of the international world.

More importantly, in the NEC statements in terms of affection and attitude, there is no clear definition of ‘English’ when it mentions English learning interest, motivation or other factors. In other words, the NEC does not define what type of English students should be interested in and motivated by. It seems that ‘English’ in the NEC in terms of affection and attitude tends to be a mono-lingual variety.

.In this pedagogic aspect in NEC, it can be seen that interest and motivation are two important and fundamental factors in language learning. These two factors decide students learning behaviour and their awareness of the international world. The NEC has clearly described what interest and motivation level students need to have. But are these what students really want or need? And do students really achieve what the NEC has described? To answer these questions, I would like to investigate students’ performance in the classroom and their and their teachers’ perceptions in the following sections.

8.2.2 Performance in the classroom

Since this pedagogical aspect is about learners’ learning affect and attitude, I would like to focus on learners’ performance in classroom teaching. I would like to present and discuss some differences in students’ behaviour among students from a Regular class, a Key class and an Elite class during the two-months of English classroom observation.

In the regular class, taking LAN’s class as example, there were 53 students but 5 to 7 students were always found resting their head on the desk. These students were at the back of classroom in the middle zone, and in the first two rows and last two rows on the left side and right hand side. These seat places indicate their poor performance in English learning from their teacher’s perspective (see the explanation of the relationship between students’ seats and performance in section 7.1). Besides these students, at least 5 students were also found whispering or reading novels in class. Students who were concentrating on the teachers’ lecture and interacting with teachers sat in the front and middle area of the middle zone. One interesting thing was that LAN did not wake the sleeping students up or ask the students to put away their novels as long as they did not disturb other students. LAN’s attention was focused on students who she thought ‘really wanted to learn’. Even more interesting was the fact that those who laid their heads on the desk were not really sleeping or tired. Some of them kept changing their sitting position or shaking their legs. It looked as though they had

pins and needles. As they had little interest in English learning, they had to find something else to do in class: pretend to sleep, read irrelevant books, or whisper with others. The only thing that energized and freed them was the bell at the end of the lesson.

JIANG's class was the only Key class in grade 8 which consisted of 60 students. Overall, students in the Key class were more active than those in the Regular class. During the teacher's lecturing time, students, especially those who sat in the back or side zones, tended to be lazy. Although only 1 or 2 students were sleeping at their desks, other students were quiet. When the teacher asked the class questions, there were not many answers, but the situation changed when the teacher stopped her lecture and adopted the competitive mechanism for interactions. For example, during exercise time, JIANG divided students into 5 groups with 2 lines as one group and let them compete. Before the competition, JIANG set clear reward-punish rules where the winners would do less homework than the losers. All students were interested. This was different from the Regular class where neither competitive mechanisms nor other strategies could attract the attention of those students who had lost their interest in English learning.

I also observed two Elite classes for two months, but YAO's class where there were 51 students impressed me much more than the other class. YAO's class was different from the others. For example, in other teachers' grammar classes, although a significant amount of time was spent on grammar usage and grammatical rules, teachers would include funny pictures or colours or design various modes for grammar teaching in their PPT slides in order to make their class less boring and to try and stimulate students' interest. But in YAO's class, I did not see this kind of attempt. YAO listed all the grammatical rules and usage using WORD documents. She presented these WORD documents using multi-media facilities and explained them line by line, word by word. There were no activities in class. For me, it was very boring. But surprisingly, students quite enjoyed the classes. They actively interacted with the teacher, concentrated on the teacher's lecture, and took notes without any reminders from the teacher. They followed the teacher's instructions with willingness and passion. The class atmosphere was lively, pleasant and relaxed.

From the above observations, we can see that levels of interest in English learning in the different classes were uneven and students' language learning behaviours were different. Some of them showed strong learning confidence and willpower, such as students in the Elite class; while some, like those who slept in the Regular class, seemed to have given up on

English learning. Some preferred interactional activities where they could cooperate with their team members and compete in a team; while some liked to interact with the teacher much more and felt that they could gain what they called ‘maximum grammar knowledge’ more effectively. These were things that were observed, but there are more things that it is not possible to learn from observations, like the students’ motivation, their confidence, the causes for their uneven levels of interest and their language learning behaviours. Thus, we need other methods, such as interviews and questionnaires, to understand the full picture of students’ English learning affection and attitude.

8.2.3 Perceptions of participants

In this section I would like present the different English learning affection and attitudes of both students and parents. The coding and analytic frame is as follows:

Table 8.2 The coding and analytic framework for perceptions on learning affect and attitude.

	Learning affect and attitude
Perception	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students’ statements about their English learning motivation • Students who suffered as a result of Standard English learning • Students who are happy to learn grammar for examinations

- Students’ statements about their English learning motivation

Students’ English learning motivation was ascertained through the student questionnaires in S-item 48. S-item 48 asks ‘what do you learn English for’. Students’ answers were identified and ranked according to 6 aspects (see Table 8.3). Among the 164 student participants, 42.55% of them state that they are learning English in order to pass examinations, which is the main reason for English learning. The second most popular motivation is to enable them to communicate with English people or English speaking foreigners? (23.41%). Such results are contradicted by the statements in the NEC, which explains that students should be clear that ‘the aim of English learning is to communicate’ (MOE, 2011, P.20).

The data also suggest other motivations. The third learning motivation is to explore exotic cultures which accounts for 14.89% of participants. Furthermore, 10.64% of students learn English in order to obtain a better job. The last two reasons are to enable study abroad (6.38%), and to spread Chinese culture to the world (2.13%).

Table 8.3 Results of S-item 48: what do you learn English for?

<i>S-item 48: What do you learn English for?</i> (answers from 164 student participants)		
1	<i>For examinations</i>	42.55%
2	<i>For communication with English people/English speaking foreigners</i>	23.41%
3	<i>For learning about culture</i>	14.89%
4	<i>For a better job</i>	10.64%
5	<i>For study abroad</i>	6.38%
6	<i>For spreading Chinese culture to the world</i>	2.13%

When we read these motivations on the surface, according to Gardner and Lambert's distinctions (1972), most of these motivations are instrumental motivations rather than integrative motivations. In other words, apparently, those 164 student participants are learning English mainly for functional purposes, such as passing examinations, finding better jobs, studying abroad or communicating with others; rather than for reasons such as integrating in English NS society or a desire to be identified as an English NS. However, as Shohamy (2006) reminds us, there are always implicit statements under the surface. These hidden agendas are called 'mechanisms' and have essential and deciding roles in their language learning.

As we have discussed in section 2.3, Canagarajah (1999) points out that when there are attempts to reinforce language ideology in practice, there is always resistance from the bottom. In this case, I have found that when there are attempts to reinforce Standard English ideology through examinations, students' other learning motivations are inhibited (see item 31 in the teacher questionnaire and S-item 29 in the student questionnaire which show the influences of examinations on teachers' teaching content and approach, and students'

learning). As a consequence, resistance happens where people lose learning interest, struggle for identity, or begin to question the need for English learning.

- Students who suffer as a result of Standard English learning

One specific resistance to the learning of Standard English for passing examinations occurs when certain students and their parents ask teachers to lower learning standards. Those students and parents believe that English is not an essential element in their future because they have no interest in going abroad or working in English relevant jobs. Some of them question why they should learn English if they know they will not use it in the future. Like LAN's student's parent (see example 8.1), they cannot see any situation where they might need to use English. Without communicative needs, it makes little sense to have strict English NS' requirements placed on them. More importantly, those parents mentioned by LAN and YANG did not want see their children suffer as a result of endless grammatical practice or strict examinations. They wanted their kids to master Basic English skills so that they were able to read or speak simple English and be happy.

Example 8.1:

237. *JAN: Some students once asked me: 'Teacher, I am not going to go abroad or do a*
238. *job relevant to English. I hate English. Why should I learn English? If they (English*
239. *people?) come to our country, they should learn our language'.*

240. *LAN: Students in my class (Regular class) all come from rural areas nearby. Most of*
241. *their parents have never been outside their village. Some of them tell me not to be so*
242. *strict with their kids' English learning. They say 'I don't know English, and I live*
243. *quite well. I haven't seen one foreigner in my life. When I buy a cabbage in the*
244. *market here, I do not need to speak English. Neither does my kid. I just want my kid to*
245. *be happy and learn in a relaxed way. As long as they can read English or speak Basic*
246. *English, that is enough. I don't expect him/her to go abroad'. You know, after hearing*
247. *what the parents say, I am speechless. If they do not need English, why should I force*
248. *them to learn?*

249. *YANG: When I call students' parents to discuss their kids' English learning*
250. *performance, students' parents explicitly tell me 'Miss Yang, learning English is for*
251. *what? To find a better job and then to earn more money. I have money. I don't need*

252. *my kid to be tortured by English learning. I just need him/her be safe and healthy in*
253. *school’.*

There should be no judgement of those students and parents. With the influences of the on-going process of globalization and the rapid development of English as a global lingua franca, people’s communicative targets and purposes are no longer fixed. English needs to be learned based on Kumaravadivelu’s theory of a ‘parameter of particularity’ (2003, see section 3.4.2). That is to say, language pedagogy needs to ‘be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu.’ (p.34). Thus, the setting of language learning goals should be in accordance with students’ needs and their particular situations. Parents and students’ requirements for lowering standards of English are suitable for their English purposes, which seems to be appropriate and reasonable.

However, when teachers relay parents and students’ ideas, I sense strong feelings of disdain. Before LAN actually told me the student parent’s words, she introduced his rural background and guessed that ‘most of the parents have never been outside their village’. Thus, we may infer that in LAN’s mind, the reason that those parents want to lower their kids’ English learning standards is because they have never seen the world. If they had seen the outside world, they would have different ideas. That is to say that LAN believes that Standard English norms are superior and that people with rich life experience or a high level of education would choose them.

In short, some students and parents are beginning to question why students need to learn English and why they should be required to adhere to strict Standard English rules. Following these initial thoughts, they realize that what they are required to learn is not what they want to or need to learn and some students begin to resist the learning goals that the authorities throw at them. But then they find that they cannot learn what they want because of the pressure of tests which are designed based on Standard English. Many students struggle with their language learning and some even give English up when their resistance fails. In the following I would like to present some examples that show the bad influences that Standard English has had on some student lives.

For example, students make a lot of effort to learn English, but their examination results then show that they are still not ‘perfect’. In the struggling and suffering learning process, some of

them gradually lose their confidence. At the same time, they begin to complain about ‘the endless grammar knowledge’ in front of them and doubt that they may ‘ever learn it all’. However, the data also suggest that, although they may not recognise the term ‘comparative fallacy’ between English NS and L2 learners (Cook, 1999), it seems that they realize that English NS goals are unattainable.

Example 8.2:

254. *JIANG: One of my students and I had a heart to heart conversation. She told me she*
255. *suffered with English learning because she could not see the significance of learning*
256. *English. What is the meaning of taking notes? ‘The teacher always asks us to write*
257. *what she says down. I have several notebooks filled with grammar rules and*
258. *knowledge that I wrote down in class, but I still do not get it. I still make lots of*
259. *mistakes and it seems that there is endless grammar in front of us that we will never*
260. *be able to learn.’ She also cried and said sometimes she felt like an ascetic monk in*
261. *language learning.*

Such suffering from learning Standard English is so painful that some students even give up. For example, some students find that the grammatical and lexical rules which are the main test points in examinations are hard to memorize. More importantly, they already know that the rote of abstract rules is not helpful in practical communication. As a consequence they choose to give up English learning. Students who sleep or read novels in English lessons in Regular classes are typical examples (see section 8.2.2).

Example 8.3:

262. *BING: This kind of student, they cannot learn anything in English classes. They say*
263. *that they have no interest in English and do not want to learn English. I find a lot*
264. *these students, at least 6 in every class. No matter how I guide them, they just refuse*
265. *to learn English. Then I say, if you don't want to learn grammar and think grammar is*
266. *too hard, you should at least make an effort to remember English vocabulary. They*
267. *say no. They explain that they cannot memorize the words, and even if they could,*
268. *they would still have no idea how to use them in practical communication. So why*
269. *bother?*

In short, the above data indicates a contradiction between the English learning aims stated by the NEC and the English learning needs of students. Brindley (1984) distinguishes objective

needs and subjective needs in his interpretation of language learning needs. Objective needs refers to the objective results of students' needs analysis that are assessed by outsiders, such as policy makers, teachers, institutions, or education ministries; while subjective needs involve students' preferences, desires or expectations. The latter information can only be gained with students' willing cooperation. Obviously, the NEC's stated learning aims are the objective needs; while the preferred learning needs of students are subjective learning needs. It is clear to see that the objective needs stated in the NEC conflict with the subjective needs of students. However, due to explicit or implicit powers, subjective needs usually give way to objective needs (Benesch, 2001). In this way, it is very important to question 'who sets the goals, why they are formulated, whose interests are served by them, and whether they should be challenged'. (p.61).

- Students who are happy to learn grammar for examinations

Besides the students mentioned above, there are also students who like grammatical and lexical learning, such as students in the Elite class (see section 8.2.2). The reason for their passion for Standard English learning as stated by their teachers, is that these students have a clear English aim, which is to obtain high marks in examinations. They actively participate in classroom learning and are happy to accept what the teacher gives them.

Example 8.4:

270. YAO: *I am not surprised by my students' performance (Elite class). Students need*
 271. *quite high marks in their Junior High school Entrance Examination to join the Elite*
 272. *class. They have a clear learning aim from their first junior high school day, which is*
 273. *to get high marks and enter Key Senior High school. They know grammar lectures*
 274. *and practice are good for passing examinations so they are happy to participate in*
 275. *these.*

Although they take Standard English as their learning target and positively accept strict grammatical and lexical learning, data from student questionnaires show their other ideas. In S-item 27 and 28, when being asked their attitudes towards the value of the grammar-lexical teaching mode for practical communication and passing examinations, students from the Elite class responded that it was more useful for examinations (M=3.05) and their expectations of the usefulness of this kind of learning for communication was slightly lower (M=2.43). In

other words, these students are quite clear that grammar-lexical learning is not so helpful for practical communication, but they still work on it. This result corresponds with what we discussed at the beginning of this section, that is, examinations are apparently students' learning motivation, but not their ultimate learning goal.

To summarize, in terms of English learning affect and attitude, the NEC requires students to be happy to learn English, take communication as their English learning aim, have learning confidence/willpower/cooperative spirit, and have patriotic feeling and international awareness. However, in classroom practice, not all of these requirements are implemented. Some students strongly reject language learning in class by sleeping, whispering, or reading novels; while some others participate in classroom activities only when teachers adopt a group competitive mechanism. But there are also students who are happy to focus on English learning and follow teachers' instructions all the time in class. These different learning performances in the classroom are due to students' different motivations, affection and attitudes towards English learning. According to the questionnaire data, the portion of students who learn English for examination is twice the number who learn English for communication. Students also have other learning motivations, such as spreading Chinese culture and obtaining a better job, but due to the power of examinations, students' other learning motivations seem to be inhibited, which leads to resistance. For example, students give up English learning, or doubt the attainability of the Standard English, or ask teachers to lower learning standards in accordance with their English needs. There are also students who like learning for examinations, but they do not believe that learning for examination will necessarily be helpful for their future communication.

8.3 Learning strategy

8.3.1 Statement in the NEC

Regarding the NEC, learning strategies refer to 'to kinds of actions and procedures, and principles that guide these actions and procedures which students use to learn and use more effectively' (MOE, 2011, p.21). Learning strategies are flexible and various. Four sub-strategies including cognitive strategy, regulative strategy, communicative strategy and resource strategy are selected as the core constituent elements of English learning strategies

by the NEC. It is suggested that the use of strategies should be ‘varied with people, time, place and event’ (ibid.). Pedagogical goals for each sub-strategy are described in detail in a table. In the following part, I would like to discuss the cognitive strategy being more contradicted with global Englishes and communicative strategy with more compatibilities with global Englishes.

- Cognitive strategy

The first strategy that the NEC requires students to master is cognitive strategy, which is defined as ‘procedures and methods that students use to accomplish specific learning task’ (MOE, 2011, P.21). Ten items are listed in terms of cognitive strategy (see Table 8.4).

Table 8.4 Benchmark for level 5 on cognitive strategy.

<i>Level</i>	<i>Learning strategy</i>	<i>Description</i>
5	Cognitive strategy	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To preview as needed; 2. To concentrate on language learning; 3. To be good at taking notes of key points in language learning; 4. To be good at making use of nonverbal information, like pictures, to understand key themes; 5. With the aid of associate methods to learn and memorize lexis; 6. To be able to actively review and wrap things up; 7. To be able to think positively during study, take the initiative to explore and discover the laws of language and to be able to draw inferences about other cases from one instance; 8. When using English, to be able to notice mistakes and correct mistakes properly; 9. When necessary, to make good use of knowledge of your native language to understand English; 10. Try to read English stories or other English books.

(My translation from the NEC, 2011, p21)

One feature of these cognitive strategies is the important role of cognition and ignorance of social context in language learning. In other words, English learning happens through the interaction between the individual’s mind and language, instead of interactions with others in

a social context. Most of items in the list have corresponding learning assumptions in traditional SLA research, but two of them are global Englishes relevant.

Items 1, 2, 3, and 6 show a traditional language learning process, that is, preview before class, concentrate in class, and review after class. The possible learning assumption may be based on behaviourist theory where repeat and practice are very important for a stimulated behaviour (Mitchell, Myles and Marsden, 2013). Items 5 and 7 emphasize the use of language laws to learn English more effectively. English, thus, is considered as a fixed and structured system with universal and regular rules. One possible assumption here is that mastering universal rules is the key to learning and using English well. It is very incompatible with global Englishes, where language rules vary with context and are dynamically and flexibly negotiated during interaction (Seidlhofer, 2011).

Item 8 requires self-correction in language usage, where students need to ‘notice mistakes and correct mistakes properly’. This conflicts with the ‘let it pass’ pragmatic strategy in global Englishes. Students are encouraged to read English stories or other English books in item 10. One possible inference which can be taken from this suggestion is that the NEC has concerns about one potential consequence of item 1 to 10, that students may not be clear how language is actually used in context. However, instead of practical, real life contexts, the NEC recommend language usage based on contexts described in books.

However, there are also items that are compatible with global Englishes, such as item 4 and item 9. Item 4 suggests that students should ‘make use of nonverbal information’ to ‘understand main themes’. In other words, it may indicate an initial awareness of taking multi modes as resources for communication. In item 9, students are encouraged to ‘make good use of knowledge of their native language to understand English’. Thus, although generally L1 is still considered as an interference in L2 learning, its role being one of learning resources that can prompt English learning is recognized to certain degree (e.g. Cogo, 2008).

- Communicative strategy

Communicative strategy is the third learning strategy that is listed in the NEC. It refers to ‘actions that students take to promote more communicative opportunity, maintain communication and improve communication quality’ (MOE, 2011, P.21). 6 pedagogical items are listed in terms of communicative strategy in the NEC, most of which are found be compatible with global Englishes.

Table 8.5 Benchmark for level 5 on communicative strategy.

<i>Level</i>	<i>Learning strategy</i>	<i>Description</i>
5	Communicative strategy	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Be able to use English to communicate with people in English learning activities in or out of class;</i> 2. <i>Be good at making use of English communication opportunities;</i> 3. <i>During communication, focus attention on meaning;</i> 4. <i>Be able to communicate with the help of gesture, body language and facial expressions;</i> 5. <i>When confronted with communicative difficulties, be able to ask for help;</i> 6. <i>Notice cultural differences between our country and other foreign countries in communication.</i>

(My translation from the NEC, 2011, p22)

Compared with other items, item 3 is more compatible with global Englishes. It explicitly states that students should focus on meaning during communication. From item 3, some degree of acceptance of various English forms can be sensed.

In item 4 it can be seen that, ‘gesture, body language and facial expressions’ are considered as important resources for communication and that students need to be able use these to communicate. The inclusion of these nonverbal resources as one of the explicit pedagogical goals in the NEC shows the gradually attached attention in language education. By focusing on the phrase ‘with the aid of’ in item 4, it is clear that ‘gesture, body language and facial expressions’ are considered as aids to communication. The status of these nonverbal resources in communication is questioned: are they taken as ‘compensatory actions taken by learners in a problematic exchange or helping strategies to make up for non-understanding’ or are they ‘accommodating strategies, whereby speakers adapt to the speech of their interlocutors in the conversation’ (Cogo, 2009, p259)?

Item 5 requires students ‘be able to ask for help’ ‘when confronted with communicative difficulties’. The ability to actively seek solutions for communicative problems slightly indicates students’ willingness to interact co-operatively, which is one of the important features of ELF conversation (Dewey, 2007). But the negotiation of problems during communication for a remedial purpose is just one of the communicative strategies that are

used by global Englishes users. According to empirical research, global Englishes users usually pre-empt problems before misunderstandings or other communicative issues occur by strategies like pre-empt repairs (Kaur, 2009; Cogo, 2009). Thus, although the NEC emphasizes the importance of strategies a little bit to solve problems when they occur, it ignores one important and popular strategy in global Englishes practice, that is, preventative strategy (ibid.).

The NEC also includes ‘notice cultural difference’ as one of the communicative strategies. In item 6, it asks students to ‘notice cultural differences between our country and other foreign countries in communication’. Students need to ‘notice cultural difference’ enough to enable smooth communication and need to know how to deal with these cultural differences with intercultural competence (Baker, 2012). I will discuss cultural difference further in the cultural awareness section.

8.3.2 Performance in the classroom

Student participants have 2 English lecture classes every day. The instructional language in English classes is Chinese. For example, teachers use Chinese to lecture about grammar or vocabulary usage and students also used Chinese to ask questions. In these classes, students’ main learning behaviours were identified as: taking notes, answering teacher’s questions and completing exercises. Thus there are few opportunities for creative answers or truly communicative conversation. As for exercises, teachers have strict lesson plans and students do what the teacher asks them to do.

As for English learning resources, only English study newspapers, textbooks and exercise books are used by participants. Students are asked to subscribe to English study newspapers specified by teachers and then they complete English exercises, like reading comprehension, as teachers require. Every student is asked to buy an English-Chinese dictionary. The Longman dictionary and the Oxford dictionary are recommended by two teacher participants. In ZH junior high school, there is a wireless internet connection, but only staff know the password. Students are not allowed to carry any personal electronic products including mobile phones and laptops. As for the multi-media facilities in classrooms, during the three-month observation, I did not see any teacher using them to explore English through the

internet. Among those multi-media facilities, the most frequently used is the projector, with which teachers usually play Powerpoint slides or WORD documents.

In summary, from the above we can see that the learning strategies listed in the NEC are not being fully implemented. Cognitive strategy is the most frequent strategy that students use in their daily learning, but as for regulative strategy, students do not or do not have the chance to regulate themselves. Teachers control most of the learning time by arranging learning tasks. Students seem very obedient and follow teachers' arrangements, which makes their learner autonomy less important and less necessary. This is also true of communicative strategy. Students are given limited communicative speaking opportunities in class time. Teachers control when and how students speak in class. More importantly, the NEC encourages students to explore English through various resources, but in practice, few resources are provided or used in English teaching and learning. In short, students' learning strategies in practice centre on learning and following Standard English rules which are transferred by their teachers.

8.3.3 Perceptions of participants

In this section, I would like to present the participants' perceptions of some key aspects of each learning strategy: cognitive strategy (taking notes, students' time in class), regulative strategy, communicative strategy (code-switching and English-only in English classes and body language), and resource strategy (English dictionary and after-school class).

- **Cognitive strategy**

In the NEC, one of the main pedagogic aims of learning strategy is to help students 'to form learning autonomy and lay the foundation for a lifelong sustainable learning' (MOE, 2011, P21). Learner autonomy is defined as 'development and exercise of a capacity for critical reflection, decision making, and independent action on the part of the learner' (Little, 1991, p4). Kumaravadivelu (2012, p46) defines the relationship between learner autonomy and learning strategies as 'being symbiotic' and calls this kind of strategies-based autonomy 'academic autonomy', where learners are expected 'to be strategic practitioners in order to realize their learning potential' (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p141).

