

A DISCOURSE APPROACH TO TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND TEXTBOOK USE: A
CASE STUDY OF A CHINESE COLLEGE EFL CLASSROOM

by

XIAODONG ZHANG

(Under the Direction of Ruth Harman)

ABSTRACT

Textbooks have long been considered a pivotal learning and teaching resource in classrooms. However, there is a paucity of research on how language teachers use textbooks in relation to their beliefs, with analytic methods in such studies mainly restrained to content-based thematic analysis. In other words, it is imperative to bridge these research gaps. To this end, from the perspectives of Halliday's (1994) systemic functional linguistics (SFL) and Vygostky's (1978) socio-cultural theory (SCT), this case study explores how a Chinese college English teacher acted upon his beliefs and used a textbook to mediate his students' English learning in his classroom.

Drawing on constructs of the SFL-based appraisal system and speech function as well as supplementary interviews, the study reveals that the Chinese college English teacher's beliefs and practices as discourses were constructed by linguistic resources and shaped by context, and that the teacher flexibly and selectively acted upon his beliefs in the process of mediating students' textbook knowledge. Implications of this study include using SFL and SCT to explore educators' beliefs and practices and also providing

effective teacher education for Chinese college English instructors to reshape their beliefs so that they are better prepared to use textbooks in classrooms.

INDEX WORDS: Systemic functional linguistics, Socio-cultural theory,
Teachers' beliefs, Teachers' textbook use, Discourse analysis

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DEDICATION

To my grandparents: one passed away right after I was born and the other passed away during my final year of study in the U.S.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Since China opened its doors to the world in the 1980s, the demand for English language users has been on the rise. As a result, English has become the privileged primary foreign language at the tertiary level of Chinese education. To guide the teaching of college English¹, the Chinese Ministry of Education issued English teaching standards and has been revising them since the 1980s. The latest version of national standards for college English teaching, the *College English Curriculum Requirements* (henceforth CECR), came out in 2007.

Different from previous standards, the latest CECR puts balanced emphasis on speaking, writing, listening, and reading. In particular, they state that the objective of college English teaching should be to focus on “enabling learners to communicate in future study, work, and social interactions” (Chinese Ministry of Education, 2007, p. 1) in the verbal mode (i.e., writing and reading) and the spoken mode (i.e., listening and speaking). That is, college English teaching at the tertiary level in China is expected to develop learners’ knowledge of language use in context, which includes teaching both the form and contextually embedded meanings of the English language (Halliday, 1978, 1994).

Echoing the CECR’s focus on students’ knowledge of language use in context, the latest College English Test² (henceforth CET) implemented by the Chinese Ministry

¹ College English in this study refers to English language courses for non-English major university students in China.

² CET is a national test designed to examine Chinese college English learners’ proficiency.

of Education also tests students' knowledge of English language use through listening, speaking, reading, writing, and translation. The CET consists of two leveled tests: the CET 4 (the low level) and CET 6 (the high level). Both tests contain a written and spoken component. The written component of the test includes writing, listening, reading, and translation. The spoken component involves assessment of test takers' speaking skills; however, this test is optional and only available to written test takers who have achieved a score of 500 or more out of 710 on the CET 4 test and 425 or more out of 710 on the CET 6. In particular, the written portion of the CET 4 in most Chinese universities is high stakes. That is, students who score less than 425 out of 710 on the CET 4 are not eligible to receive a bachelor's degree; students with a low score on the CET 4 also find it difficult to land a decent job (Adamson & Xia, 2011). Therefore, the high-stakes nature of the CET 4 test further encourages teachers to adequately develop their students' knowledge of language use in context, enabling them to pass the test.

The above mentioned curriculum implementation, along with test preparation in Chinese college English as a foreign language (henceforth EFL) programs, are enacted primarily through the use of textbooks (Liu, 2013; Huang & Xu, 1999). As Huang and Xu (1999) pointed out, Chinese English teaching favors textbook-based teaching. That is, textbooks are given a superior status in the English language classroom. Among several English language textbooks used in China's universities, Li and Wang's (2013) *College English-Integrated Course* has a long history in China and has been used by the majority of Chinese colleges and universities as a primary resource for teaching and learning in class (Dong, 1997; Fan, 2000). In addition to this widely used textbook, there are also several other textbooks (e.g., *New Horizon College English* and *New Standards*

College English) used by a minority of universities in China. Regardless of what language textbooks a university uses, all English language teaching textbooks tend to have similar content (Jakubiak & Harklau, 2010). Indeed, these language textbooks are generally characterized by units that feature reading texts and language exercises.