This simple learn-to-learn autonomy is criticised for ignoring sociocultural and political dimensions in language learning (Benson, 1997; Pennycook, 1999). For example, in those learning strategies in the NEC, students are required to learn to complete specific learning tasks, learn to regulate self, learn to communicate and learn to explore learning resources. However, there is no learning strategy that asks students to relate their learning to socio-political aspects. It lacks ‘liberatory autonomy’ where students are supposed to be ‘critical thinkers’ to relate language learning to ‘questions of language choice’ and to social political factors in the constructions of ‘self-determination, self-motivation, agency, and identity’ that have great influences on their language learning (Kumaravadivelu, 2012, p47, 48). For example, there are some basic questions that students need to think about: what kind of English am I learning? Is this English that I will use in the future? What factors affect my learning? Who decides my language choice? Only with clear answers to these questions can students possibly liberate themselves from external influences and make their own learning strategies for their own benefit. In the following, I would like to present one typical example of isolating social context in language learning.

➤ *About taking notes*

From teachers and students’ performance in the classroom we can see that taking notes is an indispensable aspect of language learning and teaching. Teacher participants have different perceptions of taking notes. Some believe that it helps to enhance knowledge memorization; while some others think that students just transfer what the teacher says into a notebook instead of storing knowledge in their minds.

Example 8.5:

276. *LAN: If they don't take notes, they will forget very soon. They may have a rough*
 277. *impression of what they have learnt in class, but they cannot write it down accurately*
 278. *in an examination.*
279. *JIANGL: When I first taught reading comprehension, I found that students were very*
 280. *obedient when I asked them to write down the grammar points I lectured in their*
 281. *notebooks, but after a while, when I asked questions about those grammar points*
 282. *again, nobody knew the answers. Then I saw that they leafed through their notebooks*

283. *very quickly. I realized then that they put knowledge in their notebooks but not in their*
284. *minds.*

The above examples suggest that teacher participants closely relate taking notes to memorization. In other words, teachers think that ‘taking notes’ is a learning approach while the learning aim is to memorize knowledge and store this knowledge in the mind for accurate use in examinations. In this case, ‘knowledge’ refers to ‘grammar knowledge’ according to teacher participants. This is representative of some typical traditional SLA theories where input is directly transferred to output and social context is considered irrelevant to language output (Mitchell, Myles, and Marsden, 2013). More importantly, the learning approach of taking notes is examination-orientated rather than communication based.

- Communicative strategy

➤ *About code-switching and English-only in class*

Most of teacher participants did not approve of using only English in English teaching classes. In their classes, they prefer to use both Chinese and English to teach English and Chinese is the main instructional language. From the example we may see that, what students need is English knowledge. Code-switching between English and Chinese is considered as ‘an extra tool in communication’ that ‘allows for meaning making and greater nuances of expression’ (Cogo, 2009, p268). Another reason why English teachers reject English-only classes is because they think that code-switching is much more convenient. Time and energy are saved by using Chinese to explain terminology and rules of grammar in classroom teaching.

Example 8.6:

285. *YAO: I don't approve of English-only in English teaching. Last time I audited an*
286. *English demonstration class where English was the only language used, the teacher*
287. *spent more than 5 minutes explaining the meaning of the word ‘successes’. I don't*
288. *understand why time is wasted on this. You know, the aim of our teaching is to teach*
289. *knowledge, to make students understand. If we use Chinese, I think 1 second is*
290. *enough for students to understand the meaning.*

291. *LAN: I would never use English-only in my teaching. One reason is that my students’*

292. *English proficiency has not reached that level. Even if it had, I would not explain*
 293. *grammar usage in English. It is more convenient to use Chinese to explain grammar*
 294. *usage. You know, the instructional language is just a tool. It is not our final aim. Our*
 295. *aim is to teach students how to use English. We don't care what bowl is used, we care*
 296. *what is in the bowl.*

At the same time, some teachers also state that the reason that they have abandoned English-only classes is due to their students' limited English proficiency. They think that the choice of instructional language in English language teaching should be in accordance with practical context and local needs. For example, in ZH junior high school, teachers are tired of using English to explain everything when students have limited English proficiency and cannot understand English-only classroom teaching. Code-switching thus seems to be considered as a strategy that is only used by learners with 'low English proficiency'.

To summarize, as Gu (2012) mentions, learning strategy is 'triggered and defined by task demands' and is always 'tied to a purpose' (p318). From the four learning strategy descriptions in the NEC, we may infer that the NEC expects students to accomplish at least four major learning tasks: to learn for specific knowledge, to learn to regulate, to learn to communicate, and to learn to use various resources. Some aspects of each task are compatible with global Englishes. For example, in cognitive strategies, non-verbal information and L1 knowledge are included as English learning resources; in regulative strategies, students are encouraged to seek learning methods that are suitable to themselves; there are more in communicative strategies where body language and other pragmatic skills are suggested; while in resource strategy, language learning resources are not limited to fixed English in books but include dynamic live English in videos or on the internet.

However, in practice, not all these strategies are implemented. Students seem to have little learning autonomy and weak self-regulation in language learning. They tend to follow teachers' instructions to arrange their learning. More importantly, there is little chance to use communicative strategy, due to the fact that teachers control most of the speaking time in class. As for resources, students have difficulty accessing resources other than textbooks, exercise books and newspapers. In short, learning strategies are based around learning Standard English norms and following teachers' instructions. In terms of perceptions, students are not happy with standards, rules and teacher control, but have little power to transform their world. Teachers try to protect the high status of Standard English in teaching

practice, but there are also ambivalent attitudes that are global Englishes-oriented, like code-switching and body language.

8.4 Cultural awareness

8.4.1 Statement in the NEC

The NEC believes that language has rich cultural connotations. Culture in English pedagogy is defined by the NEC as ‘history, geography, local conditions and customs, life style, behaviour norms, literature and art, values and other aspects of the country where the target language comes from’ (MOE,2011, p23). Besides this definition, the NEC also lists its expectations for contacting and understanding foreign culture as part of the English learning process, which are as follows: 1) to ‘benefit English language understanding and use’; 2) to ‘deepen the understanding and love of Chinese traditional culture’; 3) to ‘provide more chances to enjoy all advanced cultures’; 4) to ‘help to raise international awareness’ (Translated and adapted from the NEC, 2011, p23).

Many similar discussions on culture in global Englishes research can be seen in the NEC statements in terms of cultural awareness (see Table 8.6). For example, there is no explicit expectation of the cultures of English speaking countries, but statements on cultures are contradicted in the table where the NEC lists 12 specific pedagogical goals for cultural teaching and learning. Culture in these 12 items can be analysed from 5 aspects: culture and language use (items 1,2,3,5 and 6); the culture of English speaking countries (items 4, 7 and 8); the culture of China (item 11); culture around the world (items 9 and 10); and cultural difference and similarity (item 12). From the above statements in the NEC, four features of its interpretation of culture are identified.

Table 8.6 Benchmark for level 5 on cultural awareness.

<i>Level</i>	<i>Cultural awareness</i>	<i>Description</i>
5	<i>Cultural awareness</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Know common body language used in English communication, like gesture, facial expressions;</i> 2. <i>Properly use terms of address, greetings and leave-taking</i>

		<p><i>language in English;</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. <i>Know and distinguish common names and nicknames for different genders in English;</i> 4. <i>Know English speaking countries' dietary customs;</i> 5. <i>Properly respond to compliments, requests, apologies and so on;</i> 6. <i>Properly express compliments, requests and so on;</i> 7. <i>Have a preliminary knowledge of English speaking countries' geographic locations, climatic features, histories and so on;</i> 8. <i>Know English speaking countries' interpersonal communication rules;</i> 9. <i>Know about popular entertainment and sports activities around the world;</i> 10. <i>Know about popular festivals and their celebration around the world;</i> 11. <i>Focus on similarities and differences between Chinese and foreign culture, and deepen the understanding of Chinese culture;</i> 12. <i>Be able to introduce the main Chinese festivals and representative culture and customs.</i>
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(Translate from the NEC, 2011, p23)

First, from the definition of culture and these pedagogical items in the NEC, it can be seen that culture is interpreted at national level. The NEC closely relates culture to target language and the country where the target language originates. However, in intercultural communication practice, this interpretation of culture would be problematic since 'specific languages and cultures are less easily identified' (Baker, 2009, p571). In other words, language, like English, may be performed with new cultural meanings when it is used in different contexts by different users (Risager, 2006). Sometimes, language use may involve culture which is neither the L1 culture nor the target language culture but is a third culture which exists in the world, or is provisionally co-constructed by interlocutors (Kramsch, 1993). Along with the flexible and dynamic use of global Englishes worldwide, culture has become a 'transcultural flow' where 'cultural forms move, change and are reused to fashion new

identities in diverse contexts' (Pennycook, 2007, p6). In this sense, we may say that 'there is no identifiable culture to which a language is inseparably tied' (Baker, 2009, p571). In terms of the NEC, English language thus is not necessarily tied to the English speaking countries where it originates.

Second, the awareness of culture that those pedagogical expectations and requirements embody clearly belongs to level 1 of intercultural awareness in Baker's framework (2011), that is, basic cultural awareness. In other words, cultural pedagogical expectations and goals in the NEC 'stress the need for learners to become aware of the culturally based norms, beliefs, and behaviours of their own culture and other cultures' and 'share a goal of increased understanding of culture and language learning to successful intercultural communication' (p4).

Third, although culture in a general sense, the culture of English speaking countries, the culture of China, and culture around the world are all included in the NEC's pedagogical goals, the culture of English speaking countries takes a superior position. For example, for the culture of English speaking countries, students are required to know 'dietary customs' (see item 4), 'geographic locations, climatic features, histories' (see item 7), 'interpersonal communication rules' (see item 8) and so on. However, in terms of culture around the world, the requirements are reduced to knowledge of 'popular entertainment and sports activities' and 'popular festivals and their celebration' (see items 9 and 10). In short, the NEC requires students to learn about almost all aspects of culture in English speaking countries. The reason for this can be inferred from the NEC's definition of culture which can be simplified as 'most aspects of the country where target language comes from'. In other words, it seems that the NEC takes English NS culture as the target culture just because English originates from English speaking countries. As a consequence of taking English NS culture as the target culture, other cultures become supplementary in English learning and teaching.

The fourth feature can be traced from the above three features where a lack of intercultural awareness can be easily identified. Intercultural awareness refers to 'a conscious understanding of the role culturally based forms, practices, and frames of understanding can have in intercultural communication, and an ability to put these conceptions into practice in a flexible and context specific manner in real time communication' (Baker, 2011, p5).

Unfortunately, there is not too much intercultural awareness in the NEC. The NEC requires students to learn about foreign culture, especially English speaking countries' culture, and

Chinese culture; and also requires students to be sensitive to the differences and similarities between foreign culture and Chinese culture. However, there are no suggestions about how to cope with differences in intercultural communication. More importantly, culture in the NEC statements seemed to be stereotypical and fixed. The intercultural awareness with ‘fluid, hybrid, and emergent understanding of cultures and languages in intercultural communication needed for English used in global settings is not found in the NEC (Baker, 2011, p6).

8.4.2 Performance in the classroom

Unlike grammar and vocabulary, on which teachers spend special teaching time, culture is usually fitted into small gaps or embedded within other teaching tasks in the classroom such as reading passages in English papers or exercise books. But the main resource for cultural learning and teaching is the textbook, which is also the main English teaching material in the classroom. The English textbooks that ZH junior high school students use is ‘Go for it’. It was published by The People’s English Press in 2013. Since my student participants are in the first semester of grade 8, I will take the first volume ‘Go for it’ for grade 8 students as an example to show how cultures are embedded (see Table 8.7).

In the first volume textbook for grade 8, there are 10 units with 10 topics, which include holidays, free time activities, personal traits, your town, entertainment, life goals, future life, cooking, invitations and decision making. Relevant communicative settings are constructed around these 10 topics. In the following table, I have listed the cultural contexts on which the reading passages and exercises (usually in section B 2 and 3) are based. Small dialogue practice, grammar practice and listening materials are not included.

Table 8.7 Cultural content in textbook.

<i>Units</i>	<i>Topics</i>	<i>Culture context</i>	<i>Events</i>
1	Holidays and vacations	Malaysia	Go to the beach, try paragliding, have lunch, ride bicycles, climb Penang Hill
		China	Huangguoshu Waterfall in Guizhou; Tian’anmen Square, The Palace Museum, a Beijing hutong;

2	Free time activities	China	Do exercises, use the internet and watch TV
		America	Jane's habits
3	Personal traits	America	Reading books
			Doing sports/playing tennis
			Be kind and funny
4	Your town	America, China	Introducing Talent TV shows; Greenwood Park
5	Entertainment	America	Introducing the history of Mickey Mouse
		China	Mulan movie
6	Life goals	Not clear	Resolutions
7	Life in the future	Not clear	Robots and science
		China	Future life in Shanghai
8	Cooking	America	Thanksgiving dinner in the United States
		Russia	Russian soup
		China	Yunnan rice noodles
9	Invitations	Not clear	Invitation to a Surprise party for Ms. Steen; Invitation to a new library
10	Decision making	UK; China	Problems and getting advice

From the above table we can see that except for units 3, 6, 7 and 9 where cultural contexts are not explicitly described, Chinese cultural context is mentioned 7 times, American context 5 times, and UK/Malaysian/Russian context occurred once respectively. Cultural contexts involve multiple aspects, from life scenes, landscapes and the science word to students' inner worlds. Foreign characters in the illustrations in the textbook appear much more regularly than Chinese faces. It is difficult to identify the exact nationalities of the foreign characters using hair colour or skin colour. In the dialogue, there is usually one Chinese and one foreign interlocutor, but the nationalities of these foreigners are hard to distinguish using their names (e.g. Jane, Jeff Green, Jake, David, Ms. Steen, Laura Mills, and Robert Hunt).

When teachers teach reading passages or exercises where culture is embedded, most of them focus their attention on grammar or vocabulary. Culture is unconsciously and passively learnt as a by-product in the passage learning process. However, during the observations, there were times when in the spare time after completing a teaching task, teachers talked about culture in class. In these situations, the students seemed interested in foreigners' lives as described by

the teacher. They even begged teachers to tell them more, but mostly, due to limited time, teachers had to stop.

To summarize, cultural resources are static, fixed and rare. As one of the key resources, textbooks mainly consist of Chinese culture and American culture. Other cultures are hardly mentioned. Cultural knowledge is not explicitly or particularly taught in class. Students learn about culture unconsciously through reading passage content. Intercultural awareness is not raised in the classroom. The characters pictured in textbooks are mainly Western faces and names which can possibly bring influences on English language learning identity. Having clarified what happens in classroom teaching, in the following section, I would like to present the interview data concerning what teachers think about the relationship between culture and learning, why they spend such a limited amount of time on cultural teaching, and how they perceive Standard English ideologies in textbooks in terms of culture.

8.4.3 Perceptions of participants

- Culture and English learning

Most of teacher participants believe that culture is one of the more important factors that affects English learning. Some think that culture exploration stimulates students' English learning interests; while others believe that familiarity with the 'target language culture' not only increases students' affection for English, but also improves their memorization of knowledge. Thus, we can see that teachers' cultural awareness in language learning is not used for communication but for effective learning of grammar and vocabulary. More importantly, culture in the view of teachers seems to be British or American culture, the countries 'where English originates'.

Example 8.7:

297. JAN: *When we learn English, we need to know the background cultures involved. For*
298. *example, like a phrase, we should be clear about the situation in which it was created*
299. *and for what purpose. Language learning would be very interesting if we kept*
300. *exploring the culture where the language originates.*
301. YANG: *Students are unfamiliar with foreign culture, like foreign customs or lifestyle.*

302. *Thus, they feel English is from a strange land far from their lives. This feeling affects*
 303. *their English learning interest.*
 304. *Researcher: What do you mean by 'foreign culture'?*
 305. *YANG: Oh, I mean British or American culture. You know, when we learn Chinese*
 306. *characters, we think the learning is very interesting. Like the character '山'*
 307. *(mountain), our teacher would tell us this character is written like this because it*
 308. *looks like a mountain. It is a hieroglyph. But in English learning, we only teach*
 309. *students how to read. Students learn by rote, but this memory does not last long*
 310. *because there is no culture attached.*

Besides the above, teachers also believe that there is a close connection between inner speech and language learning. Most of the teacher participants attribute inner speech in Chinese to 'time-consuming and non-efficient' English learning. They expect their students to be able to 'learn English by thinking in English and thinking as an English NS'. They think that this imagined immersion in English NS' culture will produce more authentic English language.

Example 8.8:

311. *YANG: By 'English way of thinking' I mean to learn English by thinking in English*
 312. *and thinking as an English NS. You know, most students, they think in Chinese, then*
 313. *they need time to organize their language and translate their ideas into English. This*
 314. *thinking process affects their fluency. More importantly, the English language which*
 315. *they translate from Chinese more or less loses English authenticity. They bring*
 316. *Chinese culture into their English communication. For example, they greet people by*
 317. *saying 'have you had lunch?' which we usually use in China instead of the common*
 318. *Western greeting 'hello'. It is weird. They should think as English NS think.*
 319. *Researcher: But sometimes, our first language helps us to sort out communicative*
 320. *difficulties.*
 321. *YANG: Yes, I know. But I would like that to be the last resort when we have no other*
 322. *alternatives. For English learning, I still think 'the English way of thinking' is very*
 323. *important.*

The exclusion of L1 in learners' thinking shows that teachers take L1 as an interference in L2 learning. More importantly, L1 was considered as a last resort that learners might use when

they have no other alternatives. This is not only contradicted by the NEC statements on learning strategy, where the use of L1 is encouraged to help with L2 learning (see section 7.3.1), but it is also incompatible with global Englishes, where L1 is considered as useful as any other resource in communication.

- Limited time for cultural teaching in class

Although teachers attach significance to culture in language learning, there are limited chances to introduce culture in the classroom. Teachers and students are quite eager to include culture in their English classes. For example, students would like to give up their break time to gain more cultural knowledge and teachers also regret that their cultural knowledge cannot be shared with students. The reason that teachers allocate little time for culture in English classes is the pressure of examinations, where grammar and vocabulary are the main test points.

Example 8.9:

324. *JIANG: In the current traditional grammar teaching mode, it is hard to address*
325. *culture in class. There is no spare time. We have to make use of every minute to*
326. *prepare for examinations. But if there were no examination pressures, I would*
327. *introduce geography, history, political systems and all other cultural customs in*
328. *class. You know students are very interested in these. Last time I talked about the*
329. *constitutional monarchy, but due to time, I was only able to address that issue in a*
330. *very simple and brief way. Students were so curious that they wanted to give up their*
331. *break time and asked me to finish the story. They really want to learn about culture,*
332. *but it is impossible to spend too much time on culture in the current education system.*
333. *LAN: You know, I have a Master's degree in English major. I have learnt a lot about*
334. *culture, literature and English language, but now, all this knowledge is useless. I have*
335. *few chances to share interesting cultural knowledge with my students. I have to focus*
336. *on grammar teaching. It's boring.*

- Standard English ideologies in limited resources for cultural teaching in class

As we discussed regarding performance in the classroom, textbooks are the main resources in which culture is embedded. China and America are the main two cultural contexts in textbooks, but as for images, more Western characters and living settings are provided than Chinese.

Textbooks are one of the most powerful mechanisms for reproducing language ideologies. Textbooks, which are the main teaching material in language classes usually carry with abundant ideological contents. Teachers complained that the pictures describe wealthy Anglo-American societies where teenagers do not seem to have worries about examinations or study. These idealized pictures give students the impression that the cultures of Anglo-American people are superior to their own local cultures (Matsuda, 2012). Most of the teachers agree that such impressions have already emerged. These ideological stereotypes are internalized by learners through repeated reading and learning in their daily lives.

Example 8.10:

337. LAN: *Students admire Anglo-American culture very much. You know, in our*
338. *textbooks, there are lots of pictures of Western life, food, dress and games. Western*
339. *kids at their age seem to participate in lots of activities, go to the beach or travel and*
340. *seem to have no worries about examinations. Their lives are quite different from those*
341. *of our kids. So I feel that when they compare these Anglo-American cultures to other*
342. *cultures, students begin to look down on other cultures, including their own.*

343. JAN: *The textbook includes lots of foreign culture that local students have never seen*
344. *before. Sometimes, it is hard for students to understand, but if any differences between*
345. *Anglo-American culture and Chinese culture are found, they tend to think that British*
346. *or American culture is superior to Chinese culture.*

More importantly, teachers worry that the exclusive portrayal of Anglo-American culture in textbooks makes students reject other foreign cultures. Teachers believe that knowledge of Anglo-American culture is not sufficient for international communication. English is just a tool. Students need to use English to learn about other cultures for future communication with non-English NS.

Example 8.11:

347. LAN: *For international communication, knowledge of Anglo-American culture of*

348. *course is not enough. For example, if you communicate with a Japanese person, they*
 349. *may have some cultural taboo. If you continue to take Anglo-American culture as the*
 350. *norm, you would probably cause misunderstandings. In this situation, English is just*
 351. *a tool. We use English to communicate, but the cultures that are involved in this*
 352. *communication are Japanese and Chinese. I just worry that students will reject other*
 353. *cultures if they only see Anglo-American culture in their textbooks.*

In conclusion, the influences of global Englishes or compatibilities with global Englishes rarely occur in the NEC statements, classroom performance or teachers' perceptions. In the NEC statements, although both local and international cultures are emphasized in language learning, Standard English influences are most prevalent. For example, statements about national level culture clearly belong to the very initial stage of intercultural awareness in Bakers' intercultural framework (2011). Such Standard English ideology is reproduced in teaching practice through textbooks, which are the main source of cultural learning and American and British culture are the main cultures found in textbooks. Except for the culture learning sources and content, the time allocated to cultural learning is an issue. Teachers in their interview data explain that the reason that they spend little teaching time on culture is because of the pressure of grammar-oriented tests. Interview data also suggest the influences of tests on teachers' beliefs about culture and learning, in which learning culture is considered as a way to improve interest in grammar learning. In addition, teachers worry that the Standard English ideology based textbook cannot meet the local need for students to express their own culture and inner world, and are not helpful for international communication where interlocutors have various lingualcultural backgrounds.

8.5 Tests

From the above analysis and discussion of five pedagogic goals (linguistic knowledge/skills, learning affect and attitude, learning strategy and cultural awareness), it is clear that tests have a significant influence on the implementation of the NEC, performance in the classroom

and participants' perceptions of language teaching, learning and using. In this section, I would like to introduce information about English tests in the NEC statements, in teaching practice, and also in the forthcoming test reforms.

In the NEC statements, the 'scientific English teaching evaluation system' is considered as an important safeguard for achieving the objective of the curricula (MOE, 2011, p33). The influence of tests on language teaching and learning is also recognized in the NEC, where making use of the positive guidance of tests in English pedagogy is strongly advocated. In addition, the NEC provides many suggestions regarding test design, from which two of them need to be mentioned in this section. The first one is that the NEC suggests that all English tests should be based on and be in accordance with the five pedagogic goals stated by the NEC. The NEC points out that English tests should stop focusing on grammar and vocabulary tests and should be based on communication. In other words, in an English test, five pedagogic aspects, including linguistic knowledge/skills, learning affect and attitude, learning strategy and cultural awareness should be covered. Another suggestion from the NEC regarding tests is that English should be tested in both formative and summative formats. It is further explained that English tests should reflect and focus on both the learning process and the learning product (*ibid.*).

From the above it can be seen that the NEC has quite loose requirements of English test design and is attempting to end the 'life-determining nature of tests' by recommending and emphasizing formative tests in English pedagogy. Besides test forms, the NEC's suggestion regarding test content also aims at encouraging English pedagogy to involve all five pedagogic aspects instead of only focusing on grammar teaching. However, in practice, the suggestions regarding both test forms and test content are not adopted.

In terms of testing practice, the most important test for junior high school students in China is the senior high school entrance examination, which is designed by local government and taken by third year junior high students in June. Students are high stakeholders in senior high school entrance examinations. The higher the score that they obtain in this examination, the better chance they have of going to a better senior high school. According to students and teachers, a better senior high school means better educational resources with better teachers and more facilities, all of which provide more guarantees of a better university place. The senior high school entrance examination is only held once a year. Thus, if students fail in such a test, they may go to a less satisfactory school or choose to retake the courses for one

more year and take next year's test. In this sense, the results of formative tests in usual study time becomes less significant in comparison with entrance examinations.

Such an English entrance test has a significant influence on 'what happens to test takers taking tests, the knowledge created by tests, the teachers preparing their students for tests, the materials and methods used in preparation for tests, the decisions based on test results' (Shohamy, 2006, p94). For example, in ZH junior high school, to prepare for the final senior high school entrance examination, students take a test which is designed by teachers every month in ZH junior high school. Students are ranked based on their examination scores every month. English tests affect not only the teaching schedule, content and approach, but also the evaluations of teachers' teaching performance. From LAN's words, we can see that to prepare for the senior high school entrance examination, teachers reduce the normal language learning time and spend several months on special practice, improving examination skills.

Example 8.12:

354. LAN: You know, there are 6 textbooks for three-years of junior high school study.
355. That is to say, two textbooks for each study year. But, for the third year students,
356. teachers usually take three or four months to go through two test books. The
357. remaining several months are used to do practice for the entrance examination. For
358. example, one month would be used to practice multiple choice questions. Students are
359. asked to do lots of multiple choice exercises until they are very sensitive and familiar
360. with the grammar points that these examinations usually test. Another month may be
361. used to cover cloze or reading comprehension. Teachers usually leave several months
362. for examination practice. These are unwritten rules. We all do it.

Teaching content is also affected. Taking as an example Henan province's senior high school entrance examination paper in 2014 (see appendix), the full marks are 120 points including 7 main question types: listening, multiple choice questions, cloze, reading comprehension (4 reading passages), fill the blanks and phrase's proper form, dialogue completion, and writing. The time allotted for the test is 100 minutes. The listening test accounts for 20 points, but it is not usually counted as part of the final score unless students are applying for a key senior high school, which means that many teachers give listening practice up in classroom teaching, such as teachers in ZH junior high school.

Teachers only teach what is in the tests, which is grammatical and lexical knowledge. Other aspects, like speaking, listening and culture are all excluded in the classroom. This type of teaching involves intensive grammar teaching and drilling. Although teachers and students feel that it is quite boring and meaningless for practical communication, they have to teach and learn English in this way because it is considered to be useful for examinations.

Example 8.13:

363. *YANG: I never do listening practice in class. The first reason is that listening is not*
364. *counted in the final examination scores. It is unnecessary to do it. Second, I have so*
365. *much grammar knowledge to teach that I cannot spare time for listening practice. The*
366. *same with the oral English practice. It is a waste of time to do these practices, not to*
367. *mention introducing cultures in class. I have to focus on what the examinations test.*

368. *JIAN: I really don't like intensive grammar teaching or vocabulary drilling all the*
369. *time. It is boring and useless for practical communication, but we have to do it*
370. *because it helps students to get high marks in examinations. Parents don't care much*
371. *about the process. They just want to see the high marks in their kids' examination*
372. *papers.*

Besides the above, test results are also used to evaluate teaching performance. As YAO and BING note, their teaching performance is decided by students' examination results. The better students' examination results, the greater the bonus and honour they receive.

Example 8.14:

373. *YAO: For every test, there are meetings to analyse test results. Every teacher is given*
374. *a hand out in which test results are ranked from best to worst. Sometimes, the*
375. *headmaster or senior leaders will ask teachers whose students are behind in the tests*
376. *to reflect in front of all the school staff. It is very embarrassing. You know. If it was*
377. *me, everyone would think my teaching was bad and that I should work harder in the*
378. *future.*

379. *BING: The final examination is important. Schools usually give year-end bonuses to*
380. *teachers according to their class's test results. If their students get higher marks than*
381. *other students, the teacher gets a bigger bonus. We do not care too much about the*

382. *money, but it is an honour, a reward for your work in the whole year. If you get a*
383. *small bonus, it seems as though you did not work hard enough.*

Thus, through affecting teaching schedules, content and method, and turning teachers into language policy implementation agents, tests successfully enhance Standard English ideologies by ‘determining the prestige and the status of languages’ ‘standardizing and perpetuating language correctness’ and ‘supressing language diversity’ in subtle ways without raising people’s awareness (Shohamy, 2006, p.95).

As we have discussed above, teachers and students have very passive attitudes to the current testing situation. Due to the power of tests, they have to teach what tests require, but there are gaps between their expectations and their performance. Such a gap results in the ‘time-consuming but non-efficient’ English learning situation. As a result, the Chinese government has begun to launch reforms on tests.

In 2014, the ‘Beijing province senior high school entrance examination reform plan for 2014-2016’ was issued by the Beijing education and test centre. As part of this reform plan, marks for English subject tests are reduced from 120 points to 100 points. More importantly, listening tests make up half the points; that is 50 points. Since Beijing is the capital of China and also the pioneer in every field, these test reform will be spread to local provinces in two or three years if they are successful in Beijing.

Teacher participants expressed their feelings regarding the forthcoming reform of tests where the overall 120 points are reduced to 100 points and listening tests make up 50 points, most teachers think highly of the forthcoming reforms. Some believe that to reduce English test scores from 120 to 100 will help to inhibit the crazy English learning trends and will improve Chinese language status. In addition, cram schools will be less popular as a result of the reforms of tests.

Example 8.15:

384. *YANG: I think it is a very good idea to reduce marks for English tests. You know,*
385. *nowadays, English learning is so popular that Chinese seem to be left out. It is time to*
386. *inhabit the English learning passion. After all, we are Chinese. Chinese language*
387. *should be our priority.*

388. *BING: The number of English cram schools would be reduced as a result of the*
389. *reform. Students do not need to spend money and time on boring grammar training. I*
390. *quite like it.*

More teachers are excited about the increase in listening scores because as a result, students and teachers may finally be free from intensive grammar learning. Students will have more opportunities to access live English in real contexts. Some teachers expect that the focus on listening learning will lead to the improvement of oral English.

Example 8.16:

391. *LAN: It is really good news. We can finally get rid of intensive grammar learning.*
392. *Our teaching in future will focus on listening, which relates English learning to*
393. *practical language use. English will no longer be dead English. It will change*
394. *Chinese learners' 'dumb English' situation.*

395. *JIANG: Students will spend lots of time on listening. You know, the more they listen,*
396. *the more they may produce. They can listen to real English which is used in real life*
397. *contexts.*

But there are also teachers who have worries about the forthcoming reforms. Some of them doubt the real changes that the forthcoming reform will bring. They are afraid that teachers and students will practice listening for examinations in the same way as they currently teach and learn grammar for examinations.

Example 8.17:

398. *YAO: I just worry that instead of spending most of the time on grammar lecturing,*
399. *teachers and students may spend their time on listening practice. I mean the*
400. *techniques needed for passing examination. Teachers and students may still not have*
401. *the freedom to choose and enjoy the English to which they listen. They may play the*
402. *listening exercises that will be tested again and again. They might fight again for*
403. *examination results.*

From the above we can see that participants have expectations and worries about the forthcoming test reforms. They expect the forthcoming reforms to shift their teaching and learning focus from intensive Standard English grammar rules to actual language use in communication. At the same time, they are worried that the current intensive teaching and

learning of grammar will change to intensive teaching and learning of Standard English listening. They are not sure whether the forthcoming reforms will actually bring them freedom to include various cultures, topics and accents in English classes.

8.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have discussed the remainder of the pedagogical goals, such as learning affect and attitude, learning strategy and cultural awareness. In terms of language learning, many pedagogical goals in the NEC statements are slightly compatible with global Englishes. For example, as global Englishes research takes a social perspective on language learning (see section 3.4.1), the NEC also emphasize communication as a English learning aim (see section 8.2) and encourages students to have both patriotic and international awareness in language learning. As for specific learning strategies, there are not only cognitive strategies, but also communicative strategies where many global Englishes-oriented accommodation strategies are included, such as taking L1 as a resource and using body language.

However, few of these global Englishes oriented pedagogical goals are achieved in teaching practice. Instead, those Standard English ideology embedded pedagogical requirements stated in the NEC have much more influence on language learning and teaching practice. Learners do not show much passion for English learning but learn passively by taking notes, reciting vocabulary and practicing grammatical knowledge in order to pass tests. The ‘learning-English-for-communication’ pedagogical goal stated in the NEC retrogressed to ‘learning-Standard English-for-grammar-oriented-test’ learning practice. The Standard English grammar learning practice has made many students’ language learning a miserable experience. Many students and their parents complain that Standard English learning does not match their language needs. Interview data show that English for them is used for daily communication where fluency is much more important than language accuracy. Thus, they think that it is unreasonable to judge their English using Standard English forms. However, such language beliefs are regarded as short sighted by some teachers who think that those students are seeking excuses for their failures in language learning. However, more teachers take the opposite view that intensive Standard English grammar learning is not helpful for practical communication. They would like to make changes to current teaching practice, but

due to the power of Standard English-based tests, they have to keep teaching in the original way.

As for the other pedagogical goals, i.e. cultural awareness, there is less global Englishes influence or compatibility in the NEC statements, teaching practice and participants' perceptions. In the NEC statements, culture frequently relates to national level culture, particularly to the culture of English speaking countries. In practice, specific cultures, especially American culture and British culture, are introduced through textbooks. More importantly, although cultural awareness is listed as one of the five main pedagogical goals in the NEC statements, it is not emphasised as much as the other pedagogical goals. Teachers spend little time on cultural learning in class, although both teachers and students have much passion for and interest in culture. The reason for the limited time spent on cultural learning, according to the interview data in section 8.4, is the pressure of the grammar-oriented tests.

Together with the findings in chapter 7, the five pedagogical goals (linguistic knowledge/skill, learning affect and attitude, learning strategy and cultural awareness) have all been discussed. One common aspect that is shared by those five pedagogical goals is the test wash back on teaching practice, which leads to inconsistencies in language beliefs, behaviours and the NEC statements. Thus, in the latter part of this chapter, I discussed English tests in the NEC statements, practice and perceptions. The data suggest that although the NEC advocates a formative-summative-combination test system, summative tests which are much more high-stake attract more attention in practice. More importantly, those summative tests, such as senior high school entrance examinations, are Standard English grammar oriented which results in an intensive grammar teaching and learning practice. The forthcoming test reforms attempt to change such a grammar focused teaching practice by shifting the test focus to listening. However, many teachers worry that it will cause a new trend focused on intensive listening training. In short, tests have great wash back on teaching/learning content and behaviour. It is necessary to question tests from a global Englishes perspective if we require global Englishes-oriented curricula, teaching practice and teacher performance.

Until now, quantitative and qualitative findings are all presented. In the next chapter all the findings of chapter 6, 7, 8 will be draw together and be discussed in relating to theories reviewed in chapter 2, 3 and 4.

Chapter 9 Final discussion

9.1 Introduction

In previous finding chapters, data are present and discussed separately. This chapter will draw findings together from chapter 6, 7 and 8 and will discuss those findings by referring back to the three theoretical frameworks that were discussed at the beginning of the thesis (e.g. postmodernism, Spolsky's and Shoahmy's, see chapter 2 and 3). Findings will be discussed from both macro and micro perspective. At macro level, language policy and practice in general will be addressed. The relationship of the NEC statements, classroom performance and participants' perceptions will be evaluated from a global Englishes perspective using Spolsky's (2004) language policy framework. Hidden agendas such as mechanisms and language ideologies will also be dealt with in this chapter. Afterwards, the discussion will be narrowed down to ELT area. From a micro perspective, language and language teaching in class will be talked about. Implication on English pedagogy will also be given along with the discussion.

9.2 Discussion at macro level: language policy and practice

9.2.1 Inconsistencies between language policy and practice

As discussed in the literature review, language policy consists of three components; language management, language beliefs and language practice (Spolsky, 2004). In this research, the NEC statements is taken as language management, which is supposed to intervene from the top down. The other component, which involves language use and behaviours that actually occur in practice, is classroom performance. Language beliefs are 'a general set of beliefs about appropriate language practices'. There are top down language beliefs, which are embedded in policy documents and bottom up beliefs, which come from grass roots language practice. Data concerning participants' perceptions of language, language use and language pedagogy belong to the category of language beliefs from bottom up.

In an ideal situation, these three components would be consistent with each other. The NEC

document is supposed to reflect people's language beliefs concerning language use, learning and teaching and affect language practice, while language users are expected to implement the NEC document in practice. But, as my data show, this is not the case in this research. The three components of language policy are not as closely linked as expected in this research. Three main inconsistencies have been identified from a global Englishes perspective.

One of salient inconsistencies among the three components lies in the educational purpose. It can be seen from findings that in terms of educational purpose, the NEC statements do not reflect both practice and language beliefs. In the NEC statements, compatibility with global Englishes is identified in the 'comprehensive language-using competence' pedagogical objective in which English is not merely interpreted on a grammatical level but also on pragmatic and cultural levels (see section 2.2). Those English NS-based assumptions in the traditional curriculum, such as 'the students need to learn the English of native speakers' (Brown, 2012, p.147), are not found in the explicit statements of the NEC (although they are reflected in the implicit statements of the NEC among lists of strict Standard English based grammar rules!). The observation and interview data of this research suggest that, in practice, Standard English is taken as the only target language model to learn and to teach since it is the model that language tests examine. Alternative Englishes which can meet local context and students' needs as Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) suggest, are not found in language pedagogic targets at all. But in my participants' perceptions, educational purposes are more individual and context sensitive. Many my teacher participants state that being able to communicate is the main pedagogical purpose for them (see section 7.3). There are also data that suggest that some student participants do not want to learn Standard English since they believe that English for basic communication is enough for them; while most students learn English in order to gain entry to better universities (see section 8.2). Participants' English learning purposes are different from what they are doing in practice and what is expected in the NEC.

Another inconsistency in the NEC statements, classroom performance and participants' perceptions can be found in language teaching methods and content. As the data suggest, the NEC has listed specific requirements for language teaching/learning divided into five aspects; linguistic knowledge/skill, learning strategy, affect and attitude, and cultural awareness. To fulfil these five teaching requirements in class, the NEC recommends the communicative language teaching method (CLT) in which Standard English is taken as the linguistic learning model and English NS culture is the model for language tasks and activities. In terms of

linguistic knowledge, Standard English is not explicitly stated as the teaching/learning model in the NEC, but all grammatical, spelling, pronunciation and cultural rules of American English and British English are listed as teaching/learning models and goals (see section 7.3.1.1, 7.3.2.2, and 7.3.3.1). As for cultural teaching/learning, there is a clear statement that students need to be familiar with English speaking countries' cultures (see section 8.4).

The third significant inconsistency among the language policy components (i.e. the NEC statements, classroom performance, participants' perceptions) concerns English tests. In the NEC statements, two suggestions are provided for language tests (see section 8.4). One suggestion is that language tests need to be designed with a focus on 'comprehensive language-using competence'. Such a suggestion aims at abandoning the previous linguistic knowledge-centred test and including other aspects (i.e. the five pedagogical aspects in the NEC) as test content. It can be seen that the NEC prefers a practical-based instead of norm-based test, which is compatible with global Englishes oriented tests (e.g. Bailey and Masuhara, 2013; Jenkins and Leung, 2014; Lowenberg, 2002; McNamara and Roever, 2006). The other suggestion regarding language tests is that teachers need to recognize that both summative and formative language tests play equally important roles in language learning and teaching. The emphasis on both test formats is an attempt to change the learning for summative tests. However, neither of the suggestions in the NEC regarding tests are adopted in language testing practice (see section 8.4). Instead of evaluating practical communication skills, language tests focus on testing grammatical knowledge and vocabulary. Language tests thus become powerful mechanisms for transmitting Standard English ideology (Shohamy, 2006). Senior high school entrance examinations are much more important than any other language examination in English pedagogy, and have a significant influence on language teaching and learning. Teachers are highly dissatisfied with current language tests due to their influence on language teaching and learning, and their focus on grammar and language accuracy.

In summary, many inconsistencies in the NEC statements, classroom performance and participants' perceptions have been identified, which can be summarized as three aspects; educational purpose, teaching procedures, including teaching method and content, and language tests. Such inconsistencies indicate that the NEC statements have a very limited influence on language practice and beliefs, which contradicts Spolsky's framework, in which language management is supposed to make 'specific efforts to modify or influence that practice' (2004, p.5). Several reasons have been revealed for the failure of the NEC

statements as a language management tool. According to the data, one of the reasons is that the NEC overlooks practical context and does not reflect students' learning needs. Besides this, data also suggest that the reason why teachers do not implement the NEC in practice is because they are not clear about the NEC's statements (see section 7.2). In their words, there is no systematic teacher education program that allows them to become familiar with the NEC document. Furthermore, some teachers think that the NEC document is so abstract and unpractical that it is not helpful for their teaching (see section 7.2).

These reasons justify why the NEC has become only a declared language policy with a limited influence on practice, but they do not explain why only part of the NEC is implemented while other parts of NEC are not. As the data show, there are statements in the NEC that are global Englishes relevant and statements that are Standard English oriented. However, in practice, only the Standard English oriented statements are implemented while the global Englishes relevant statements are not put into practice at all. More importantly, the Standard English oriented statements were not only implemented but become enhanced through execution and effort. What is the de facto language policy that can affect the implementation of language policy? In other words, if participants' language practice and perceptions are not deeply affected by the NEC statements, then what does affect them? To figure out what is the de facto language policy that affects language practice and beliefs, it is necessary to look back to Shohamy's (2006) interpretation of language policy (see section 2.4).

9.2.2 Standard English ideology and mechanisms of language policy

According to Shohamy (2006), there are overt language policies and covert language policies. Overt language policies, as the name suggests, include documents that explicitly state policy; while covert language policies include documents that state policy in an implicit way. Those implicit statements are implicit statements of language policy, which are usually the real intentions of language policy and also the part that is implemented in practice. For example, the NEC statements appear to be global Englishes oriented, and phrases such as 'Standard English', 'English native speaker', 'British English' and 'American English' are used less than three times. However, in the statements are specific requirements regarding phonology, grammar and lexis, where Standard English ideology abounds. As the data show, it is this Standard English ideology that is implemented in practice.

Mechanisms, as Shohamy (2006) points out, play an important role in the implementation of implicit statements and are the cause of inconsistencies among the three components of language policy. They are ‘overt and covert devices that are used as the means for affecting, creating and perpetuating de facto language policies’ (Shohamy, 2006, p.54). In the literature review, three mechanisms are discussed from a global Englishes perspective, i.e. curricula, textbooks and tests. Since the data suggest that tests are the most powerful mechanisms in language practice, the focus of the following part will be on tests.

The fundamental problem with language tests, as Jenkins and Leung (2014) point out, is also found in English tests in this research context where ‘the basis of its language modelling and norming has failed to keep in touch with contemporary developments in English’ (Jenkins and Leung, 2014, p.1615). According to my data, English tests mainly focus on linguistic aspects in which Standard English is taken as the language norm (see section 8.5). Since tests have a significant influence on ‘what happens to test takers taking tests, the knowledge created by tests, the teachers preparing their students for tests, the materials and methods used in preparation for tests, the decisions based on test results’ (Shohamy, 2006, p.94), the Standard English ideology embedded in the NEC statements is implemented through tests. The global Englishes oriented NEC statements thus pays ‘lip service to declarations and intentions’ (Shohamy, 2006, p.52); while tests become ‘a set of mechanisms which are used in subtle ways to manipulate language and create de facto language policies’ (Shohamy, 2006, p.93).

Language tests reproduce Standard English ideology in both teaching practice and learning practice as my data suggested. Tests influence language practice by ‘determining the prestige and the status of languages’, ‘standardizing and perpetuating language correctness’ and ‘suppressing language diversity’ (Shohamy, 2006, p.95). Through affecting teaching schedules, content and approach, and turning my teacher participants into language policy implementation agents, tests successfully transmit and enhance Standard English ideologies. For example, as my teacher participants explain in interviews, in teaching practice, to prepare students for the senior high school entrance examination, most of my teacher participants give up all global Englishes oriented ideas about language and language teaching. Instead of introducing various cultures, taking language fluency as priority, and involving social context in class, my teacher participants focus on grammar lecturing and spend several months giving their students special practice to improve the skills needed for Standard English-oriented examination papers (see section 8.5). Thus, it can be seen that although some of my teacher

participants can critically reflect on language practice, global Englishes-oriented language teaching, such as Kumaravadivelu's (2006) postmethod and Dewey's (2012) post-normative approach, cannot be realized as long as Standard English based tests are not changed.

As for learning practice that are investigated in this research, language tests do not reflect my student participants' learning motivation and cause many students to struggle with language learning (see section 8.2 and 8.3). The results of the collected data are similar to Zheng's (2013) research, where students are confused by the Ideal L2 Self, the Ought-to L2 self and learning experience (see section 4.2.2). As my data show, student participants wish to be English users who can communicate without comprehension issues. They care much more about how their communication purpose can be successfully achieved than whose language norms or models need to be followed. My student participants feel that grammar 'mistakes', L1 influenced accents, creative lexis, and pragmatic strategies can be accepted if they are helpful for communication. However, due to the pressure of Standard English/English NS based tests, my student participants hide their desire for an Ideal-L2-self and turn to pursuing the Ought-to L2 self by taking Standard English as the language norm and English NS as the learning model. Such beliefs regarding Ought-to L2 self as Standard-English/English NS-like are enhanced during the learning experience, which is also deeply affected by Standard English ideology during the textbook learning and grammar practicing process. Zheng's (2013) research notes that such inconsistency between the Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self and learning experience also makes many students' language learning process miserable. Such findings are also reflected in my data. On one hand, my participants feel frustrated that taking English NS as the Ought-to L2 self is unrealistic and unattainable; on the other hand, they dare not pursue the Ideal-L2-self due to the pressure of Standard English based tests.

According to Spolsky (2004) and Shohamy (2006), there are battles between language management and language practice, which both attempt to reproduce language beliefs. For example, in this research, the NEC is trying to reproduce Standard English ideology through tests; while participants show a preference for global Englishes. Bottom-up resistance is found in students' struggles with their Standard English grammar learning (see section 8.2.2) and in teachers' complaints about the intensive Standard English grammar teaching (see section 7.3.3.3). Such resistance eventually causes English learning to become 'time consuming but not efficient' (see section 8.2.3) which indicates the failure of the NEC' pedagogic goals.

As a consequence, global Englishes-oriented language beliefs have the upper hand in practice in the battle in which language management is forced to be modified from the top down. As the data show, the senior high school entrance examination has been reformed in Beijing and will be rolled out in 2016. Since the new examination paper has not been made publicly available, it is hard to evaluate the new test from a global Englishes perspective. However, a move towards global Englishes can be seen from the general guidelines that the reform plan provides. For example, they state that the grammar test will be significantly reduced and a listening to authentic English test will be introduced (see section 8.5). The fact that the test is shifting from just examining grammar to examining grammar and listening indicates relatively loose requirements for language accuracy and relatively dynamic and evolving perceptions of language.

In summary, in this section, I focus on the discussion at macro level by integrating language policy (i.e. NEC in this research), language practice (i.e. classroom performance and participants' perceptions in this research) and language mechanism (i.e. language tests in this research). As data suggested that there are many inconsistencies between language policy and practice in terms of global Englishes and test is found the important factor for such inconsistencies. In next section, the micro level of English pedagogy, i.e. ELT, will be examined from global Englishes perspective and implications for Chinese education context will be partially addressed as well.