Given the similar content in language textbooks, what has become most important in college language classrooms is how teachers make use of the textbook content and develop their students' language knowledge (Donato & McCormic, 1994; Kon, 1993; Newton, 1990; Nunan, 1991). In addition, scholars (e.g., Sosniak, Ethington, & Varelas, 1991; Sosniak & Stodolky, 1993) also suggested that teachers' textbook use is influenced by their teaching beliefs, as teachers generally act upon their beliefs when teaching in class (Borg, 2006; Pajares, 1992; Zheng & Davidson, 2008). In other words, it is crucial to consider teachers' teaching practices and beliefs as two interrelated factors when investigating how Chinese college English teachers use textbooks in the classroom.

In sum, to investigate how Chinese college EFL teachers implement CECR and teach English with a textbook, it is imperative to focus on how these teachers' teaching beliefs and practices impact their presentation of English language resources from a textbook in an actual classroom.

Statement of the Problem

Most of the previous research on English language textbooks was conducted in two primary ways. The first way includes a focus on the potential impact of textbooks' linguistic and cultural content on students' learning through checklists or students' and teachers' responses. For example, one item as a checklist criterion or as a response question would be *does the textbook help students' communication?* (Guilloteaux, 2013;

Litz, 2005; Mashuhara & Tomlinson, 2013; see also Mukundan & Ahour, 2010 for a review). Through the checklist-based criteria or textbook users' responses, researchers, without doing an empirical investigation, can gain a rough impression of the potential impact of an English language textbook on learners' knowledge of language use (Tomlinson, 2003). In response to a lack of empirical investigations, the other main way is to observe teachers' textbook use in the classroom (Menkabu & Hardwood, 2014; Santos, 2008). However, according to Sosniak and Stodolky (1993), such studies still limit our view because they simply focus on "the instruction in relation to the textbook" (p. 253), ignoring the ways in which teachers' textbook use is influenced by their beliefs. In other words, Sosniak and Stodolky suggest that textbook study should be directed at connections between teachers' actual use of materials and their beliefs about their teaching activities. However, a paucity of research in the field of English language learning and teaching has explored the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their textbook use (Maggioni, Fox, & Alexander, 2015; Menkabu & Hardwood, 2014).

Most importantly, while there are similar studies in other fields (e.g., writing beliefs and practices, mathematics teachers' beliefs and practices), these studies suffer from methodological weaknesses in two aspects. One, teachers' beliefs were studied primarily through verbal elicitations (e.g., interview answers) and approached through qualitative content analysis (see Borg, 2006 for a review), which, according to scholars (e.g., Kalaja, 2003; Talja, 1997), ignores how specific linguistic resources participate in constructing teachers' verbalized beliefs (i.e., belief discourse³). Instead, they suggest using discourse analysis as an alternative to investigate how linguistic resources as social semiotics play a role in constructing teachers' verbalized beliefs. Second, there is a lack

³ Any coherent articulation (e.g., articulation of one's teaching beliefs) can be considered as discourse (Brow & Yule, 1983).

of “moment-by-moment” or detailed investigation of teachers’ practices (Li, 2013, p. 176) among studies on the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and practices. Indeed, most studies that explored teachers’ practices tended to use a content analysis of teachers’ practices (Borg, 2006), ignoring the detailed interaction between teachers and students in context. To construct a better picture of teachers’ practices in relation to their beliefs, Li (2013) adopted discourse analysis and proved its power in showing the detailed interactional pattern between the teacher and students in the classroom, which also allowed her to have a detailed investigation of the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and practices.

In sum, two problems regarding research on language teachers’ beliefs and their textbook use need to be addressed. One is that there is an imperative need for contributions to the literature in the field of language textbook use and teachers’ beliefs, given the scarcity of similar studies. The other problem lies with the previous analytic method on teachers’ beliefs and practices, which also points to the plausibility of using discourse analysis as an alternative to explore how language as a social semiotic resource constructs both teachers’ beliefs and practices on the use of English language textbooks.