9.3 Discussion at micro level: ELF and ELT

9.3.1 The concept of English

In the literature review chapters it was made clear that English language is interpreted in this thesis as global Englishes (see section 2.2), which refers to translation, transmodality, transculturality and transtextuality among Englishes and other languages (Pennycook, 2007). In this thesis, global Englishes mainly functions in an ELF (English as a Lingua Franca) sense meaning 'any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option' (Seidlhofer, 2011, p.7). Based on postmodernism, the global Englishes perspective has been used to question

concept of English in the language policy field (e.g. Pennycook, 2006; Shohamy, 2006). Key terms, such as ‘native/non-native’, ‘variety’ and ‘community’, have been re-interpreted. The natures of translation, transmodality, transculturality and translinguality have also been examined by reviewing global Englishes through linguistic aspects, pragmatic aspects and intercultural aspects (e.g. Baker, 2011; Cogo & Dewey, 2006; Jenkins, 2000; Seidholfer, 2004).

Some of the above postmodernism and global Englishes oriented interpretations of English are reflected in the collected data. For example, as the questionnaire data and interview data suggest, many participants have begun to question the ownership of English (see section 6.3), the necessity of imitating English native speakers’ accent (see section 7.3), the requirement of accuracy in practical communication (see section 7.3), the fairness of using Standard English as a yardstick for measuring students’ English proficiency (see section 8.2), the unattainability of English native speaker proficiency by students learning English (see section 8.2) and are reflecting on their communication targets and English learning purposes.

However, such critical reflections on English from a global Englishes perspective are not obvious in the NEC document data or classroom observation data. In the following chapter, I will discuss the key findings of this study in relation to the concept of English by cross-referencing analysis of each of the data sets and the literature review.

First, contrary to its flexible, dynamic and evolving nature (see section 2.2), English is taken as a system where language is considered to be an integration of a phonological system, a semantic system and a syntactic system and where a finite number of fixed and abstract grammar rules are expected to produce infinite language structures (Chomsky, 1959). Such a concept of English can be easily found in the NEC statements, where specific phonological, lexical and grammar rules are listed and in classroom performance data where language is taught and learned in separate sections (see section 7.3.1, 7.3.2, and 7.3.3). More importantly, the interpretation of English as a fixed abstract system has isolated social-cultural context and overlooked the complexity and changeability of language (Canagarajah, 2013).

Second, the findings suggest that although the NEC statements include multiple components for English learning pedagogy (e.g. linguistic skills/knowledge, learning strategy, affect and attitude and cultural awareness), linguistic skills/knowledge are considered as the most important and even the only components of communication according to the interview and observation data. Taking linguistic skills/knowledge as the main or only resources for

communication contradicts global Englishes research, where communication is completed through multiple modalities, such as language, pragmatic strategies and culture (e.g. Baker, 2011; Cogo and Dewey, 2006; Jenkins, 2015; Pennycook, 2006). Language is regarded as one of the communication resources; while other resources, such as pragmatic strategies, are equally important in communication. However, the interview and observation data suggest that many pragmatic strategies are taken as a sign of insufficient language ability (see section 8.3); and cultural knowledge is rarely involved in teaching and learning practice (see section 8.4).

Third, unlike the concept of global Englishes where Englishes mixed, blended and reshaped among languages, among modalities, and among cultures (Pennycook, 2007), my collected data shows that English language is considered to have multiple varieties. For example, in the NEC statements, English is implicitly defined as Standard English. Meanwhile, my interview data indicate that teacher participants usually misunderstand global Englishes as being a combination of many English varieties. Such a misunderstanding leads to teachers having a negative attitude towards bringing global Englishes into the classroom, since they believe that learning so many varieties of English will increase their workload and make students confused (see section 7.3).

Besides the above three key findings, there are some other interesting data relating to the concept of English which reflect the blurred understanding of global Englishes. For example, the terms ‘Standard English’, ‘native speakers’ English’ and ‘authentic English’ are usually conflated when used by participants. In the NEC statements, phrases like ‘American English’ and ‘British English’ are not explicitly used but vaguely represented by ‘English speaking countries’ English’ or by strict Standard English grammatical or phonological rules.

In short, some of my data indeed suggest that participants critically reflect on English language from a global Englishes perspective. However, data in general of this research still indicate that English is mainly interpreted as a fixed abstract system, which is regarded as the main or even the only resource for communication and which is considered as the combination of isolated elements. Such an interpretation of English has heavily affected their language teaching beliefs and behaviours. For example, many of my teacher participants state that they are used to teaching language with prescribed grammar rules, reference books, and teaching materials. They base their English teaching on those Standard English norms and take English native speaker as pedagogic model. English for my participants is an integration

of a phonological system, a semantic system, a syntactic system and a finite number of fixed and abstract grammar rules that are expected to produce infinite language structures. It is a fixed abstract system but can be described and codified with specific fixed grammatical rules that they can teach and learn. As for ELF, many of my participants express that they cannot relate ELF to ELT since ELF is too complex, flexible and dynamic while ELT needs language norms and models. It is easier for them to accept ELF at theoretical level, but in practice, few of them would introduce ELF in their classroom. Except the main gatekeeper of Standard English-based language test, the lack of systematic description and codification of ELF is another barrier for implementing ELF in ELT.

9.3.2 ELF and ELT

My participants' understanding of language and their contradicted feeling on ELT and ELF can represent many people in English pedagogy field (see, Galloway and Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2007;). One of the factors that result in the indispensable language norms and models for ELT is the increasing development of corpus studies. With the aid of computer technology to 'assemble and analyse vast quantities of actually occurring language data' in corpus, 'detailed profiles of actual language performance that reveal norms of usage that language users and analysts alike were hitherto unaware of' are revealed (Seidlhofer, 2011, p.182). Those revealed norms of usage are thus considered as 'natural' and 'authentic' English that the English learning objective should be matched up with. English native speakers, especially those 'educated' English native speakers' language thus are taken as the language to learn for (i.e. pedagogic objective) and the language that need to learn from (i.e. the learning process) as one important consequence of the impact of corpus studies, especially those influential large-scale ENL corpora studies such as CANCODE and COBUILD.

Many of those corpora findings are directly applied into ELT field. For example, language learning materials and pedagogic grammars are described based on 'constantly updated multimillion word databases of language' (O'Keefe, McCarthy and Carter, 2007, p.21); high frequency of readily-assembled chunks are selected as lexical items, especially collocations for students to learn by (Cogo and Dewey, 2012). It is assumed that those languages forms as well as the revealed 'norms' from the ENL corpora are essential in ELT if English learners

are going to acquire ‘natural’ and ‘authentic’ language. However, along with the increasing findings on language use from ELF corpora (e.g. Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English; the ELF academic corpus), it is necessary to rethink the relationship between ENL corpora findings and ELT classroom.

As Widdowson (2003) points out, the key issue here is the confusion between ‘samples’ and ‘examples’. In traditional classroom, Standard English norms and ENL’s ‘authentic’ language are decided as the pedagogic objectives and learning/teaching content since they are thought as examples of language that can represent the general language use. However, there is no evidence to prove that Standard English norms are typical or the ENL’s English are authentic. May be in ENL corpora, they can be accounted as example by calculating the frequency or the coverage of certain language. But the problem is that ENL corpora do not include all ENL’s English use but just small part of language in ENL group. In this way, it is hard to say Standard English norms are examples of certain English use or cannot say the ENL’s English described in the copra are authentic to other ENL who are not included in the ENL. Thus, those norms are far from representing English NNS’ English when those ENL corpora exclude English NNS’ English in their studies. Therefore, those Standard English norms cannot represent English NNS’ English at all and those so called ‘authentic’ ENL English are not so typical among language used by large population.

Standard English norms and ENL’ English as pedagogic objective and content thus need to be reconsidered. As Seidlhofer (2011) pointed out, the central pedagogic problem is ‘deciding what formal or functional features of the language as a whole are to be focused on as appropriate for learning’ (p. 176). If Standard English norms are questioned, then what alternative norms should be decided or shall we need language norms in ELT? To answer this question, it is necessary to look back to the original meaning of pedagogic objectives in ELT. Pedagogic objectives in ELT can be interpreted in many ways, but generally they favour a focus on ‘how the language is normally and naturally used’ (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 181). In other words, pedagogic objectives need to be designed to prompt students’ English as close as to the English using practice where ‘language is normally and naturally used’.

As reviewed in Chapter 2, many empirical researches have been done very recently on English using practice (see section 2.2.3). Findings from those researches suggest that English is not used as Standard English which interprets English as a fixed abstract system and as the main or even the only resource for communication; but is used as global Englishes

where English functions as a lingua franca and transgresses language barriers, modalities, and cultures. It is not advocated that ELT should teach exactly the language used in practice since language in language classroom is not the same as the language used outside classroom. But, from an ELF perspective, the English using practice should be reflected, or at least be informed in ELT. ELT classroom should move beyond the focus on linguistic norms discussion and interpret English as an integration of linguistic, pragmatic and cultural components.

But first, let's come back to the question of alternative language norms in ELT. As my participants worry about, it is apparent that ELF fluidity is not so easy to be related to ELT which admires standards and grammar rules. In order to solve the dilemma between ELF and ELT in terms of norms, Dewey (2012) proposes a concept of 'post-normative condition' in which practitioners are empowered to choose, construct or adapt language norms in accordance with local needs and condition (See section 3.4.2). Teachers can select the existing language norms and models, such as Standard English; but, instead of taking these norms or models as targeting norms or models, teachers need to explore those norms as one of the language using examples and inform students the existence of other language norms in their teaching. Teacher can also construct their own theories on language teaching by combining local language features with the need to the global context. In addition, teachers can also introduce ELF linguistic features in classroom. For example, as Wang (2015a) suggests, rather than traditional ELT corpora which are 'usually presented in order to show similarity of linguistic features and to prescribe usage on that basis', ELF corpora can also be explored into classroom to 'show diversity of features and be used descriptively not prescriptively' (p. 110). In short, Dewey's post-normative condition proposal is quite suitable to relate ELF to ELT. It is quite flexible for teachers to adjust their teaching according to both local need and local linguistic feature and the future complicate ELF settings. However, such an approach to ELT has high requirement on teachers' knowledge on global Englishes and teaching skills. In terms of Chinese education context, it will be a big challenge for ELT with such an approach due to the big population and uneven quality of English teachers. Teacher education thus becomes an essential area that needs to be further investigated (see more in next chapter).

The discussion on language norms also brings out a debate on language intelligibility. As the definition of ELF suggests, English is used by people from various lingual cultural background. The diversity of Englishes makes people worry about the intelligible issues among communication, and thus also becomes the key issue in ELT if Standard English

norms are not used as the universal standards of language. Although empirical evidences have been presented that people who bring various L1 in their English language have no much intelligible issues in ELF communication (see section 2.2.3), it is hard to replicate the successful example of intelligible communication outside classroom into inside classroom. It is because intelligibility of communication does not only concern with sounds but more important with interlocutor's attitudes to accents (Jenkins, 2000, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2011). Thus, the initial step to address the issue of intelligibility of accents in ELT is to guide teachers' attitude towards accents in teacher education. Once teachers have built positive attitudes towards various English accents, there are some room in ELT classroom for teacher to improve students' potential intelligibility in future ELF setting.

Instead of adopting traditional ELT models of pronunciation teaching where same English sounds of ENL are replayed again and again, teachers can explore various English accents from different countries and then do the reception training and production training respectively (Walker, 2010). The production training focus on teachers and students' English to see whether their English with the traits of their local L1 may cause intelligible issue or not; while the production training concerns with the possible intelligible problems that they may meet and how they are going to deal with it with accommodation strategies. During this process, Jenkins' Lingua Franca Core (LFC) (2000) can be used to assist the training to improve intelligibility. Walker's intelligible improving approach would be very useful under the Chinese context. As mentioned in section 8.5, China is going to launch a testing reform in which listening will take a greater proportion. Test designers and teachers can both think about this approach in their paper designing process or classroom teaching process.

From above it can be see that, ELF do have 'standards' or 'norms'; but 'they prioritise certain functional areas such as intelligibility and pragmatic competence over more formal linguistic criteria such as grammatical accuracy' (Hugo, 2015, p. 202). There are also many implications for English pedagogy on pragmatics (e.g. McKay's context-sensitive approach, 2009; House's speech act sequences and discourse features' list, 2013) and on cultures (e.g. Bakers' twelve elements in his intercultural competence model, 2011, 2012). Many practical suggestions on ELT have already been provided. ELF oriented pedagogy can be started with an ELF-informed teaching which 'involves the supply of appropriate ELF information' to leaners, and then to ELF-aware teaching which concerns 'the appropriate use of this information in the classroom' (Hugo, 2015, p.198). The implementation of an ELF-oriented ELT depends on many powers among which teachers are considered as the decidable key

agents to relate ELF to ELT practice. In this way, teacher education becomes essential for the ELF-oriented pedagogy by raising teachers' awareness and increasing their knowledge on ELF. Suggestions for teacher education, together with teaching material and language test which are all the challenges for an ELF-oriented pedagogy will be given in the following chapters.

Chapter 10 Conclusion

10.1 Introduction

The final chapter will present a summary of the thesis. It will begin with a restatement of the rationale for this research. This will include an outline of the literature review, which led to the formulation of the research questions and the methodology selected to answer these questions. Then a synopsis of the findings of the study will be presented. The contributions and implications of this thesis will be considered. Finally, the limitations of this research will also be briefly discussed together with ideas for further research.

10.2 Research rationale, research questions and methodology

Through globalization, English has reached over 2 billion users and is used in a vast and varied array of settings for equally diverse reasons. According to Crystal's research (2008), roughly only one out of every four users of English in the world is a 'native speaker' of English. In other words, most interactions in English take place among 'non-native' speakers of English. English becomes a lingua franca used by people from different linguacultural backgrounds to communicate (Jenkins, 2007). Based on English NNS corpus research, more and more English NNS' phonologic features, grammar lexical features, and pragmatic features are being identified (e.g. Cogo and Dewey, 2006, 2012; Jenkins, 2000; Seidlhofer, 2004;). These features, which are negotiated and co-constructed by interlocutors for their own communication purpose, in most cases, are different from Standard English norms but successfully fulfil communication functions and purposes. Along with recognising the reality of global Englishes, researchers have begun to think about language learning and teaching from various pedagogic angles, for example: ELF and SLA (e.g. Jenkins, 2006a); form and function (e.g. Jenkins, 2000; Seidlhofer, 2011); ELF and intercultural awareness in ELT (e.g. Baker, 2012); socially sensitive pedagogy (e.g. McKay and Bokhorst-Heng, 2008); critical pedagogy (e.g. Canagarajah, 1999; Pennycook, 2001).

However, the global Englishes concept is not easily recognized and accepted in educational settings. Some teachers accept the idea of global Englishes but would never think to bring it into their teaching or students' learning (e.g. Jenkins, 2007). One of the influential factors that affects teachers and students' attitudes to global Englishes and their language behaviors is language policy, which can 'determine criteria for language correctness, oblige people to

adopt certain ways of speaking and writing, create definitions about language and especially determine the priority of certain languages in society and how these languages should be used, taught and learned' (Shohamy, 2006, p. 77). In other words, Standard English is selected by language policies as the language that students need to learn. Through teaching and learning, Standard English ideology is thus reproduced in their minds and affects their language behaviours through mechanisms, like textbooks and tests, and agents, like teachers (Spolsky, 2004; Shohamy, 2006). Such Standard English ideology which is embedded in curricula or textbooks, may be contradicted by people's language beliefs in practice, which may lead to bottom-up resistance. English learning and teaching results would be different if teachers and learners actively or passively resisted such reproduced language ideologies.

In the case of China, English reform has been ongoing since 2001 when the National English Curriculum (NEC) was issued. But the results of the reform are barely satisfactory. English learning is still criticised for being 'time consuming but inefficient'. Chinese education experts and researchers have tried to identify the problems in English teaching and learning methods (e.g. Gong, 2011; Huang, 2004; Luo, 2012; Wang, 2007), but few of them have investigated English education in China from a global Englishes perspective.

By recognizing the reality of global Englishes, the importance of the power of language policy, and the problem of English education in China, I developed three research questions:

- RQ 1: to what extent has the National English Curriculum (NEC) taken account of the use of English as a global language?
- RQ 2: what is the relationship between English language education practices in junior high school and the NEC with reference to global Englishes?
- RQ 3: what are junior high school teachers' and students' perceptions of the NEC and classroom practices in terms of global Englishes?

To answer these questions, I adopted a quasi-ethnographic qualitative research approach. The reason for referring to it as quasi-ethnographic qualitative research is that it is a more intensive and thorough investigation than normal qualitative research with both emic and etic approaches; but at the same time the three-month duration of the research is shorter than regular ethnographic research, which often takes at least six months (Dörnyei, 2007). My main research instruments included interviews and classroom observations. Six teacher participants who were teaching grade 8 in ZH junior high school were selected to be

interviewed and observed regarding their language beliefs and classroom performance. Further triangulation was provided by a questionnaire, a research diary (e.g. notes of observation and informal contact with participants), and documents from the setting (e.g. test papers, teachers' syllabus guide books, students' exercise books). The questionnaire was completed by 21 English teachers and around 180 student participants at grade 8 in ZH junior high school. The purpose of adopting a questionnaire was to obtain a general picture of the research setting and to provide triangulated perspectives for the research. The document of National English curriculum was also one of the main data sources which was identified before the field work. The researcher's role varied with the situation in the research context and included being a researcher, a participant, an observer, a teacher assistant and a friend of the participants.

10.3 Research coding and analytic framework and research findings

In my coding procedure, I used qualitative content analysis to identify themes; and text matrices to describe the coding (Schreier, 2012). Six major themes were identified by following the pedagogical structures in the NEC statements, which include general pedagogical goals, linguistic knowledge/skills, learning affect and attitude, learning strategy, cultural awareness and tests. Similar content or topics in statements, observation and interview data were assigned to four major themes respectively. Then each theme was divided into sub categories.

Based on Spolsky's (2004) language policy framework, this research analysed data by comparing and contrasting statements in the NEC (National English Curriculum), performance in classroom practice and participants' perceptions from interviews and questionnaires in order to obtain a full-scale interpretation of English education policy in China. Besides this analysis among curriculum statements, classroom performance and participants' perceptions, an analysis for deeper examination of each level was also undertaken by exploring the implicit statements behind language policy (Shohamy, 2006).

As a result of the above, three research questions have been answered. In answer to RQ 1 'to what extent has the National English Curriculum (NEC) taken account of the use of English as a global language?' the findings suggest that the NEC intends to give English the status of a global language that every Chinese student needs to learn; but unintentionally or implicitly

English language is defined as British or American language in specific pedagogical statements in the NEC.

The NEC's intention of considering English as a global language can be seen in several ways. For example, in statements, the NEC directly and explicitly notes the international status of English and advocates students and teachers to learn English for better international communication (MOE, 2011, p1). With the purpose of enhancing students' international communication ability, the NEC lists five pedagogical goals for English pedagogy which include linguistic skills, linguistic knowledge, learning affect and attitude, learning strategy and cultural awareness (see section 7.2). Language learning is no longer limited to linguistic knowledge and skills, but seeks comprehensive language competence. In other words, besides linguistic knowledge, it seems that the NEC realizes the importance of other resources in language learning and use, such as communicative strategies, code-switching, and cooperative spirit in communication. Grammar, the representative of Standard English norms, seems to be degraded in language learning while other non-grammatical language resources are given more importance. Besides the above, the NEC's intention of promoting English as a global language can be embodied in its avoidance of phrases such as 'American English' 'British English' or 'English native speaker'.

This global language awareness can also be found in each specific pedagogical aspect. For example, from a phonological perspective (see section 7.3.1), teachers are encouraged to teach various English accents to students if they have time; with the principle of 'learning in context and using in context'. The NEC asks students to use context to understand and use the different meanings of words (see section 7.3.2); for grammar learning and use the NEC emphasizes appropriate functions and context for grammar use (see section 7.3.3). In terms of affection and attitude (see section 8.2), the NEC requires students to be clear that the learning aim is to communicate; while in learning strategies (see section 8.3), there are more compatible points, especially with regard to communicative strategies, where students are encouraged to actively solve problems, negotiate and use body language in communication. In cultural awareness (see section 8.4), Chinese culture, world culture and the difference between local culture and foreign culture are all listed as pedagogical goals that students need to know.

Although phrases like 'American English' and 'British English' are not used extensively in the NEC, analysis of specific statements infer that English in the NEC is actually defined as

‘Standard English’ which is conflated with native English. Thus the intention of taking English as a global language is not found to be as true as is claimed in the statements of the NEC. Plenty of contradictions can be identified in the implicit statements of the NEC. For example, various English accents are encouraged to be taught in class but specific phonology pedagogical requirements including liaison, stress and vowel qualities and so on are listed. In terms of lexis, it advocates ‘learning in context, using in context’, but English idioms and specific British and American spellings are required to be memorized. From the cultural awareness aspect, the NEC claims that the aim of cultural pedagogy is to raise students’ cross culture/intercultural awareness, but among the specific pedagogical items, English speaking countries’ cultures are given priority.

In answer to RQ 2 ‘what is the relationship between English language education practices in junior high school and the NEC in reference to global Englishes?’ the findings demonstrate that teachers and students merely perform the statements of the NEC which embody Standard English ideology; but do not implement any of the global Englishes relevant statements of the NEC.

Although there are five pedagogical aspects in the NEC, language learning and teaching mainly only involve the first two aspects, that is, linguistic knowledge and skills. There are few interactional communicative activities in classes. Listening and speaking skills are not taken into account in teaching and learning plans. Grammar and lexis are the primary tasks and are intensively taught and learned in English classes (see section 7.3.2.2 and section 7.3.3.2). Teachers are not concerned about students’ pronunciation or accent; but they do immediately correct students’ language grammar and lexis if they differ from Standard English. The most frequently used learning strategies among students are taking notes and rote learning (see section 8.3.2). The main teaching and learning resources for teachers and students are textbooks, exercise books and dictionaries. Standard English ideology is reproduced, repeated and enhanced during endless repetition of grammatical-lexical lectures and exercise practices. There is almost no room for grammatical-lexical innovation or the introduction of culture and communicative strategies.

In answer to RQ 3 ‘what are junior high school teachers’ and students’ perceptions of the NEC and classroom practices in terms of global Englishes?’ the findings show complex, contradictory and multi-level attitudes towards English, English use, English teaching and learning.

In terms of the concept of English, from the data from teacher questionnaires and interviews, it is clear that most teachers agree that the ownership of English does not belong only to English NS any more but to people who actually use English (e.g. section 6.3.2). More importantly, they have a high tolerance for the plural form of English, that is ‘Englishes’ since most of them believe that there are various Englishes in practice. But this emerging global Englishes awarenesses is far from being mature. Most of the time teachers take a wait-and-see attitude to new things (e.g. section 6.4). In previous findings, we have seen a significant number of neutral attitudes, especially to the statements ‘English NS’ English is authentic English’ and ‘English NS are American or British’. One reason for this is that many participants are not familiar with other Englishes except American English and British English, so they may not have a clear attitude about something of which they know little.

Although these neutral positions do not show a very positive attitude to the global Englishes concept, they indicate an initial scepticism of Standard English. Compared to the complete rejection of global Englishes twenty years ago (Chinglish, China English then, see e.g. Cheng, 1992; Gui, 1988), these ‘wait and see’ attitudes may indicate relatively open minds and the possibility of increasing acceptance of global Englishes concepts if more information is provided in future.

In terms of English use in practice, the participants show attitudes that are much more compatible with global Englishes. Most of them believe that grammar and a large word base are not necessary for daily communication (see section 7.3.2.3). Data from both teachers and students’ questionnaires show that most of them clearly recognize that their main English communication target is not Anglo-American people (see section 6.3.3). In terms of communication in practice, participants do not seem to care about Standard English very much. For participants, accuracy of meaning in communication is more important than linguistic accuracy. They have a high level of tolerance of ‘grammar mistakes’ or ‘words used in improper form’ as long as no misunderstandings are caused in communication (see section 6.4 and section 7.3.3.3). Pragmatic strategies, like code-switching, body language, repeating or paraphrasing are considered as useful resources for communication by most of the participants, although some of them still treat these as signs of poor English (see section 8.3.3). In short, in practice, participants care more about meaning, context, and communication purpose than strict Standard English grammar, idioms and words.

As for English in teaching and learning, participants demonstrate many contradictory ideas.

On the one hand, teachers and students claim that the enhancement of Standard English grammar is not very helpful in terms of practical communication; on the other hand teachers firmly reject global Englishes in the classroom and continue their intensive grammar teaching by asking students to practice Standard English grammar rules and improve language accuracy through repeated practice and exercises (see section 7.3.3). In addition, they think that language learning would be more effective if students were able to learn naturally and learn from practice; but they continue to remind students to take notes and emphasize the importance of rote language learning (see section 7.3.2). In addition, according to the interview data, language in context is considered to be the preferred English learning method, but few learning resources such as videos, tapes or the internet which can provide help with English use in context are explored in English classes. More importantly, participants worry that the exclusive portrayal of Anglo-American culture will make their students look down on other cultures and would like to introduce various cultures from different places in lessons. However, they do not take account of culture in their lesson plans or teaching practice (see section 8.4). Most of them believe that pragmatic skills are helpful in actual communication but none of them want to officially introduce them or encourage students to use them in class (see section 8.3).

In summary, in curriculum statements, the NEC expresses the explicit intention of treating English as a global language and there are indeed statements that are global Englishes relevant; but implicitly English is defined as Standard English, which is conflated with native English (American and British English). In classroom practice, only statements which are embedded with Standard English ideologies are implemented, while few global Englishes language behaviours are found in teaching and learning. However, from interviews and questionnaires, we can see that teachers and students are not happy with what they are doing. They have other different expectations of their teaching and learning, which are more compatible with global Englishes. The reason why practice is inconsistent with the NEC statements and why participants' perceptions and expectations are different from their language teaching and learning practice is the test situation.

With regard to data from interviews and questionnaires, English tests have a significant influence on language teaching and learning, the chance to enter a better senior high school, the evaluation of teachers' professional performance, teachers' bonuses, and students' learning confidence (see section 8.5). As stakeholders, teachers and students have to prepare for tests by teaching, learning and practicing what the examinations test. According to the

investigation of English senior high entrance examination papers by teachers, current English tests mainly test grammar rules, vocabulary, and reading and writing skills, which are all based on Standard English norms. In this way, if participants implement the NEC statements and their expectations, which are compatible with global Englishes, their students may run the risk of failure in Standard English based tests. Tests thus become a powerful mechanism for reproducing Standard English ideology and marginalizing other language ideas. As a consequence, those features of the NEC which are relevant to global Englishes are avoided in language learning and teaching practice.

However, surrendering to the power of tests does not mean there is no resistance. From the data, it can be seen that teachers and students complain and have passive attitudes towards Standard English grammar teaching and learning. With such passive attitudes, their teaching and learning behaviours are affected. The learning and teaching results thus become ‘time-consuming but non-efficient’ (see section 8.2). Such passive resistance to the power of tests and Standard English intensive grammar learning finally led to test reform from the top. In 2014, the Beijing government issued a document to declare that in the next few years, the overall scores for English tests will be reduced from 120 points to 100 points and listening will account for up to 50 points. If the test reforms in Beijing are successful, they will be expanded to the rest of China. But critical questions remain, such as ‘does the test reflect the contemporary development of English?’ (Jenkins and Leung, 2014), ‘is the language being tested Standard English norm based or post-norm based?’ (Dewey, 2012), ‘are there pragmatic strategies involved in the selected listening materials?’ (Canagarajah, 2006a; Jenkins, 2006a), and ‘are various cultures and intercultural competence involved in the listening test?’ (Baker, 2011, 2012, 2015).

10.4 Implications

Based on the findings of this research and researches conducted by other global Englishes scholars, I have some suggestions and implications for curriculum planning, testing, and ELT and teacher education. In terms of implications for the curriculum, due to the very limited influence of global Englishes on the NEC, it is necessary to raise people’s global Englishes awareness. Besides this, it is also important to redefine authenticity so that it is context-sensitive rather than referring to a standard language. As Van Lier claims, ‘to learn something new one must first notice it’ (2014, p. 11). Thus, if global Englishes are to be included in education, the first thing that is required is that learners should notice the existence of global

Englishes. In this way, the English curriculum in China should avoid using vague language to describe English. Instead, the plural form of English and the lingua franca function of English should be explicitly, directly and clearly stated. Specific activities to raise global Englishes awareness can be found in textbooks such as Jenkins' *Global Englishes* (2015).

Besides these, as a learner-centred curriculum, the English curriculum in China should give priority to learner autonomy. Language learners need to learn how to learn in accordance with their individual particularities and practicalities in order to flexibly and dynamically use global Englishes in communication in the future. The curriculum should primarily aim at cultivating learners' liberal autonomy. In other words, the curriculum should inspire learners' critical reflection on social and political powers and context during their language learning (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, 2012). Only with critical thinking can learners be clear what type of English they will use, what type of English they should learn, why they should learn and which learning strategies are most suitable and helpful for their language use in future. Without such a critical reflection, learning affect and attitudes will probably only stay as a declaration in the NEC. The justification for the selection of authenticity is that a global Englishes—informed curriculum has the responsibility to redefine the artificial 'authenticity' that has currently been defined in the sense of NS English. From a global Englishes perspective, authenticity involves both linguistic and cultural aspects which should be defined in accordance with learners' local contexts and their needs rather than NS norms.

Learning lessons from the NEC implementation, we know that the implementation of such a global Englishes-informed curriculum needs a global Englishes-informed test. Current English testing has been criticized for the exclusion of diverse forms of English. It is argued that tests based on Inner Circle norms lack validity due to their ignorance of the sociolinguistic reality of the candidates' language use (Lowenberg, 2002). Thus, a shift from measurement of proficiency based on one variety of English to testing learners' intercultural communication ability is needed (Cumming, 2009; Elder and Harding, 2008; Lowenberg, 2002). From a global Englishes perspective, some scholars (e.g. Canagarajah, 2006; Jenkins, 2006c; Seidlhofer, 2004) redefine the meaning of proficiency, and state that it should refer to 'the ability to shuttle between different varieties of English and different speech communities' (Canagarajah, 2006, p.233). Thus, tests that measure proficiency in a way that goes beyond the focus on grammar or linguistic features are needed. Pragmatics becomes an important proficiency aspect that needs to be tested. Sociolinguistic skills, such as code switching, convergence or divergence strategies, and intercultural competence should also be included in

the test (Jenkins and Leung, 2014). In general, there cannot be a universal test and every test should be designed according to its specific purposes. In other words, tests should be contextualized (e.g. Canagarajah, 2006a; Galloway and Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2015; McNamara, 2012;).

Specific implications for global Englishes-informed ELT have been given in previous chapter (see section 9.3.2). In this section, I would like to add more suggestions on ELT from global Englishes perspective. I prefer to Kumaravadivelu's (2006; 2012) postmethod pedagogy where teachers are encouraged to teach in terms of three parameters: particularity, practicality and possibility. Ten macro-strategies and several micro-strategies are provided for a postmethod English class. Macro-strategies are 'general plans derived from currently available theoretical, empirical, and pedagogical knowledge related to L2 learning and teaching' (Kumaravadivelu, 2012a, p.201). They provide guidelines for teachers to generate their own micro-strategies in their specific contexts. The ten macro-strategies are to 'maximize learning opportunities'; 'facilitate negotiated interaction'; 'minimize perceptual mismatches'; 'activate intuitive heuristics'; 'foster language awareness'; 'contextualize linguistic input'; 'integrate language skills'; 'promote learner autonomy'; 'ensure social relevance'; and 'raise cultural consciousness' (Kumaravadivelu, 2012, p.201). These general guidelines are established for the benefit of learners rather than for outsiders, such as NS. They open up unlimited opportunities for learners and teachers to explore their needs in their own right. Specific global Englishes-informed classroom activities can be found in Kumaravadivelu's 2002 book *Beyond methods: Macrostrategies for language teaching* and 2006 book *Understanding language teaching: From method to postmethod*.

As with Dewey's postnormative approach, postmethod approach is also very useful for an global Englishes-oriented ELT since it gives teachers power and room to construct their own teaching theory according to local context and need. But if it is applied to ELT classroom in Chinese context, one thing need to be carefully considered is its compatibility with classroom culture in China. As my data shows, communicative approach has been problematic in Chinese classroom since local learning culture in China where 'the conceptualisation of education is more as a process of knowledge accumulation than as a practical process of knowledge construction and use' (Hu, 2003, p.306). My data suggests that, in communicative teaching classes, most of the students complain that they feel lost and do not know how to learn when they are asked to discuss in group or in pairs, since they are used to passively receiving 'hard knowledge' from teachers' lectures. Obviously, in such classes English

teaching ignores the practicality and particularity of the local learning culture and context (Kumaradivelu, 2006) and this leads to resistance from students (Canagarajah, 1999). Thus, when adopting those ten macro-strategies that Kumaravadielu (2006, 2012) propose from global Englishes perspective, teachers should not only be clear about the teaching principles and global Englishes knowledge, but also should be very familiar with local context. Such high requirements for teaching is a great challenge for teachers, especially teachers in China which is a large group and of uneven quality around the nation. Teacher education thus becomes very challenging and significant.

As with process for an ELF-oriented pedagogy (see section 9.3.2), teacher education should also experience ELF-aware stage, ELF-informed stage and then ELF-oriented stage. The initiation task for teacher education should focus on raising teachers global Englishes awareness as well as intercultural awareness. A starting point would be to guide teachers (or teachers-to-be) to expose ‘to a variety of social contexts in which ELF is actually used, either through audio materials, films or documentaries or by tasks on extracts from corpora of English, of WE varieties and of ELF’ and to invite them to observe ‘what people actually do with language when they communicate’ and to discuss ‘different notions of English varieties of English and ELF in terms of effectiveness of communication’ (Lopriore and Vettorel, 2015). The aim of this stage is to make the ELF practice noticed by teachers and then gradually affect their language attitudes towards ELF. The next is an ELF informed stage. Teacher educators can recommend books, journals and chapters that are relevant to ELF to teachers. Teachers need to read as much as they can to get knowledge of global Englishes and knowledge of international English language teaching. Teacher educators can lead teachers to reflect their language attitudes to Standard English norms, to ownership of English, to the potential flaws of current pedagogical practices (Bayyurt and Sifakis, 2015).

With knowledge and awareness of ELF, teachers then shall be introduced to practical strategies and advice on ELF-oriented ELT. Dewey’s post normative approach will be very useful to guide teachers to explore ELT from ELF perspective. Adopting such an approach, teacher educators should guide teachers to think about the following questions in relation to their class: ‘What are the contextual conditions of language use required by the learners? Is a normative approach suitable for the context of learning/use? What model(s) of English are (most) relevant? What set(s) of norms are (most) appropriate? What is the relative level of importance that should be attached to these models and norms? What additional pragmatic strategies will be contextually useful?’ (2012, p.166). To make clear the above questions,

teachers not only should have plenty knowledge of global Englishes and of teaching, but also need to be very familiar with local context. Teachers are required to analyse learner needs, learner motivation and learner autonomy and then can construct their own theories (Kumaravadivelu, 2012).

Teaching material is also an important aspect in ELT. As discussed in section 3.3.2, current textbooks are Standard English oriented; while textbooks which are designed from global Englishes perspective are very limited. Thus, it is very necessary for textbook writers to design an ELF-oriented textbook in which intercultural aspect, pragmatic aspect and meta-knowledge about global Englishes should all be included. But, at the current stage, it is unrealistic and impossible to get rid of those traditional Standard English oriented textbooks. Teacher educators are responsible to inform teachers how to make use of Standard English oriented book to raise global Englishes awareness. For example, as Yu (2015) suggests, teacher educators should encourage teachers to constantly critically reflect on and evaluate their teaching materials by questioning and then discussing those Standard English oriented linguistic and cultural area in textbook. Besides textbook, teacher educators should also guide teachers to select or create teaching materials by themselves. Those material can come from their own experience in an actual interaction, or from secondary sources, such as audio, video, or webpages from internet. Successful examples of creating ELF-oriented teaching material can be found in Hino and Oda's IPTEIL project (2015) (integrated practice in teaching as an international language), Grazi's (2015) case study on liking ELF and ELT in secondary school through Web-Mediation and Baker's (2015) intercultural and global Englishes activities for Thai university students. In these researches, the internet has been fully made use of to explore linguistic diversity, intercultural competence, and pragmatic strategies in actual ELF settings.

Those above suggestions on ELF-oriented teacher education would make a difference to English pedagogy in China if they can be successfully implemented. However, as mentioned, there is a very large population of English teachers in China. What is more, those teachers' level on language as well as teaching knowledge is very different, especially among teachers in developed cities and those in rural area. More importantly, during this research, I found that teachers receive various teacher education programs but these teacher education programs are not undertaken in a systematic and consistent way. In this way, it would be a big challenge for China to take a shift to the ELF-oriented education. What my suggestion is that the meta-knowledge of ELF can be included in teachers' teaching certificate test. The

wash back of test will involve a large scope of teachers to get familiar with ELF by reading ELF relevant books. In this way, teachers, even those who have no chance to get instructions from teacher educators can get knowledge of ELF by themselves through reading. However, such a suggestion is just a movement in the initial ELF-aware stage. Teachers still need follow up on many things mentioned above, such as how to relate ELF to their practical ELT classroom.

10.5 Limitations and further research

The research also has some limitations. Although three-months of quasi-ethnographic data collection is sufficient to answer the research questions, I had a very tight schedule and needed to explore the data intensively. The success of the data collection is due to the cooperation of my participants, but in terms of further research, I suggest that researchers could extend their field work time to allow for any emergent issues. The small number of participants and the single setting are other limitations which make generalisations difficult. However, since the research aims for a deep investigation and ethnographic research, the thick description of participants and settings are more meaningful than generalisation for this research. In addition, in this language policy research, language policy-makers were not included as participants because it was not possible to contact them. Thus, the research was conducted from the perspectives of language users and researchers without language policy-makers perspectives. Some interesting and unexpected data may be missing due to the absence of language policy-maker's interpretations. For further research, it would be advisable to include language policy-makers' language perceptions. In addition, I adapted content analysis to analyse classroom practice instead of using discourse analysis. This is because I compared it with language policy. Language policy is stated at the macro level with general themes. Content analysis is more appropriate for identifying themes than discourse analysis, which is focused on the micro level of speech. However, it would be very interesting to analyse classroom discourse from a global Englishes perspective if researchers in future wished to conduct pure ELT research.

10.6 Conclusion

There are many contributions that this study can hopefully bring. The first contribution lies in that this research is the first of many to introduce the research field of ELF and the concept of global Englishes to China. It is hoped that this global Englishes oriented research will make more Chinese scholars as well as policy makers make clear about that English is not used as Standard English or China English but functions as a lingua franca in China. The second significance of the research is that the role of language tests has been emphasised in the influences of language teaching/learning practice and language beliefs from global Englishes perspective. Standard English ideology needs to be critically examined and reflected in both language test design stage by designers and implementation stage by teachers in their language teaching practice. The research does not advocate the teaching of global Englishes in practice. But it is hoped that language teachers in China will develop sufficient awareness to teach English from a global Englishes perspective.

More importantly, being the first research to investigate both language policy and practice at junior high school in China from global Englishes perspective, this research project concerns more on ‘what’ happens than ‘how’ should issues be solved. Through NEC statements, classroom performance and participants’ perception, the thesis has making the effort to present English education in junior high school in China transparently and in detail. It hopes that it can give both domestic and foreign scholars a channel to get clear about Chinese junior high school education and do further research from global Englishes perspective.

Appendix 1: Questionnaire for students

Questionnaire for Student

This questionnaire aims to investigate students' attitude towards global Englishes. Please complete the questionnaire truly according to your own situation and your own thinking. Feel free to answer open questions. Your participation is completely voluntary. Your answers to the questions will be kept confidential and anonymous and used for research purposes only. If there is any problem or you would like talk more, please contact me in this email address:hl1r11@soton.ac.uk.

Personal information

If you provide your name and/or your email address, these will remain entirely confidential and your anonymity will be protected at all times.

Name

(optional)_____

Male / female (circle as appropriate)

Current education status: junior high school/ senior high school /vocational college/
university (circle as appropriate)

Age_____ Grade_____

How many years have you learnt

English_____?

Email address or phone number (if you are happy for me to contact
you)_____

Questions

A. students' attitude to English language from global Englishes perspective

a. students' attitude to English accent

Please put the English accent of a competent speaker of English from each of the ten countries onto the following scales for (a) correctness (b) acceptability for international communication (c) pleasantness (d) your familiarity with the accent. In each case, put a circle round the number that you have chosen.

1. Accent of speakers from USA

- | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| a. Very correct | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very incorrect |
| b. Very acceptable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unacceptable |
| c. Very pleasant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unpleasant |
| d. Very familiar | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unfamiliar |

2. Accent of speakers from UK

- | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| a. Very correct | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very incorrect |
| b. Very acceptable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unacceptable |
| c. Very pleasant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unpleasant |
| d. Very familiar | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unfamiliar |

3. Accent of speakers from Japan

- | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| a. Very correct | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very incorrect |
| b. Very acceptable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unacceptable |
| c. Very pleasant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unpleasant |
| d. Very familiar | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unfamiliar |

4. Accent of speakers from India

- | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| a. Very correct | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very incorrect |
| b. Very acceptable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unacceptable |
| c. Very pleasant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unpleasant |
| d. Very familiar | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unfamiliar |

5. Accent of speakers from China

- | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| a. Very correct | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very incorrect |
| b. Very acceptable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unacceptable |
| c. Very pleasant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unpleasant |
| d. Very familiar | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unfamiliar |

6. Accent of speakers from Italy

- | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| a. Very correct | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very incorrect |
| b. Very acceptable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unacceptable |
| c. Very pleasant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unpleasant |
| d. Very familiar | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unfamiliar |

7. Accent of speakers from Australia

- | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| a. Very correct | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very incorrect |
| b. Very acceptable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unacceptable |
| c. Very pleasant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unpleasant |
| d. Very familiar | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unfamiliar |

8. Now list below the three English accents than you think are the best (with the best English accent in the word as no.1, the second best as no.2 and so on). Choose from all the countries in the world, not only the ten countries mentioned above.

1 _____ 2 _____
3 _____

b. studnets' attitude to global Englishes /Standard English

Please complete the following by placing a tick in one space only, as follows:

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neutral
4=agree 5=strongly agree

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
9. When I speak English, I want to sound like British or American.					

10. When I speak English, I want to sound like Chinese.					
11. I don't mind my Chinese accent as long as it does not cause any problem with understanding					
12. English native speaker refers to British or American.					
13. Authentic English refers to English that used by English native speaker in their daily life.					
14. Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with native English speakers.					
15. Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with other non-native English speakers.					
16. There are many Englishes, like Indian English, Singapore English.					
17. Except English native speaker, no one has the right to change or adapt English.					
18. English belongs to people who use English.					

B. students' attitude to English learning (classroom, textbook, and test)

Please complete the following by placing a tick in one space only, as follows:

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=on opinion or don't know

4=agree 5=strongly agree

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
19. I am satisfied with current teaching mode in class.					
20. In class, when I speak English, I would like teacher to correct my pronunciation or grammar mistake immediately.					
21. In class, British or American English accent is my only expectation.					
22. In class, I want to learn about different English accents, such as Indian accent, Japanese accent and so on.					
23. In class, I only want to learn about cultures from Britain or American.					

24. In class, I want to learn about cultures from different country, such as India, Singapore, South Africa and so on.					
25. In class, I hope to have more chance to learn English expression on Chinese culture.					
26. Class teaching and learning focusing on grammar and vocabulary is very helpful to examination.					
27. Class teaching and learning focusing on grammar and vocabulary is very helpful to communication in daily life.					
28. Examination scores can completely reflect my comprehensive ability of English.					
29. My learning strategy is designed for test.					

Pleas answer the flowing questions freely with brief and simple language. Write your answer on the line.

30. How many hours do you learn English every day?

31. How many days do you learn English every week?

32. What aspects you spend the most time on in your English learning (e.g. grammar, vocabulary, speaking ?)

33. Except textbook, do you have any other channel to learn English, such as by newspaper/magazine/ English movie? If there any, please list. If none, please write down none.

34. How often do you take a test in your school?

35. Are you happy with the current test system? Why?

C. Students' attitude to English use

Please complete the following by placing a tick in one space only, as follows:

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=on opinion or don't know

4=agree 5=strongly agree

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
36. During communication, I can accept various English accents as long as they do not cause any problems with understanding					
37. I pay more attention on language accuracy than language fluency in communication.					
38. Code switching is a very useful strategy in English communication.					

39. Classroom English learning is enough for me to communicate with other English speakers outside.					
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D. Students' actual involvement of English

Please tick in the appropriate box according to the relevant frequency you have.

never rare sometime often always

40. How often do you communicate with English native speaker in English?

41. How often do you communicate with English non-native speaker (except Chinese) in English?

42. How often do you communicate with Chinese in English?

43. How often do you listen to English radio or watching English video?

44. In the English video or radio that you have come across, how often do other English accents appear except British or American English accent?

45. In your listening class or listening test, how often do other English accents appear except British or

American English accent?

46. What do you learn English for?

47. What English level do you wish you can reach?

Appendix 2: Questionnaire for teachers

Questionnaire for Teacher

The following are questions that all teachers have done:

This questionnaire aims to investigate teachers' attitude towards global Englishes. Please complete the questionnaire truly according to your own situation and your own thinking. Feel free to answer open questions. Your participation is completely voluntary. Your answers to the questions will be kept confidential and anonymous and used for research purposes only. If there is any problem or you would like talk more, please contact me in this email address:hl1r11@soton.ac.uk.

Personal information

If you provide your name and/or your email address, these will remain entirely confidential and your anonymity will be protected at all times.

Name

(optional)_____

Male / female (circle as appropriate)

Current work status: junior high school/ senior high school /vocational college/ university
(circle as appropriate)

Age_____ Grade_____

How many years have you taught

English_____?

Email address or phone number (if you are happy for me to contact you)_____

Questions

- teachers' attitude to English language from global Englishes perspective

a. teachers' attitude to English accent

Please put the English accent of a competent speaker of English from each of the ten countries onto the following scales for (a) correctness (b) acceptability for international communication (c) pleasantness (d) your familiarity with the accent. In each case, put a circle round the number that you have chosen.

1. Accent of speakers from USA

- | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| e. Very correct | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very incorrect |
| f. Very acceptable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unacceptable |
| g. Very pleasant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unpleasant |
| h. Very familiar | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unfamiliar |

2. Accent of speakers from UK

- | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| e. Very correct | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very incorrect |
| f. Very acceptable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unacceptable |
| g. Very pleasant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unpleasant |
| h. Very familiar | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unfamiliar |

3. Accent of speakers from Japan

- | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| e. Very correct | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very incorrect |
| f. Very acceptable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unacceptable |
| g. Very pleasant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unpleasant |
| h. Very familiar | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unfamiliar |

4. Accent of speakers from India

- | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| e. Very correct | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very incorrect |
| f. Very acceptable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unacceptable |
| g. Very pleasant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unpleasant |
| h. Very familiar | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very unfamiliar |

5. Accent of speakers from China

- | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| e. Very correct | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | very incorrect |
|-----------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------------|

- f. Very acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 very unacceptable
g. Very pleasant 1 2 3 4 5 6 very unpleasant
h. Very familiar 1 2 3 4 5 6 very unfamiliar

6. Accent of speakers from Italy

- e. Very correct 1 2 3 4 5 6 very incorrect
f. Very acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 very unacceptable
g. Very pleasant 1 2 3 4 5 6 very unpleasant
h. Very familiar 1 2 3 4 5 6 very unfamiliar

7. Accent of speakers from Australia

- e. Very correct 1 2 3 4 5 6 very incorrect
f. Very acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 very unacceptable
g. Very pleasant 1 2 3 4 5 6 very unpleasant
h. Very familiar 1 2 3 4 5 6 very unfamiliar

8. Now list below the three English accents than you think are the best (with the best English accent in the world as no.1, the second best as no.2 and so on). Choose from all the countries in the world, not only the ten countries mentioned above.