Conceptual Framework

In response to the research gaps above, Halliday’s (1994) systemic functional linguistics (henceforth SFL) and Vygotsky’s (1978) sociocultural theory (henceforth SCT) inform the present study for four compelling reasons. First, SFL as a language learning theory provides a lens for investigating what linguistic resources teachers highlight in their textbook use to support their students’ contextual use of language (Gibbons, 2006; Halliday, 1978). Second, SCT, as a learning theory, is able to shed light

on how teachers mediate students' language knowledge through textbook use. Indeed, teaching through the textbook, similar to other methods of instruction, involves teachers talking to aid in their students' learning of language knowledge from the textbook (Gibbons, 2006; Kohler, 2015; Walker & Horsley, 2006). Third, SFL also argues from a socio-semiotic perspective that linguistic resources participate in constructing discourses in response to context (Achugar, 2009; Christie, 2002; Eggins & Slade, 1997; Zolkower & Shreyar, 2007). For example, the SFL-based speech function (i.e., how language speakers exchange information, services, and goods) can explain detailed classroom interactions from a discourse perspective. Similarly, since teaching beliefs are concerned with teachers' evaluative stances (Borg, 2001; Pajares, 1992), the SFL-based appraisal system, which highlights language users' evaluative stances, also explains how language as a socio-semiotic resource constructs teachers' verbalized beliefs as a discourse. Fourth, SFL emphasizes the link between contextual constraints, linguistic resources and discourses. This further makes SFL an optimal tool to explore teachers' beliefs and practices because the constructs of both teachers' beliefs and practices are contextually bound (Mansour, 2009). Hence, SCT and SFL are able to fill in the research gaps in the previous studies and provide a well-rounded conceptual framework to inform an in-depth investigation of teachers' beliefs and their textbook-based teaching practices.

Purpose of the Study

This study aims to contribute to the under-researched area of English language textbook use in relation to teachers' beliefs through a case study of a Chinese college English teacher's beliefs and his textbook use. It also aims to show the power of SCT and SFL as a conceptual framework for studying textbook use and teachers' beliefs.

To this end, the study explores the following two interrelated research questions:

1. How does the focal teacher exemplify his beliefs about EFL textbook?
 - a. How are the focal teacher's beliefs realized linguistically through his evaluative stances?
 - b. What are the contextual sources that shape the focal teacher's beliefs?
2. How does the focal teacher enact his textbook use in the classroom?
 - a. How does the focal teacher interact with his students and deliver language knowledge from the textbook?
 - b. What are the contextual factors that influence the focal teacher's textbook use?

Significance of the Study

This study is significant because of the following potential positive contributions to the field of textbook-based teaching. First, this study contributes to research on English language textbook use since the analysis of both teachers' beliefs and their instructional use of English language textbooks is largely overlooked. It is among only a few studies that attempt to examine English language teachers' textbook-based teaching in the classroom in relation to their beliefs (e.g., Allen, 2008; Kuzborska, 2011). Second, as was mentioned before, most previous studies on teachers' beliefs and practices using a content-based thematic analysis (see Borg, 2006) did not show how language as socio-semiotic resources constructs teachers' beliefs and their detailed instructional practices in the classroom (Li, 2013; Kalaja, 2003). This study, through an SCT and SFL-based conceptual framework, provides a detailed discourse analysis of teachers' beliefs and their practices. Third, the significance of examining English language textbook use is

particularly needed in the EFL context of China where many teachers start teaching without effective training or professional development opportunities (Cai, 2013; Zhou, 2008). By carrying out a case study of how a typical Chinese EFL teacher uses textbooks in relation to his beliefs, this study could help English instructors at the tertiary level reshape their beliefs and “notice areas of neglect and supplement or modify the instructional options presented so as to make EFL teaching more effective” (Summer, 2011, p. 89) and to better meet national curricular requirements. For example, it could aid teachers in reshaping their dogged belief in grammar-translation teaching and identifying potential gaps in their own teaching to enhance learners’ knowledge of language use, such as a needed focus on the teaching of generic patterns and genre-specific linguistic resources and meanings (Deng, Chen, & Zhang, 2014; Gebhard, Harman, & Seger, 2007).

Methodology

A qualitative case study was adopted to conduct this study. Indeed, this study does not aim at universal generalization. Instead, it mainly seeks to contribute to the literature on the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and their textbook-based teaching practices in the classroom, and also contributes to the literature on the conceptual framework that could be used in future similar studies. A qualitative case study, with its focus on gaining new knowledge in a particular context and showing the potential extension to future research in a similar context, is thus well suited for this study (Merriam, 1988; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2014).

Data Collection

An analysis of English language textbook use cannot be separated from teachers' teaching practices and beliefs, which means the study has to examine an actual classroom. The classroom I chose to observe is a college English classroom at a university in China, which includes the focal teacher, Tong (a pseudonym), and his students. The focal classroom was selected for several reasons. First, the instructor of the course, Tong, similar to many other tertiary English instructors in China, started teaching at a university upon graduation without any effective professional training. He thus relied on his beliefs to teach (Cheng & Sun, 2010; Zheng, 2009). As Yin (2014) contended, commonality is a good criterion for a case to be selected for research. It is because of this representative status that Tong's classroom was chosen for a case study. Second, the focal classroom mainly used the book *College English-Integrated Course*, which, as was previously mentioned, is also now used by the majority of Chinese universities to develop students' knowledge of language use. Therefore, a case study on how this textbook was used in the focal classroom will likely yield more pedagogical implications for other universities in China.