1 _____ 2 _____
3 _____

b. teachers' attitude to global Englishes /Standard English

Please complete the following by placing a tick in one space only, as follows:

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neutral
4=agree 5=strongly agree

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
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9. When I speak English, I want to sound like British or American.					
10. When I speak English, I want to be identified as Chinese					
11. I don't mind my Chinese accent as long as it does not cause any problem with understanding					
12. English native speaker refers to British or American.					
13. Authentic English refers to English that used by English native speaker in their daily life.					
14. Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with native English speakers.					
15. Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with other non-native English speakers.					
16. There are many Englishes, like Indian English, Singapore English.					
17. Except English native speaker, no one has the right to change or adapt English.					
18. English belongs to people who use English.					

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B. Teachers' attitude to English teaching (classroom, textbook, and test)

Please complete the following by placing a tick in one space only, as follows:

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=on opinion or don't know

4=agree 5=strongly agree

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
19. I am satisfied with current teaching mode in class.					
20. My Chinese accent will reduce my professional appearance.					
21. In class, I will immediately correct students' pronunciation or grammar mistake.					
22. In listening class, I only choose listening material with British or American accent.					
23. In class, I hope to have more chance to introduce different English accent, such as Indian accent, Japanese accent, Australia accent and so on.					

24. In class, I only want to learn about British or American culture.					
25. In class, I hope to have more chance to introduce different culture from different cultural background, such as culture from India, Singapore, and Africa and so on.					
26. In class, I hope to have more attention on Chinese culture.					
27. Class teaching and learning focusing on grammar and vocabulary is very helpful to examination.					
28. Class teaching and learning focusing on grammar and vocabulary is very helpful to communication in daily life.					
29. Examination scores can completely reflect students' comprehensive ability of English.					
30. Examination scores can completely reflect my teaching ability.					
31. Examination has huge influence on my teaching content and teaching method.					

Please answer the following questions freely with brief and simple language. Write your answer on the line.

32. How many hours do you teach English every week?

33. How many classes do you teach each term? Together, how many students do you teach each term?

34. What aspects you spend the most time on in your English teaching (e.g. grammar, vocabulary, speaking ?)

35. Except textbook, do you have any other channel to teach English, such as by newspaper/magazine/ English movie? If there any, please list. If none, please write down none.

36. How often do you take a test in your school?

37. Are you happy with the current test system? Why?

C. Teachers' attitude to English use

Please complete the following by placing a tick in one space only, as follows:

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=on opinion or don't know

4=agree 5=strongly agree

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
38. During communication, I can accept various English accents as long as they do not cause any					

problems with understanding					
39. I pay more attention on language accuracy than language fluency in communication.					
40. Code switching is a very useful strategy in English communication.					
41. Classroom English learning is enough for me to communicate with other English speakers outside.					

D. Teachers' actual involvement of English

Please tick in the appropriate box according to the relevant frequency you have.

	never	rare	sometime	often	always
42. How often do you communicate with English native speaker in English?					
43. How often do you communicate with English non-native speaker (except Chinese) in English?					
44. How often do you communicate with Chinese in English?					
45. How often do you listen to English radio or watching English video?					
46. In the English video or radio that you have come across, how often do other English accents appear					

except British or American English accent?					
47. In your listening class or listening test, how often do other English accents appear except British or American English accent?					

48. What is the reason do you think that Chinese government establish English subjects for students?

49. Do you think it is necessary to learn English? Why?

50. What do you learn English for?

51. What English level do you wish your student can reach?

Appendix 3: Interview prompts, participants and lengths

(1) Prompts:

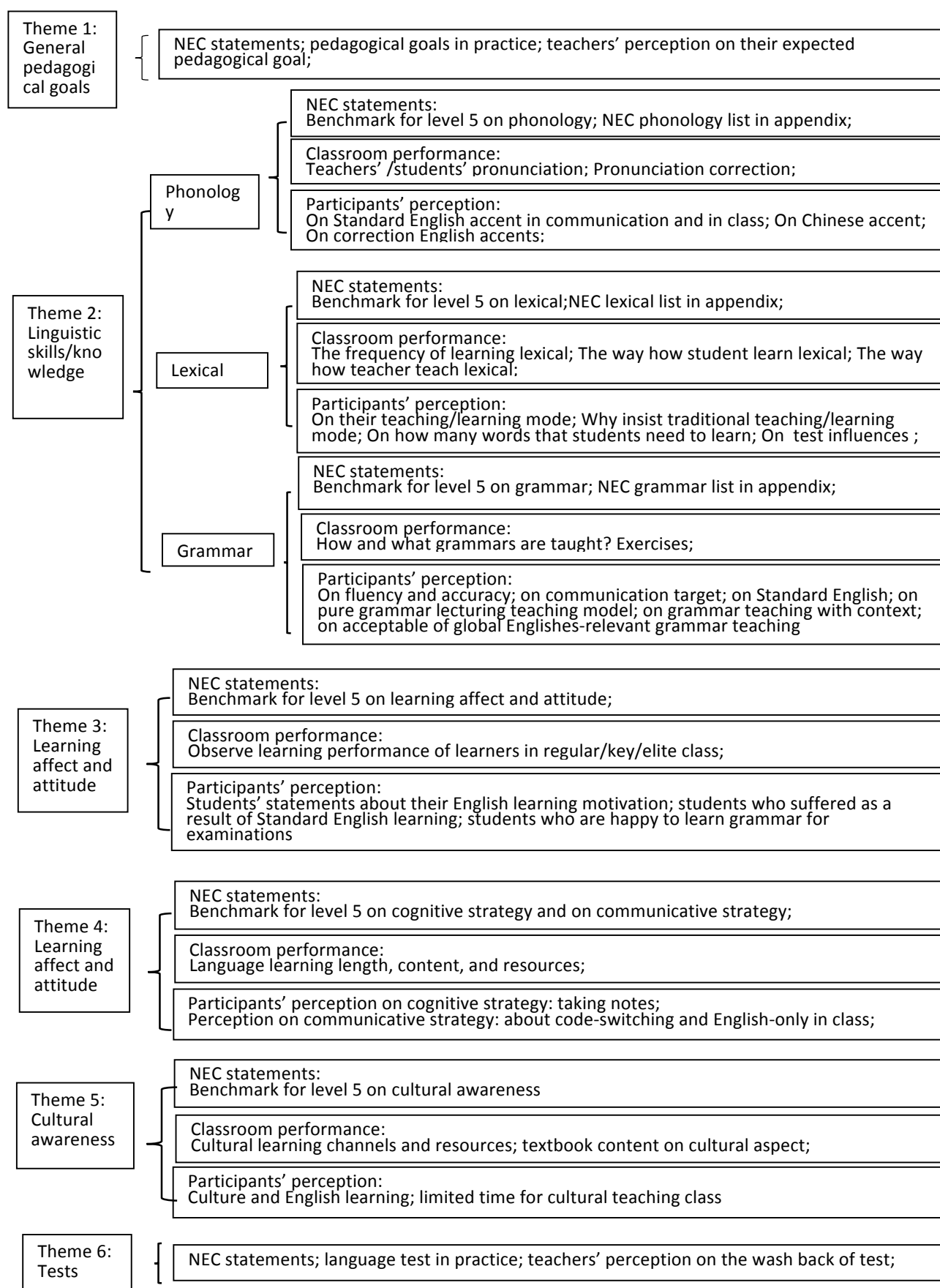
1. Do you like your job? Why?
2. Are you happy with your classroom teaching? Why?
3. What's your procedures in classroom teaching?
4. How do you think about the textbook? Is it useful? In what terms?
5. How do you think about the assessment system?
6. What's influences of test in your teaching?
7. How do you think about curriculum?
8. How curriculum affect your teaching?
9. How do you think the relationship between accuracy and fluency?
10. How do you think chinglish/China English?
11. How do you think American English/Britain English?
12. How do you think 'English' and 'Englishes'?
13. How do you think English/Englishes in globalization?
14. How do you think English/Englishes in language teaching?

(2) Participants and interview lengths

- P1 (50 minutes; 90 minutes, 40 minutes; 30 minutes)
- P2 (45 minutes; 44 minutes)
- P3 (45 minutes; 44 minutes; 30 minutes)
- P4 (31 minutes; 11 minutes; 30 minutes; 30 minutes)
- P5 (around 90 minutes; 45 minutes; 30 minutes)
- P6 (73 minutes; 50 minutes; 53 minutes)

Until now, there are 6 participants with around 886 minutes (around 15 hours).

Appendix 4: coding list



Appendix 5: Interview examples selected in chapter 7 and chapter 8

例子 7.1: JAN 在英语课堂上的引导用语

‘这节课我们首先来读一下单词表里的新单词，然后再来学习一下单词的用法。’

‘我们首先来复习一下昨天所学的单词，然后我们会学习第六单元的一些句法结构和相关语法。’

‘好，安静一下。我现在来抽同学读课文，之后再解释课文里的语法点’

‘请坐。我们今天会首先复习一下‘to be’和‘be going to’的用法。然后咱们一起做一些语法练习题来巩固一下’

‘请大侠翻开课本 56 页。我们今天会把这个短文剩下的语法点讲完’

‘把试卷拿出来。我们今天就一道题一道题的来讲，看看你们还有哪些语法点不清楚，哪些语法点最容易犯错’

例子 7.2:

JAN: 大纲要求教学要涉及到知识、态度和价值观三个层面。知识层面指的是传授知识，态度指的是教学态度即老师要爱护学生。老师要和学生建立起和谐的朋友关系。我觉得这些要求很合理。

例子 7.3:

JAN: 我个人以为大纲对教学的要求设定非常好，涵盖面也很广。但是在日常教学中却很难完全实现。有些目标可能只是或多或少的涉及到了吧。但是我还是认为如果能完全实现大纲设定的目标的话那就太好了。

WEN: 坦诚一点讲，大纲太理论和抽象了。我们老师有时候都不明白我们需要做什么不需要做什么。

LAN: 我觉得大纲里的大部分教学目标都实现不了。我们的教学主要关注的是语言层面。像学习技巧啊什么都很少提及。很多学生到现在都不知道怎么学习英语。

YAO: 我们并没有按照大纲要求的那么做。我们...实话说了吧...我们主要把精力都房子准备考试上了。主要教的还是语法。

BING: 我认为我们学生连最基本的‘情感与态度’这块儿的目标都达不到。一些学生，即使是英语成绩非常好的学生，都不明白为什么要学习英语。他们只是听老师话的乖孩子，老师让他们学他们就学。

例子 7.4:

JAN: 很多词儿我都发音不对。而且我还是中式口音。我之前也担心。但是我现在想明白了。我不认为有标准的语音是多么重要的一件事儿。我觉得老师的好坏与语音没有多大关系。换句话说，老师的能力，教学的能力是无法用语音来衡量的。我也见过发音很标准的老师，但是，你知道吗，他们教的也非常一般。

XIONG: 我对中式口音的态度是既不反对也不接受。其实，我压根儿就不在乎。我觉得我的职责是传授他们知识帮助他们考个好成绩。只要我的口音不造成理解上的失误，我觉得都无所谓。

LIAN: 这要取决你干啥了。如果你想成为广播员或主持人，你的语音语调必须标准。但是就日常交流的话，或者是一些对准确率要求不高的场合，我觉得即便是中式口音或者有些小错误之类的都无所谓啦。就像外国人说汉语似得，他们一开口说你好，我们就知道他们是外国人，因为他们非常明显的自己母语的音调带到汉语去了。我们反而觉得他们说的汉语很好玩儿。

例子 7.5:

SHA: 我更倾向于让我的学生在地道的英语环境里学习。你想想啊，三年的初中生活已经使他们习惯了初中英语老师的口音，可是上了高中换了老师，他们还得适应新老

师的口音。光熟悉适应新的口音就得花很长的时间。所以高中一年级通常对学生来说很难。

例子 7.6:

ZHAN: 从我内心来讲, 我并不自信...别人可能会因为你的语音差而觉得你的英语不好。我知道过多关注别人对自己的评价不好, 但是我就是控制不住。我老是担心别人会小看我。而且, 我觉得我时候会感到一点迷失。我知道我的英语永远不可能像老外那样, 但是我觉得整个英语学习的过程让我觉得很累也很受伤害。因为我好想永远也摆脱不了弱者和失败者的阴影。有时, 我都后悔我大学选择了英语专业。

例子 7.7:

ZHAN: 学习连音啊弱化啊等很重要啊。因为这会让英语听起来更地道。我们学习他们的语言而且将来还要和他们交流, 所以, 理所当然的要模仿他们要遵循他们的语言规则。

ZHAN: 当然, 没有连音或者弱化的话, 也不影响交流或者造成理解上的障碍什么的。但是就不那么地道了。这不太可取。

ZHAN: 地道指的就是像英语母语者那样说英语。比如说连音, 中国人说英语都是一个词一个词的分开说, 这就不地道。

例子 7.8:

LIAN: 我并不关心学生的语音错误或者语音语调。目前的考试主要是针对语法和阅读能力的考察。既然都没有口语考试, 那就没必要花时间来纠正学生的语音。

JAN: 为啥不在意学生的语音? 答案很明显啊, 考试啊。我们很多老师都毕业于专业的英语院校。我们学了很多语言知识和文化知识。我们非常清楚学习语言的目的是交流。我并不认为语音中的一些小错误就能影响得了交流。但这还不是我不在意学生语音

的最主要的原因。我之所以不纠正他们的语音最主要的原因是考试不考语音而我必须利用好课堂的每一分钟来帮助我的学生学到那些要考的内容。

例子 7.9:

LAN: 事实上我并不认为死记硬背单词对实践交流有益。很多学生倒是把单词短语记到脑子里了,但是用的时候根本不知道怎么用。有的甚至都想不起来该用哪个词。我总觉得现在的孩子学英语就跟学数学似得。数学需要熟记公式,英语呢,他们背介词用法,形容词用法,还有单词的各种形式啥的。对于他们来说,英语和数学一样都有很严格的规则。语言学习变得像数学一样一成不变。这都是考试造成的结果啊。他们不得不这样学。

例子 7.10:

YANG: 有时候真觉得背那些固定搭配显得很可笑。你比如啊,有回考试让学生选择填空 ‘I would _____ Jane’s birthday party’, 空白处是填写 ‘join in’ 还是 ‘join’。这真是太可笑了。在实际交流中用得着仔细区别有 ‘in’ 没 ‘in’ 的区别吗? 拜托,语境人家已经给出来了。我无论是用 join 还是 join in, 对方都可以理解我的。

LAN: 如果可能的话,我是不会用大把大把的时间在解说单词的语法上,我也绝不轻易的去要求学生把精力放在拼写上。我自己也觉得这样太无聊了。你知道吗,我觉得有时候学生自己创的那些中式英语的词汇很好玩,比如 ‘好好学习天天向上啊’ 他们翻译成 ‘good good study day day up’。他们故意把那个 ‘p’ 的音发的很重很长,这样就可以喷同学一脸口水,然后他们就会互相这么玩儿。我觉得这样的创新太有意思了。如果考试不那么注重语法的准确性,我觉得不会制止他们这种语言创新的行为。

例子 7.11:

YAO: 考试对单词的考察从来都是注重在拼写,语法和形式上。从来都没有关注过语境。所以,如果我通过角色转换、戏剧等形式教授单词的话,学生们在课堂上会学的

很开心，但是考试的时候估计就得哭了。毕竟这些活泼一点的教授方式的侧重点在交流而非语法。

YANG: 词汇是语言考察非常重要的一部分。像单选啊、完形填空啊、单词适当形式填空啊考察的都是单词的语法和搭配。同时词汇量会影响阅读题的得分，单词拼写或语法错误会导致写作得分不高。

例子 7.12:

LAN: 对于初中生来说，我觉得大概有 3000 到 4500 的词汇量就差不多了。我真心不觉得词汇量越大你的交流能力就越大。把大量的时间花费到增加词汇量上是完全没必要的。你的工作如果涉及特别学科或领域，你只需学习专业词汇就够了。但是对于日常交流来说，我觉得 1500 到 2000 左右的基本词汇再加上肢体语言，完全不妨碍你交流。但是对于学生来说，他们必须得有 3000 到 4500 的词汇量。如果达不到这个词汇量，他们在考试时做阅读的时候就会非常的困难。

例子 7.13:

Researcher: 你觉得语言的主要功能是什么？比如说英语？

LAN: 当然是交流啊。

Researcher: 那在交流中，你觉得什么是最重要的：准确性还是流利性？

LAN: 我觉得准确性更重要吧。

Researcher: 请问你是如何理解‘准确性’一词的？它指的是语法上的准确还是信息上的准确？

LAN: 是信息上的准确啊。我理解的是必须至少传递的信息是准确的吧。

Researcher: 那这样看来，在交流中，你似乎并没有把语法准确看的很重要。

LAN: 嗯，在跟别人用英语交流的时候哪有空去想语法对不对啊。我比较在行语言表达是否流利和通顺。别人才不会注意你有没有错误的将‘in’用成‘on’了呢。没啥好担

心的。如果你太担心语法错误，你说的英语就会磕磕巴巴的，这样会让别人听的更加不舒服的。

例子 7.14:

Researcher: 依你看来，你觉得学习英语主要是为了和谁交流？

JANG: 当然是和那些说英语的人咯。

Researcher: 那些说英语的人主要指的是？

JANG: 那些会说英语的人。比如，你来到了法国，如果你不懂法语，你就可以用英语和他们交流。

例子 7.15:

YANG: 我理解的标准英语指的是那些最基本的英语。我需要这样一种英语作为共同通用的语言来和那些来自不同地方的人交流。但是把这种英语做为考试时对学生语言的评判标准，我觉得是不合适的。因为，在实践交流中，人们会根据自己的需求灵活的对基本英语进行增删。

BING: 我们对标准英语崇拜的太过头了。这会影响学生的学习信心的。如果我是个学生，我看到试卷满是红色的叉叉，我肯定会非常有挫败感的。学生学习非常努力，但是试卷显示的结果却差强人意。作为成年人，我其实很明白他们将来在实践中遇到或者使用的英语绝对不是他们现在学习的英语。实际交流中，没有人会过多的关注那些小的语法错误的。但是作为老师，我却不能告诉他们学他们所学的和他们所经历的是没有太大意义的。

YAO: 我觉得用一种标准来评判学生的能力是一件很不公平的事情。英语是他们的母语，但是对于我们来说却是外语。他们从小就知道怎么说英语因为他们有母语的环境。我们怎么能比过他们呢。这根本是不可能的。所以啊，用他们的标准来要求我们的学生是不合理的。

例子 7.16:

LAN: 说实在的, 我自己都觉得语法课枯燥无味。搞得我上班都没啥动力了。我是英语翻译专业的硕士, 但是每天我的工作却是给孩子们讲语法点训练一个又一个的考试机器。我很想和我的学生们分享我所学到的文化啊, 或者哪怕是简单的交流交流。但是不行啊。还有考试呢。我的首要工作就是帮助孩子们通过考试。

BING: 学习英语本来是为了交流。但是现在呢, 学生学习英语是为了在考试中取得更高的分数。

YANG: 我的学生在考试做题方面非常娴熟, 有的甚至能达到满分。他们的语法很强大。但是我觉得如果你让他们去和外国人交流, 他们恐怕不行。他们懂语法, 却不懂怎么在现实交流中运用。

例子 7.17:

YAO: 初一的时候, 我曾经尝试通过一些互动的课堂活动来教语法。但是很多学生都很抱怨。他们觉得这些活动就是玩儿的, 根本就从里面学不到知识。虽然在那些活动里他们也很开心很放松, 但是他们还是希望回归传统的语法教学。因为他们很清楚虽然传统的语法学习很枯燥但是对考试却很有用。

BING: 我不得不考虑家长的想法。为了更多语法训练, 很多家长都安排孩子参加课外辅导班。他们觉得我的课堂里的这些讨论啊角色转换啊这类活动华而不实, 太浪费时间。我一星期教的语法还没他们孩子每天两个小时的课外语法辅导课讲的多。他们看重的是试卷上的考试结果, 根本不关心学习的过程。迫于这种压力, 我不得不放弃那些以交流为主的课堂活动转为传统的语法教学。

例子 7.18:

YANG: 学生无法自己从那些交流性的课堂活动中辨别出语法重点。他们更习惯于传统的语法学习模式, 就是我把语法列出来把重点划出来。学生甚至建议我用 word 文档

把语法逐一列出，然后再每一条都讲讲用法。而且建立 word 文档方便他们拷贝，上课来不及做笔记的可以下课再看。

例子 7.19:

LAN: 我曾经也在语法课堂里尝试过交流性的课堂活动。我发现学生对这类活动反应很不一样。在小组讨论的时候，有的学生会很积极的参与并且和别人相互合作。而有的学生却和其他学生窃窃私语，闲聊天。而且英语程度不同的学生学习爱好也不一样。有的喜欢语境学习，有的则认为语境学习一点用的没有。这些问题都很棘手。每人告诉我该怎么解决。所以，我只能选择放弃这类课堂活动。

例子 7.20:

Researcher: 如果你和一个口音很重但是意思表达却很明确的法国人用英语聊天，你能接受他的英语吗？

LAN: 我没得选择啊。当然接受了。

Researcher: 那如果这种情况发生在你的课堂呢，你能接受这样的英语吗？

LAN: 不能。

Researcher: 为什么？

LAN: 因为对于学生来说，英语已经是第二语言了。他们已经很费力的在学了。如果在课堂里在向他们推广什么法式英语、印度英语，他们的学习任务会更重的。而且他们还太小。学习这么多类英语会让他们学混了的。而且最重要的是即便是我想介绍这些个英语我都不知道该怎么介绍。专家们应该给一些实际的操作意见在这方面。

Researcher: 那退一步来讲。你会激发学生英语多样性的意识吗？

LAN: 当然。我已经这样做了呀。我跟他们说你们现在学的是标准英语。事实上，在交流实践中，你们并不需要完全按照标准英语来说。只要你们能交流顺畅就可以了。不用太在乎语言形式语法什么的。大家并不会太注意语法错误。

Researcher: 所以你会在课堂上纠正那些所谓的‘语法错误’吗?

LAN: 会啊。因为考试会考那些嘛。

Researcher: 所以考试更重要?

LAN: 当然, 对于学生来说, 一分之差很有可能改变他们的命运。如果我没纠正他们的语法错误, 我会觉得我工作失职了。

例子 8.1:

JAN: 一些学生问我, ‘老师, 我又不准备出国又不准备从事任何和英语相关的工作。而且很讨厌英语。为什么要我学习英语啊? 如果他们来咱们国家, 那他们应该学习咱们的语言啊’

LAN: 我们班的学生基本上都是来自附近农村的孩子。他们的家长大部分都没有见过外面的世界。一些家长要不要在英语学习上那么严格要求他们的孩子。他们说‘我不会英语我还不是活的好好的。我一辈子都没见过外国人。况且我在咱们这儿菜市场买个白菜又不需要用英语。我的孩子也不需要。我只要我孩子开开心心的就行。只要他能读能说一些基本的英语就够了。我又不期待他们出国’。听家长这么说, 我都无语了。如果他们都说他们不需要学习英语了, 我干嘛非得强迫他们学呢?

YANG: 我打电话给学生的家长想跟他们讨论一样孩子学习英语的表现, 学生家长很明确的跟我说, ‘老师啊, 学英语是为了啥啊? 还不是为了找个好工作将来多挣点钱嘛。我有钱。我不需要我的孩子每天学英语受折磨。我只想让他健健康康的安全的呆在学校就可以了’。

例子 8.2:

JIANG: 我和我的一个学生促膝长谈了一回。她告诉我说她学习英语很痛苦因为她看不到英语学习的意义在哪儿。每天都做笔记的意义又在哪儿? 她说‘老师总是让我们记下她说的重点。我已经有好几本笔记本了, 记得都是语法和句法。但是我还是不懂那

些用法。我还是老犯语法错误。语法太多了，我觉得怎么老是没完没了的学语法啊’。她说的时候都哭了。她觉得自己跟个苦行僧一样。

例子 8.3:

BING: 这类学生在英语课上啥也不学。他们说他们对英语根本不感兴趣，压根儿就不想学。这类学生很多，在我们班就至少有 6 个。不论老师怎么引导，他们就是不学。然后我就对他们说说，如果你们觉得语法太难，那就至少花点力气背背单词啊。他们也不背。他们说他们背单词记不住而且即便是记住了也不知道怎么用。所以，督促他们学英语是没用的。

例子 8.4:

YAO: 对于我们班学生的表现我并不惊讶。他们是精挑细选才进的这个班级。从入学第一天开始他们就有了很明确的学习目标，那就是考高分进附高。他们知道传统的语法学习对考试很有用，所以他们会以很积极的态度去面对。

例子 8.5:

LAN: 如果不记笔记的话，他们会很快就忘了。他们可能会大概记得课堂上学了点啥，但是很多时候却不能非常准确的写在卷子上。

JIANG: 我第一次教阅读的时候，我发现学生非常听话。我让他们记笔记，他们就会乖乖的记笔记。但是过一会儿当我提问刚才讲的内容的时候，几乎没人能直接回答上来。他们会飞快的翻自己记得笔记，然后读出答案。我这才意识到他们只是把知识记到了本子上而非脑子里。

例子 8.6:

YAO: 我不赞成全英教学。上回我去听公开课，老师用全英教学。我的天，那老师至少花了五分钟来解释什么是‘success’。我不明白为什么要把时间浪费到这上面。我们

的教学目的是传授知识，是让学生明了。如果我们用汉语的话，我想不用一秒钟学生就会明白‘success’的意思。

LAN: 我绝对不会用全英教学。其中一个原因是因为我的学生的英语水平还没达到那个能听懂全英教学的水平。而且即便是我想全英教学，我估计我自己都很难用英语去解释语法。我觉得还是用汉语来解释语法更方便一些。课堂媒介语只是一个工具。我们真正的目的是如何教会学生使用英语。我们不能太在意用的是什么碗，而应该在意的是碗里装的啥。

例子 8.7:

JAN: 我们学习英语，需要知道其相关的文化背景。比如一个短语，我们要清楚它是在什么场合下基于什么目的被创造出来的。刨根问底才会让语言学习变得更有趣。

YANG: 学生对国外的文化很不熟悉，比如他们的风俗习惯啊什么的。因此，学生会对英语离他们的生活很遥远。这样会影响他们学习的热情的。

Researcher: 你所说的‘国外文化’指的是？

YANG: 英美文化啊。就像咱们学习汉字一样，我们会觉得学习非常有趣。比如说‘山’这个字，老师会告诉我们它之所以这样写是因为它的形状像个山。但是在英语的教学中，我们只教学生怎么读。学生呢，只会死记硬背。但是因为没有和文化连起来，这种记忆并不会持久。

例子 8.8:

YANG: 英语思维我指的是向他们英语母语者一样用英语去思考。你知道的，大多数中国学生都是先用汉语来思考，然后花费时间组织语言，然后再把自己的想法翻译成英语。这个漫长的思考过程自然会影响语言的流利性。最主要的是在这个中转英的过程中很多英语的表达就不会那么地道了。中式文化自然而然的就被带入英语交流中了。比如他们会跟老外打招呼时会说‘你吃了吗’而非简单的说‘hello’。这个问题对老外来说太奇怪了。所以还是应该站在英语母语者的角度思考。

Researcher: 但是有的时候我们的母语也会帮助解决交流中的困难啊。

YANG: 我知道啊。但是那是不得已而为之的举动啊。英语思维还是非常重要的。

例子 8.9:

JIANG: 现在的教学是典型的以语法为主的传统式教学, 根本涉及不到文化层面。没时间啊。我们必须得争分夺秒的准备考试啊。如果没有考试压力的话, 我会很开心的去介绍人文地理政治等文化方面的内容。其实学生对这些都是很有兴趣的。上回我说起了君主立宪制的一些东西, 但是因为时间不够了, 我只是简单的说了点。没想到学生非常好奇, 他们情愿牺牲点课间休息的时间也要听完。这些孩子其实很想学习一些文化知识的, 但是在现在的教育制度下怎么可能会花大量的时间在这些问题上啊。

LAN: 我是英语硕士毕业的。可是我学到的那些文化文学方面的东西在教学中没有一点发挥的余地。根本就没啥机会给学生分享这些。只能关注在语法教学上。好无聊的。

例子 8.10:

LAN: 学生对英美文化太崇拜了。这也难怪, 在咱们的教科书里到处都是西方生活的图片文字, 什么食物啊衣服啊游戏啊啥的。跟咱们同龄的孩子比起来, 西方的小孩儿似乎根本就没有考试的烦恼, 他们每天都去参加一些活动啊, 去海边或者去旅行。这些生活方式跟咱们的孩子太不一样了。我能感觉到学生在中国和英美外文化的对比中会流露出对其他文化尤其是自己文化的轻视。

JAN: 教科书里的很多国外的文化咱们小孩儿都没见过。所以很多时候他们都很难理解那些文化风俗。但是当发现中外文化差异的时候, 小孩儿会觉得英美文化更好, 会觉得自己国家的文化落后。

例子 8.11:

LAN: 在国际场合, 只知道英美文化肯定是不够的啊。比如啊我要是跟一个日本人交流我肯定得知道人家的文化啊。如果这时候再按照英美文化那套来, 肯定会造成误会的啊。其实这时候英语只是一个语言工具了。我们虽然说的是英语, 但是所涉及的文

化背景却是日本和中国。我很担心学生对教科书里的英美文化了解的过多会使他们小看其他国家的文化。

例子 8.12:

LAN: 你看啊, 初中三年要学六册课本。按理说应该每年要学两册。但是实际上呢, 初三年级在头两三个月就会把两学期的课本都讲完。剩下的几个月的时间都会用来准备中考。他们会分项练习, 比如头一个月会练习单选。学生会做海量的单选题。目的就是培养他们对所考察的语法点的敏感度。另外一个月他们可能会专门做完形填空啊或者阅读理解。反正会有好几个月留下来专门做题。没有专门的规定, 但是老师们都是这样做的。

例子 8.13:

YANG: 我从不做英语听力练习。主要原因就是考试不考听力啊。没必要练听力。还有就是没时间练啊, 我基本上所有时间都花费在语法教学上了, 哪会舍得花时间在听上。口语训练也是这样, 还有介绍文化知识啦, 都太浪费时间了。考试考啥我们讲啥。

JIANG: 我真心不喜欢这种不断重复的填鸭式教学。太无聊了, 而且对交流实践没啥用啊。但我们还不得不填鸭, 得帮助学生考高分儿啊。家长才不关心孩子怎么学, 他们关心的是考试结果。

例子 8.14:

YAO: 每考试一回, 我们都开一回试卷分析会。每个班都会按成绩高低列出来, 然后发到每个老师手里。有时候校长或者年级组长会让老师会上发言, 主要就是反思一下学生成绩落后的原因。这很尴尬的。如果是我们班成绩落后了, 我会觉得其他老师会认为我教课不努力或者教课水平差的。

BING: 期末考试很重要啊。学校会根据考试结果给老师年终奖励。如果学生考得好了, 年终奖就多。我们其实也不是太关心这个奖励, 我们最关心的还是这个荣誉。年终奖其实就是对你这一年努力工作的肯定。年终奖少了就会让人觉得你没努力似得。

例子 8.15:

YANG: 我觉得英语科目分数降低了是件好事。你知道的, 现在英语学习太火热了, 汉语反而被遗忘了。也该抑制一下英语热了。毕竟咱们是中国人, 汉语还是第一位的。

BING: 改革导致的直接一个结果就是英语辅导班儿可能会变少。学生可能就不会花大量时间和金钱在语法训练上了。我还是挺喜欢改革的。

例子 8.16:

LAN: 这是个好消息啊。我们终于可以摆脱填鸭式教学了。将来我们的教学有可能关注更多的就是听力。比起语法教学来, 听力练习跟交流实践联系的更紧密啊。对于学生来说, 英语不再是死气沉沉。这很可能改变中国学生一直以来的哑巴英语的情况了。

JIANG: 学生会把更多的时间花费在听力教学上。你看啊, 他们听进去的越多, 能说出来的可能就越大。他们又更多机会去听一些现实生活里真实场景下的英语。

例子 8.17:

YAO: 我担心的是大家不填鸭式教语法了, 变成填鸭式教听力了。就是说专注在训练考试所需要的听力技巧上了。学生和老师还是不能随意选择他们听什么。他们可能还是会只听考试所考的内容。还是会为了考高分而学习。

Appendix 6: Observation data

(1) Classroom observation participants and classes

P1

- C1 (new words)
- C2 (text)
- C3 (test paper interpretation)

P2

- C1 (grammar)

P3(

- C1 (reading comprehension)
- C2 (reading comprehension)
- C3 (grammar)

P4

- C1 (grammar)

P5

- C1 (text)

P6

C1 (exercise)

- C2 (text)

Together there are 14 classroom observations with 630 minutes (10.5 hours).

(2) Filed notes scheme :

School _____ classroom _____ size _____

Classroom setting _____ teacher _____

Date _____ Time _____ lesson _____

Time	Activity	Interpretation	Question

Appendix 7: Extracts of National English Curriculum document

义务教育 英语课程标准 （2011年版） 中华人民共和国教育部制 （节选）

目录 第一部分 前言

一、课程性质

二、课程基本理念

三、课程思路

第二部分 课程目标

一、总目标

二、分级目标

第三部分 分级标准

一、语言技能

二、语言知识

三、情感态度

四、学习策略

五、文化意识

第四部分 实施建议

一、教学建议

二、评价建议

三、教材编写建议

附录

附录1 语音项目表

附录 2 语法项目表

附录 3 词汇表

第一部分 前言 当今世界正处在大发展和大调整的变革时期，呈现出世界多极化和经济全球化以及信息化的发展态势。作为一个和平发展的大国，中国承担着重要的历史使命和国际责任与义务。英语作为全球使用最广泛的语言之一，已经成为国际交往和科技、文化交流的重要工具。学习和使用英语对吸取人类文明成果、借鉴外国先进科学技术、增进中国和世界的相互理解具有重要的作用。在义务教育阶段开设英语课程能够为提高我国整体国民素养，培养具有创新能力和跨文化交际能力的人才，提高国家的国际竞争力和国民的国际交流能力奠定基础。 在义务教育阶段开设英语课程对青少年的未来发展具有重要意义。学习英语不仅有利于他们更好地了解世界，学习先进的科学文化知识，传播中国文化，增进他们与各国青少年的相互沟通和理解，还能为他们提供更多的接受教育和职业发展的机会。学习英语能帮助他们形成开放、包容的性格，发展跨文化交流的意识与能力，促进思维发展，形成正确的人生观、价值观和良好的人文素养。学习英语能够为学生未来参与知识创新和科技创新储备能力，也能为他们未来更好地适应世界多极化、经济全球化以及信息化奠定基础。

一、课程性质 义务教育阶段的英语课程具有工具性和人文性双重性质。就工具性而言，英语课程承担着培养学生基本英语素养和发展学生思维能力的任务，即学生通过英语课程掌握基本的英语语言知识，发展基本的英语听、说、读、写技能，初步形成用英语与他人交流的能力，进一步促进思维能力的发展，为今后继续学习英语和用英语学习其他相关科学文化知识奠定基础。就人文性而言，英语课程承担着提高学生综合人文素养的任务，即学生通过英语课程能够开阔视野，丰富生活经历，形成跨文化意识，增强爱国主义精神，发展创新能力，形成良好的品格和正确的人生观与价值观。工具性和人文性统一的英语课程有利于为学生的终身发展奠定基础。

二、课程基本理念

(一)注重素质教育，体现语言学习对学生发展的价值 义务教育阶段英语课程的主要目的是为学生发展综合语言运用能力打基础，为他们继续学习英语和未来发展创造有利条件。语言既是交流的工具，也是思维的工具。学习一门外语能够促进人的心智发展，有助于学生认识世界的多样性，在体验中外文化的异同中形成跨文化意识，增进国际理解，弘扬爱国主义精神，形成社会责任感和创新意识，提高人文素养。

(二)面向全体学生,关注语言学习者的不同特点和个体差异 义务教育是全民教育的重要组成部分。义务教育阶段的英语课程应面向全体学生,体现以学生为主体的思想,在教学目标、教学内容、教学过程、教学评价和教学资源的利用与开发等方面都应考虑全体学生的发展需求。英语课程应成为学生在教师的指导下构建知识、发展技能、拓展视野、活跃思维、展现个性的过程。由于学生在年龄、性格、认知方式、生活环境等方面存在差异,他们具有不同的学习需求和学习特点。只有最大限度地满足个体需求,才有可能获得最大化的整体教学效益。

(三)整体设计目标,充分考虑语言学习的渐进性和持续性 英语学习具有明显的渐进性和持续性特点。语言学习持续时间长,而且需要逐渐积累。《义务教育英语课程标准》(以下简称‘本标准’)和与之相衔接的《普通高中英语课程标准》基础教育阶段英语课程的目标设为九个级别,旨在体现小学、初中和高中各学段课程的有机衔接和各学段学生英语语言能力循序渐进的发展特点,保证英语课程的整体性、渐进性和持续性。英语课程应按照学生的语言水平及相应的等级要求组织教学和评价活动。

(四)强调学习过程,重视语言学习的实践性和应用性 现代外语教育注重语言学习的过程,强调语言学习的实践性,主张学生在语境中接触、体验和理解真实语言,并在此基础上学习和运用语言。英语课程提倡采用既强调语言学习过程又有利于提高学生学习成效的语言教学选径和方法,尽可能多地为学生创造在真实语境中运用语言的机会。鼓励学生在教师的指导下,通过体验、实践、参与、探究和合作等方式,发现语言规律,逐步掌握语言知识和技能,不断调整情感态度,形成有效的学习策略,发展自主学习能力。

(五)优化评价方式,着重评价学生的综合语言运用能力 英语课程评价体系要有利于促进学生综合语言运用能力的发展,要通过采用多元优化的评价方式,评价学生综合语言运用能力的发展水平,并通过评价激发学生的学习兴级,促进学生的自主学习能力、思维能力、文化意识和健康人格的发展。评价体系应包括形成性评价和终结性评价。日常教学中的评价以形成性评价为主,关注学生在学习过程中的表现和进步;终结性评价着重考查学生的综合语言运用能力,包括语言技能、语言知识、情感态度、学习策略和文化意识等方面。

(六)丰富课程资源,拓展英语学习渠道 语言学习需要大量的输入。丰富多样的课程资源对英语学习尤其重要。英语课程应根据教和学的需求,提供贴近学生、贴近生活、贴近时代的英语学习资源。

创造性地开发和利用现实生活中鲜活的英语学习资源，积极利用音像、广播、电视、书报杂志，网络信息等，拓展学生学习和运用英语的渠道。

三、课程设计思路

英语课程的总体设计思路是：以科学发展观和先进的外语课程理念为指导，立足国情，综合考虑我国英语教育的发展现状，从义务教育阶段起，建立一个以学生发展为本、系统而持续渐进的英语课程体系。这一课程体系以培养学生的综合语言运用能力为目标，根据语言学习的规律和义务教育阶段学生的发展需求，从语言技能、语言知识、情感态度、学习策略和文化意识等五个方面设计课程总目标和分级目标。这五个方面相互联系，相辅相成，使英语课程既重视培养学生的语言基础知识和基本技能，也注重优化学习过程，引导学生形成有效的学习策略和一定的文化意识，培养积极向上的情感态度和价值观。

根据上述设计思路，义务教育阶段的英语课程以小学3年级为起点，以初中毕业为终点(即义务教育9年级)，并与高中阶段的英语课程相衔接。整个基础教育阶段的英语课程(包括义务教育和高中两个阶段)按照能力水平设为九个级别，形成循序渐进、持续发展的课程。设置分级课程目标借鉴了国际上通用的分级方式，力求体现不同年龄段学生的学习需求和认知特点，使英语课程具有整体性、灵活性和开放性。在九级目标体系中，一至五级为义务教育阶段的目标要求。其中，二级为6年级结束时应达到的基本要求，五级为9年级结束时应达到的基本要求。六至九级为普通高中的目标要求。其中，七级为高中毕业的基本要求，八级和九级是为愿意进一步提高英语水平的高中学生设计的目标。在九个级别的目标中，一级、三级、四级和六级为过度级别。分级目标的

设置有利于在课程实施中对教学和评价进行指导，同时也为课程的灵活性和开放性提供了依据。英语课程分级目标体系如图1所示

高 九级	中 八级	初 七级	普 六级	义 五级	义 四级	义 三级	义 二级	义 一级
普通高中毕业应达到的要求				义务教育9年级结束时应达到的要求		义务教育6年级结束时应达到的要求		课程一级

图1 英语课程分级目标体系

课程分级目标中的级别不完全等同于基础教育阶段的各个年级。但是，分级目标对3~6年级、7~9年级和高中各年级的教学和评价以及教材编写提供了循序渐进、稳步上升的指导性要求，有利于课程的整体实施。在义务教育阶段，从3年级开设英语课程的学校，4年级应完成一级目标，6年级完成二级目标，课时安排应尽量体现短时高频的原则，保证每周三至四次教学活动，周课时总时间不少于80~90分钟。7~9年级分别完成三、四、五级目标，周课时按照国家课程计划执

行。考虑到我国地域辽阔、民族众多、经济和教育发展不平衡的实际情况，各地可根据师资条件、资源配置等情况，制定本地区的课程实施方案，确定小学开设英语的起始年级及小学和初中毕业时应达到的级别要求，特别是小学英语课程的开设，要充分考虑师资力量的配备和教学条件等因素。各地教学研究部门应加强对教学的分

类、分层指导和评价，帮助学校因地制宜地落实本地课程实施方案，并注意做好学段之间的协调和衔接，尤其要做好小学与初中阶段的平稳过渡，促进地区英语教育的均衡发展。

第二部分 课程目标

一、总目标 义务教育阶段英语课程的总目标是：通过英语学习使学生形成初步的综合语言运用能力，促进心智发展，提高综合人文素养。综合语言运用能力的形成建立在语言技能、语言知识、情感态度、学习策略和文化意识等方面整体发展的基础之上。语言技能和语言知识是综合语言运用能力的基础；文化意识有利于正确地理解语言和得体地使用语言；有效的学习策略有利于提高学习效率和发展自主学习能力；积极的情感态度有利于促进主动学习和持续发展。过五个方面相辅相成，共同促进学生综合语言运用能力的形成与发展。

Appendix 8 Personal translation of NEC statements on pedagogic aspects

<i>Pedagogical aspects</i>	<i>Description for level 5</i>
<i>Linguistic knowledge and skills</i>	<p><i>Phonology</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Learn about the importance of phonology in language learning; 6. In daily life conversation, make sure pronunciation and intonation basically correct, natural and fluent; 7. Be able to understand different intention and attitude according to stress and intonation and be able to express different intention and attitude by relying on stress and intonation; 8. Be able to spell and read new words according to pronunciation rules and phonetic symbols; <p><i>Lexis</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Learn about that English lexis is consisted of word, phrase, idiom, fixed collocation and so on; 6. Understand and grasp lexis' basic meaning and other meanings in different contexts; 7. Be able to use lexis to describe event, behaviour and features; to explain abstract ideas; 8. Learn to use 1500-1600 words and 200-300 idiomatic phrases or fixed collocation. <p><i>Grammar</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Understand grammars provided in 'Grammar Item List' in Appendix 2 and be able to use them in appropriate context. 6. Learn about linguistic structures that are frequently used and their related notional functions. 7. Attempt to comprehend the notional function of linguistic structures in practical use. 8. Use appropriate linguistic structures to describe people and objects; describe the occurrence and development of specific event and behaviour; describe time, place and location; compare people, objects and matters. <p><i>Function</i></p> <p>Be able to appropriately understand and perform function and notions that listed for level 5 (see appendix 4) through language.</p>

	<p><i>Topic Be able to appropriately understand and use language around topics listed in Appendix 5.</i></p>
<p><i>Affect and attitude</i></p>	<p><i>10. Have clear learning goal, and understand the aim of English learning is to communicate;</i></p> <p><i>11. Have English learning aspiration and interest, and be happy to participate in kinds of practical English activities;</i></p> <p><i>12. Have confidence in English learning, and have courage to communicate in English;</i></p> <p><i>13. Be able to actively cooperate with others, help each other and then can accomplish learning task together in a teamwork group.</i></p> <p><i>14. Be able to enjoy English learning, and be happy to listen English song or read English books and so on;</i></p> <p><i>15. Be able to notice and understand others' affection and emotion in communication;</i></p> <p><i>16. Be able to take the initial to ask for help when confront difficulties, and have the courage to overcome difficulties;</i></p> <p><i>17. When get access to English in daily life, be happy to explore and imitate;</i></p> <p><i>18. Have deep understanding of motherland culture, and have preliminary awareness of international world.</i></p>
<p><i>Learning strategies</i></p>	<p><i>Cognitive strategy</i></p> <p><i>11. To preview as needed;</i></p> <p><i>12. Be concentrate in language learning;</i></p> <p><i>13. Be good at take notes of key points in language learning;</i></p> <p><i>14. Be good at making use of nonverbal information, like pictures, to understand main theme;</i></p> <p><i>15. With the aid of associate method to learn and memorize lexis;</i></p> <p><i>16. Be able to actively review and wrap things up;</i></p> <p><i>17. Be able to positive think in the study, take the initiative to explore, to discover the law of language and be able to draw inferences about other cases from one instance;</i></p> <p><i>18. When using English, be able to notice mistakes and correct mistakes properly;</i></p> <p><i>19. When necessary, make good use of knowledge of your native language</i></p>

	<i>to understand English;</i>
	<i>20. Try to read English stories or other English books.</i>
<i>Regul ative strate gy</i>	<i>1. Be clear about English learning aim;</i> <i>2. Be clear about your English learning needs;</i> <i>3. Design realistic and practical English learning plans;</i> <i>4. Grasp important and difficult area in language learning;</i> <i>5. Notice and introspect the progress and deficiency of your English learning;</i> <i>6. Actively explore English learning methods that suite to yourself;</i> <i>7. Frequently share learning experiences with teachers and classmates;</i> <i>8. Actively participate in learning activities in and out of class;</i>
<i>Com munic ative strate gy</i>	<i>7. Be able to use English to communicate with people in English learning activities in or out of class;</i> <i>8. Be good at catching communication opportunities which are carried in English;</i> <i>9. During communication, focus attention on meaning;</i> <i>10. Be able to carry on communication with aids of gesture, body language and facial expression;</i> <i>11. When confront with communicative difficulties, be able to ask for help;</i> <i>12. Notice cultural differences between our country and other foreign countries in communication.</i>
<i>Resou rce strate gy</i>	<i>1. Through audio or video resources to enrich your English learning;</i> <i>2. Be able to use basic reference books to search information;</i> <i>3. Pay attention to English used in daily life and in medias;</i> <i>4. Be able to preliminary use learning resources in library and in network.</i>
<i>Cultur al awaren ess</i>	<i>13. Know common body languages used in English communication, like gesture, facial expression;</i> <i>14. Properly use address terms, greetings and leave-taking language in English;</i> <i>15. Know and distinguish common names and nicknames for different genders in English;</i> <i>16. Know English speaking countries' diet custom;</i>

- 17. Properly response to compliment, request, apology and so on;*
- 18. Properly express compliment, request and so on;*
- 19. Have a preliminary knowledge about English speaking countries' geographic locations, climatic features, histories and so on;*
- 20. Know English speaking countries' interpersonal communication rules;*
- 21. Know popular entertainment and sports activities around the world;*
- 22. Know popular festivals and their celebration ways around the world;*
- 23. Focus on similarities and differences between Chinese and foreign culture, and deepen the understanding of Chinese culture;*
- 24. Be able to introduce main Chinese festival and representative culture and custom.*

Appendix 9: Henan Province Senior high school entrance examination for English in 2014

座号	
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2014 年河南省普通高中招生考试试卷 英 语

注意事项:

1. 本试卷共 10 页, 七个大题, 满分 120 分, 考试时间 100 分钟。请用蓝、黑色水笔或圆珠笔直接答在试卷上。
2. 答卷前将密封线内的项目填写清楚。

题号	一	二	三	四	五	六	七	总分
分数								

得分	评卷人

一、听力理解 (20 小题, 每小题 1 分, 共 20 分)

第一节

听下面 5 段对话。每段对话后有一个小题, 从题中所给的 A、B、C 三个选项选出最佳答案, 并将其标号填入题前括号内。每段对话读两遍。

- () 1. Who is calling Steve?
A. Mary. B. Henry. C. Barry.
- () 2. Where are the two speakers?
A. In a restaurant. B. In a post office. C. In a hospital.
- () 3. How long does it take the man to walk to the station?
A. Five minutes. B. Ten minutes. C. Fifteen minutes.
- () 4. What happened to the woman?
A. She was sick. B. She lost a book. C. She had a bad dream.
- () 5. What's the man doing?
A. Having a field trip. B. Booking a plane ticket. C. Saying goodbye to his friend.

第二节

听下面几段对话或独白。每段对话或独白后有几个小题, 从题中所给的 A、B、C 三个选项选出最佳答案, 并将其标号填入题前括号内。每段对话或独白读两遍。

听下面一段对话, 回答第 6 至第 7 两个小题。

- () 6. Which floor will the man live on?
A. The second floor. B. The third floor. C. The fourth floor.

- () 7. How much should the man pay?
A. \$45. B. \$60. C. \$90.

听下面一段对话，回答第8至第9两个小题。

- () 8. What time is it when they are talking?
A. It's about 9:00. B. It's about 10:00. C. It's about 11:00.

- () 9. What does the woman like to do?
A. Play the piano.
B. Do some drawings.
C. Watch some television.

听下面一段独白，回答第10至第12三个小题。

- () 10. How long does Frank spend on English movies every week?
A. Half an hour. B. About one hour. C. At least two hours.

- () 11. Where does Frank go every Saturday?
A. To a park. B. To a cinema. C. To a book store.

- () 12. What does Frank mainly talk about?
A. Traveling. B. Learning English. C. Having a party.

听下面一段对话，回答第13至第15三个小题。

- () 13. How did they get to the lake?
A. By bike. B. By car. C. On foot.

- () 14. What is the weather like today?
A. Rainy. B. Sunny. C. Cloudy.

- () 15. What will they buy?
A. Some flowers. B. Some drinks. C. Some ice cream.

第三节

听下面一篇短文。根据短文内容，按照你所听到的先后顺序将下列图片排序，并将其标号填写在题号后的横线上。短文读两遍。



16. _____ 17. _____ 18. _____ 19. _____ 20. _____

二、单项选择

21.—What ___ heavy rain it was!

—Yes, but I love ___ air after it rains. It smells so fresh.

- A. the; a B. a; the C. the; the D. a; a
22. —You may go to Milan for a free trip.
—It's a very kind _____, but I really can't accept it.
A. excuse B. offer C. promise D. decision
23. A conversation _____ a wise person is worth ten year's study of books.
A. for B. like C. with D. to
24. —Are you going anywhere?
—I _____ about visiting my sister, but I have changed my mind.
A. think B. have thought C. will think D. thought
25. At present, children mean _____ to most parents in China.
A. everything B. nothing C. anything D. something
26. It's possible to get \$100 a day in this company, and some days you can get _____.
A. much B. more C. little D. fewer
27. Choosing the right circle of the friends will _____ us a lot of troubles, heartaches and possibly a life of deep regret.
A. save B. share C. keep D. bring
28. —Where shall we eat tonight?
—Let's call Harry. He _____ knows the best places to go.
A. only B. nearly C. seldom D. always
29. This bus doesn't go to the rain station. I'm afraid you'll have to _____ at the library and take the A52.
A. take off B. put off C. get off D. turn off
30. 'Underground' is the only word in the English language _____ begins and ends with the letters 'und'.
A. what B. that C. who D. whom
31. When Tim _____ why he was late for school, he just kept silent.
A. was asked B. asked C. was asking D. is asked
32. —Do you climb mountains every day?[来源:ZXXK]
—Yes, _____ a little exercise. I'm so out of shape.
A. getting B. get C. got D. to get
33. —Does this bus go to the beach?
—No. You _____ the wrong way. You want the Number 11.
A. go B. were going C. are going D. would go

34. He's not a perfect child. He sometimes talks back ____ his parents talk with him.

A. if B. before C. when D. until

35. —Excuse, can you tell me ____?

—Sorry, I don't. You can go to the information desk.

A. that there is a train

B. when the train

C. which train can I take D. where does the train go.

三、完形填空

'It's raining cats and dogs!' Grandpa shouted.

Little Richie came running to the window. He wanted to see the __36__ falling from the sky. He looked out of the window, but he was __37__ that there were no cats or dogs. He only saw small pools of water on the ground.

'Man, it's really coming down out there!' Uncle Bob agreed __38__ he looked out of the window, too. Richie scratched his head(挠头). What was coming down? First they talked about cats and dogs that __39__ be seen. Now someone said it 'it'. What was going on with these __40__?

'Wow!' Aunt Susie shouted as she looked out of the window. 'It's raining really hard.'

Richie __41__ his aunt. 'It is raining hard,' he agreed, 'but __42__ are the cats and dogs?'

Grandpa laughed. 'Richie, that just __43__ it's raining really hard.'

'So why didn't you just say that?' Richie __44__. It was irritating (恼人的) when people like they were not speaking English at all.

'We did. You just didn't understand these __45__.' Richie's cousin said with a big smile.

'Well, now I do.' Richie said.

36. A. tigers and lions B. pigs and sheep C. cats and dogs D. chickens and ducks

37. A. important B. possible C. necessary D. strange

38. A. unless B. after C. till D. though

39. A. couldn't B. shouldn't C. needn't D. mustn't

40. A. days B. animals C. ideas D. people

41. A. shouted at B. looked at C. laughed at D. pointed at

42. A. what B. how C. where D. who

43. A. explains B. proves C. means D. shows

44. A. ordered B. thought C. repeated D. asked

45. A. saying B. questions C. objects D. stories

四、阅读理解

Once there was a man traveling in a faraway village. As he was passing the elephants, he suddenly stopped. He found that these huge elephants were being held by only a small rope tied to their front leg. No chains(锁链), no cages. It was clear that the elephants could, at any time, break away from their ropes but for some reason, they did not.[来源:]

How could it be? These animals could at any time break free from their ropes. But because they always stuck right where they were, they believed they couldn't.

Just like the elephants, how many of us go through life believing that we cannot do something, just because we failed at it once before?

_____ . We should never give up the struggle(挣扎) in life.

根据材料内容选择正确答案。[来源:学*科*网 Z*X*X*K]

46. What did the writer see in the village?

A. Chains B. Elephants C. Cages D. Farmers

47. Why do the elephants never try up to break free from the ropes?

A. Because they think they can not.

B. Because they are too old to do it.

C. Because they like their living places.

D. Because they get on well with the trainer.

48. How did the man feel after he heard what the trainer said?

A. Moved B. Surprised C. Angry D. Nervous

49. Which of the following is the missing part in the last paragraph?

A. Failing is part of learning.

B. We should be different from others.

C. Helping animals is helping ourselves.

D. Traveling always makes people relaxed.

50. What is the best title for this test?

A. Pleasant trip

B. A Cruel Trainer

C. Elephant Training D. The Elephant Rope

B

Would you like to experience what going to school was like in the late 1800s? to start with, imagine everyone in school only one classroom.

In the 19th and early 20th centuries, most American students went to a one-room schoolhouse. A single teacher would typically(典型地) have students in the first through eighth grades, and she taught them all. The number of students varied from six to 40 or more. The youngest children sat in the front, while the oldest students sat in the back. The teacher usually taught reading, writing, arithmetic, history, and geography. Students memorized(记忆) and retold their lessons.

The classroom of a one-room schoolhouse probably looked much like your own. The teacher's desk stood on a raised platform(讲台) at the front of the room, however, and there was a wood-burning stove since there was no other way of heating. The bathroom was outside in an outhouse.

In Honeoye Falls, New York, there is a one-room schoolhouse where kids today can experience what it was like to be the students in the late 19th century. For a week during the summer, they wear 19th century clothes and learn the way children learned more than a hundred years ago.

What else has changed about school since the 19th century? For more information, please visit our website: www.Locallygacy.com.

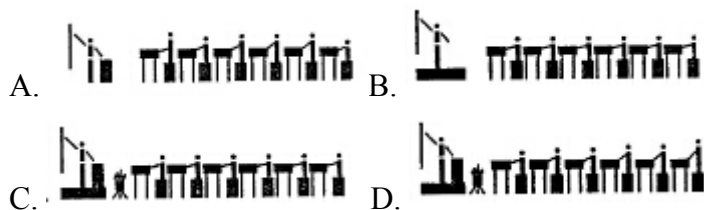
51. What does the word 'varied' in the Paragraph Two mean in Chinese?

- A. 变化 B. 排列 C. 调整 D. 减少

52. Students in the late 19th century could learn_____?

- A. reading, writing, sports, history, and science.
B. reading, art, arithmetic, history, and geography
C. reading, writing, arithmetic, history, and geography
D. reading, physics, chemistry, history, and geography

53. Which of the following best shows what a one-room schoolhouse was like in the late 19th century?



54. Some kids go to Honeoye Falls to _____.
A. try the food in the late 19th century
B. learn the subjects over a century ago
C. memorized and retell their lessons they have learn
D. experience the way children learned over a century ago
55. Which of the following is TRUE about the students in a one-room schoolhouse?
A. They had only one teacher.
B. They had different classrooms.
C. They could choose the seats they liked.
D. They learned more subjects than we do now.

C

A great way for teens to cool off during the summer is at water parks. If you live near a water park, you might think about getting a season pass. This way you can go as often as you like.

Check to see if there are any water parks around you. Many are indoor facilities. So even if it isn't warm enough where you live to swim outdoors, you can enjoy swimming in a temperature controlled area.

The prices are usually good. For example, one ticket to Water World, a water park, is only \$5.

Some teens like to get a part time job over the summer to make some pocket money. Older teens shouldn't have much trouble finding jobs.

An idea is to get some teens together to form your own summer job business. You can walk dogs, bring in the newspapers, feed the cats, collect rubbish, water flowers, etc.

Being that it's summer, many people go on vacation and could use someone to look after their houses while they're away. You can also think about other jobs you can do for them.

Teens love freedom. Sure you would like to get to such places as the small, movie theaters, the zoo, the beach, picnic, bowling and local amusement park instead of staying home all summer. Then a summer bus pass will be helpful. Check to see if your area has one for you teens.

Such a pass costs only \$10 for the whole summer. The price is reasonable(合乎情理的) and also your parents don't have to always drive.

56. Who is the text written for?
 A. Teachers B. Parents C. Teens D. Travelers
57. What is NOT mentioned as a part time job for teens?
 A. Washing cars B. Feeding cats C. Walking dogs D. Watering flowers
58. If Sally goes to Water World with two friends, they should pay_____.
 A. \$5 B. \$10 C. \$15 D. \$20
59. A summer bus pass is helpful for teens to _____.
 A. find part time jobs B. go out for fun
 C. go to summer classes D. do outdoor sports
60. What's the text mainly about?
 A. Part time jobs B. A summer pass
 C. Water park swimming D. Things to do in summer

D

Your parents might not realize how important their health is to you. Now it's your chance to let them know!

Think about it before starting.

Before you talk with your parents, it helps to get clear on what you want them to do.
 __61__ Get more exercise? Get more sleep? If you want a parent to lose weight, you'd better find out the disadvantage of being heavy and how great they will feel after eating healthy food or exercising more.

__62__

Pick a moment when everyone's relaxed and there's time to talk. Say something like: 'Dad, I care about your health and I worry you're so busy that you don't have time for exercise.' Let parents know you are willing to make the change yourself. For example, say you'd be willing to walk together after dinner.

Come up with a plan together

Has your mom or dad agreed to your ideas? Well done! Let's say the change your mom or dad agreed to is eating healthier food. __63__ Examples are: I'll eat five fruits every day. I'll eat breakfast every morning.

Show your encouragement and understanding

It's normal if your parents fail at first. If parents want to give up, encourage them to keep going. If you're making a change together, you can say, 'Well, I'm sorry. Let's start fresh and go on with our plan tomorrow.' __64__ Let your parents know you love and

care about them for what they're doing and that it means a lot to you.

What if a parent says 'No'?

If parents don't follow your ideas, ask them(gently): 'Could you at least think about it for me?' __65__ How many times have you pushed back on something they asked you to do, but then later thought more about it?

Soon you'll be grown and out of the house. Here's your chance to set your parents on the right way.

根据材料内容，选出最佳选项。

- A. Then give them a little time to consider.
- B. Do you want a parent to eat better?
- C. Work together to plan what they and you will do/
- D. Offer your praise!
- E. Talk to parents the same way you'd like them to talk to you.

61. ____ 62. ____ 63. ____ 64. ____ 65. ____

五、词语运用

从方框选择适当的词并用其正确形式填空。

usual mistake rest hundred what make although under they think fly how
--

Every morning, kids from a high school are working hard. They are __66__ and selling special coffee at a coffee shop. They are also making a lot of money.

These students can make up to nine __67__ dollars a day. They are selling their special coffee to airplane passengers. After the students get paid, the __68__ of the money goes to a local youth project.

These high school students use a space in the Oakland airport. It is __69__ very crowded. Many people who __70__ on the planes like to drink the special coffee.

One customer __71__ that the coffee costs a lot but it is good and worth it. Most customers are pleasant but some are unhappy. __72__ do not like it if the coffee cafe is not open for business.

The students earn \$ 6.10 an hour. They also get school credit while they learn __73__ to run a business. Many of the students enjoy the work __74__ it took some time to learn how to do it.

They have to learn how to heat milk, load the pots, and add flavor. It takes some skill and sometimes __75__ are made. The most common mistake is forgetting to add the coffee.

66. ____ 67. ____ 68. ____ 69. ____ 70. ____ 71. ____ 72. ____ 73. ____ 74. ____ 75. ____

六、补全对话

A: It's a nice day.

B: Yes, it's a beautiful day .

A: Are there so many people here all the time?

B: 76. _____. This is my first time here.

A: Me, too. I think this is a great place.

B: Yeah, I think so too.

A: 77. _____?

B: I'm visiting from London. How about you?

A: 78. _____.

B: That's cool. Are you having a good time?

A: Yes. There are many things to see and I'm taking a lot of picture.

B: 79. _____?

A: For two weeks, I went to San Francisco and Los Angeles. I want to see Yellow Stone National Park before I leave.

B: 80. _____.

A: Oh, my friends are waiting for me. I hope you enjoy your stay here.

B: Thank you. It was nice meeting you.

七、书面表达

你身边的每个人对你来说都具有特殊的意义。请以'My special _____'为题用英语写一篇短文，描述你家庭的某个成员或你的朋友、老师、同学等。

要求：1.在题目空格处填入你要描述的对象，如 grandma, teacher 或 friend 等；

2. 文中不得出现真实姓名和学校名称；

3. 80 词左右。

My special _____

参考答案

一、听力理解 (20 小题, 每小题 1 分, 共 20 分)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
B	A	A	B	C	A	C	B	A	C

11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
A	B	C	B	C	C	E	B	D	A

21-25 BBCDA 26-30 BADCB 31-35 ADCCB

36-45 CDBAD BCCDA

46-50 BABAD 51-55 ACDDA 56-60 CACBD 61-65 BECDA[来源:学#科#网]

66. making 67. hundred 68. rest 69. usually 70. fly

71. thinks 72. They 73. how 74. although

75. mistakes

76. (Sorry,) I'm not sure

(Sorry,) I don't know

I'm sorry, but I have no idea

77. Where are you (visiting) from

Where do you come from

78. I'm (visiting) from...

I come from....

79. How long are you visiting for

How long have you been here

How long will you stay here

How long are you staying here

80. That's great/cool/wonderful

It seems that you're having a good time

You must have had a good time

Have you good /pleasant/...trip(there)

I hope you can have a good/pleasant/...trip(there)

One possible version:

My special grandma

My grandma is special to me because we're like friends. She always helps me out whenever I am in trouble. There are no secrets between us.

When I am with my grandma, we spend a lot of happy time together. I know my

grandma is very smart because she seems to know everything. My grandma is good at many things. One thing she's best at is cooking. She often cooks delicious food for me. I know my grandma loves me and I love her as well.

Appendix 10: Participant information sheet

Participant Information Sheet (Face to Face)

Study Title: English language policy and practice in a Chinese high school from global Englishes perspective

Researcher: Haibo Liu

Ethics number:6669

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.

What is the research about?

I am a PhD student from Modern Languages, University of Southampton. This is my PhD research project which aims to investigate what influences global Englishes has had on English policy and practice in a senior high school in China. Global Englishes advocate to use English in terms of context rather than to use English with following ‘English native’ model. In a broad sense, it covers all English varieties worldwide. I will base on The National English Curriculum, which was issued by Ministry of Education of China in 2001, to start and develop my research. I would like to investigate how this National English Curriculum is influenced by global Englishes; how teaching practice (teaching, textbook, test) perform the influence of global Englishes on the National English Curriculum; what is teachers’ attitude towards the influence of global Englishes on National English Curriculum and what’s teachers’ attitude towards global Englishes; what is students’ attitude towards the influence of global Englishes on their English learning and life.

Why have I been chosen?

Your participation is very important to my research and is very meaningful to the development of English language policy in education in China. As an English teacher, you are the direct performer to put the language policy into practice. Since you are familiar and involved with both the language policy and the teaching practice, you may have very valuable ideas about the design and implementation of language policy. As a student, you are the direct person that benefit from the language policy. Your opinion on language policy not only matter the development of language policy but also affect your individual study and life.

You are the most qualified person to speak on language policy and practice. Experts who designed the language policy may not have thick and rich experience of practice as you are. But you experience both, language policy and its practice. In this way, your voice is very significant to the study on language policy and practice.

What will happen to me if I take part?

For participant of teacher, all of you will be interviewed for 2 or 3 times which roughly around 30-40 minutes. Part of you may be asked permission to be observed during your class teaching. In the end of the research, 4- 6 teachers may be invited to take a focus group which may need you 50 - 90 minutes.

For participant of students, all of you will be gave a questionnaire which may take you 10 or 15 minutes to complete. Part of you may asked permission to be observed during your class time. During the research, 4-10 students may be invited to take a focus group which may need you 50-90 minutes.

All the data will be used for the purpose of this research only.

The participation is completely voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at any stage of the research without any reason.

Are there any benefits in my taking part?

There may not immediate benefit. But your interest of being a teacher and your difficulty of performing language policy may raise the awareness of the policy maker who may improve the policy to maximize teachers' and students' benefit. As for student participant, since the language policy is learner-centered, your suggestion may promote a policy reform which will benefit you at last.

Are there any risks involved?

No

Will my participation be confidential?

I shall abide by the Data Protection Act/University policy. Based on the policy, your data collected at the first two stages will be kept anonymous and any information you give will not be identifiable as yours. Data collected from you will be coded and kept on a password protected computer. Therefore, your information will only be used for research purpose and your information will not be disclosed to anybody except me. There might be difficulties to assure the anonymity at the third stage, i.e. focus group, as other participants within the same focus group might recognize you. However, data collected from you will be coded and kept on a password protected computer. They will only be used for research purpose.

What happens if I change my mind?

You have the right to withdraw at any time through the research without any reason. Your legal right will not be affected.

What happens if something goes wrong?

If something goes wrong, you can contact the Chair of the Faculty Ethics Committee Prof Ros Mitchell. The contact address as follows:

Professor Rosamond Mitchell

Building 65

Faculty of Humanities

University of Southampton

Avenue Campus

Highfield

Southampton

SO17 1BF

United Kingdom

Room Number: 65/3029

Telephone: (023) 8059 2231

Facsimile: (023) 8059 3288

Email: R.F.Mitchell@soton.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?

If you have any questions regarding this research project, please feel free to contact me:

hl1r11@soton.ac.uk

Appendix 11: Consent form

CONSENT FORM

Study title: English language policy and practice in a Chinese high school from global Englishes perspective

Researcher name: Haibo Liu

Staff/Student number: 25568515

ERGO reference number: 6669

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

I have read and understood the information sheet (insert date /version no. of participant information sheet) 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 understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without my legal rights being affected

☐

Data Protection

I understand that information collected about me during my participation in this study will be stored on a password protected computer and that this information will only be used for the purpose of this study. All files containing any personal data will be made anonymous.

Name of participant (print name).....

Signature of participant.....

Date.....

Appendix 12: Ethics Checklist



Student Research Project Ethics Checklist Nov 2011

This checklist should be completed by the student (with the advice of their thesis/ dissertation supervisor) for all research projects.

Student name: Haibo Liu

Student ID: 25568515

Supervisor name: Will Baker / Jennifer Jenkins

Discipline: Modern Language

Programme of study: Global Englishes

Project title: English language policy and practice in a Chinese high school from global Englishes perspective

		YES	
NO			
1	Will your study involve human participants?	√	
2	Does the study involve children under 16?	√	
3	Does the study involve adults who are specially vulnerable and/or unable to give informed consent?(e.g. people with learning difficulties, adults with dementia)		√
4	Will the study require the cooperation of a third party/ an advocate for access to possible participants? (e.g. students at school, residents of nursing home)	√	
5	Does your research require collection and/ or storage of sensitive and/or personal data on any individual? (e.g. date of birth, criminal offences)		√
6	Could your research induce psychological stress or anxiety, or have negative consequences for participants, beyond the risks of everyday life?		√
7	Will it be necessary for participants to take part in the study without their knowledge and consent at the time? (e.g. covert observation of people)		√

8	Will the study involve discussion of sensitive topics? (e.g. sexual activity, drug use)		√
9	Will financial inducements (other than reasonable expenses or compensation of time) be offered to participants?		√
10	Are there any problems with participants' rights to remain anonymous, and/or ensuring that the information they provide is non-identifiable?		√
11	Will you have any difficulty communicating and assuring the right of participants to freely withdraw from the project at any time?		√
12	If you are working in a cross cultural setting, will you need to gain additional knowledge about the setting to work effectively? (e.g. gender roles, language use)		√
13	Are there potential risks to your own health and safety in conducting the study? (e.g. lone interviewing in other than public spaces)		√
14	Will the study involve recruitment of patients or staff through the NHS?		√
15	Does the research project involve working with human tissue, organs, bones etc that are less than 100 years old?		√

Please refer to the Research Project Ethics Guidance Notes for help in completing this checklist.

If you have answered NO to all of the above questions, discussed the form with your supervisor and had it signed and dated by both parties (see over), you may proceed with your research. A copy of the Checklist should be included in your eventual report/ dissertation/ thesis.

If you have answered YES to any of the questions, i.e. if your research involves human participants in any way, you will need to provide further information for consideration by the Humanities Ethics Committee and/or the university Research Governance Office. This information needs to be provided via the Electronic Research Governance Online (ERGO) system, available at www.ergo.soton.ac.uk.

CHOOSE ONE STATEMENT:

<input type="checkbox"/>	I have completed the Ethics Checklist and confirm that my research does not involve human participants (nor human tissues etc).
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> √	I have completed the Ethics Checklist and confirm that my research will involve human participants. I understand that this research needs to be reported and approved through the ERGO system, before the research commences.

Signature of student:HAIBO LIU.....

Date:16/06/2013.....

Signature of supervisor:Will Baker..... Date:16/06/2013.....

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