During the one and a half months I spent in the focal classroom, I observed 24 lessons of two units, wrote field notes, recorded classroom interactions (approximately twelve hours) and collected Tong's artifacts (e.g., his teaching notes). I also interviewed Tong (approximately four hours) and his twelve students (approximately fifteen minutes for each student).

Data Analysis

The first phase of data analysis seeks to answer research question one: in the context of China's latest national curriculum that centers on the development of English learners' knowledge of language use, what are the focal teacher's beliefs on English teaching and learning through textbook use? Informed by Calderhead's (1996) five content planes of teachers' beliefs (see Appendix B), interview questions were designed to elicit the focal teacher's beliefs. An SFL-based appraisal analysis was then conducted on the focal teacher's belief discourse, given that teachers' beliefs are about their evaluative stances. That is, through an identification of linguistic resources (e.g., lexical expressions) in the focal teacher's belief discourse, the study examined how linguistic resources exemplified his evaluative stances (i.e., his beliefs) toward textbook use. At the same time, since discourse from the perspective of SFL is a process of making meaning in context (Halliday, 1978), a thematic content analysis of supplementary interviews (e.g., the focal teacher's personal learning experiences and educational experiences) was conducted to provide contextual information for interpreting the focal teacher's belief discourse.

To answer the second research question—how does the focal teacher enact his textbook use in the classroom?—an SFL-based speech function analysis was conducted to investigate how the focal teacher mediated students' knowledge through the textbook. Specifically, the speech function of teacher-student talk was determined by an identification of the mood structure (i.e., the arrangement of subject and verbs/auxiliary

verbs) of each clause of teacher-student verbal interactions, along with paralinguistic features (e.g., speech function question was usually realized through subject-verb-object to question and a rising intonation) (Achugar, 2009; Eggins & Slade, 1997). The analysis was then linked to the first question to show the relationship between the focal teacher's beliefs about textbook use and how he actually used it. At the same time, since classroom discourse also involves meaning making in context (Christie, 2002; Halliday, 1978), a thematic content analysis of interviews from students and the focal teacher served to provide contextual explanations for how the focal teacher's teaching practices were constrained by context (e.g., students' level).

Overview of the Chapters

While Chapter 1 has provided an overview of the study, Chapter 2 explains the conceptual framework and justifies the applicability of SFL and SCT for research on language textbook use and teachers' beliefs. Chapter 3, on the other hand, presents a review of literature on textbook use and teachers' beliefs about textbook use, including but not limited to language textbooks. Chapter 4 provides an explanation of the context of culture related to this study regarding China's national curriculum requirements for college English, the college English test, college English teacher education and college English textbooks. Chapter 5 describes the methodology used in the study. Chapter 6 explores how the focal teacher's teaching beliefs about textbook use are manifested through his evaluative stances, and Chapter 7 investigates how the focal teacher uses speech functions to mediate students' language learning through textbook use. Finally, Chapter 8 summarizes the findings and discusses the implications of the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW ON THE TEXTBOOK, TEACHERS' PRACTICES AND BELIEFS

In this chapter, two main questions guide the exploration of the literature review: (1) Why is there a need to contribute to research on English language textbook use in relation to teachers' beliefs? and (2) Why is there a need for an alternative approach (i.e., discourse analysis) to investigate language teachers' beliefs and their textbook use. To this end, the first section focuses on the role of textbooks in the language classroom and illuminates the reasons for going beyond an analysis of textbook content to explore textbook use. The second section explores the literature on textbook use and also highlights the importance of including teachers' beliefs. Following section two, the third section discusses literature on the connection between teachers' beliefs and their use of textbooks. The last section is a summary.

The Role of Textbooks

Textbooks are generally used interchangeably with course books and materials. In the language teaching field, a textbook is defined as:

[that] which provides the core materials for a course. It aims to provide as much as possible in one book and is designed so that it could serve as the only book which the learners necessarily use during a course. Such a book usually includes work on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, functions and the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking. (Tomlinson, 1998, p. ix)

As seen from Tomlinson's definition, language textbooks are materials used for a course that provide language learning resources, which means they have an important status in language classrooms.

Indeed, language textbooks have long been considered central to English language learning and teaching. As Richards (2001) contended:

textbooks are a key component in most language programs. In some situations they serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom. They may provide the basis for the content of the lessons, the balance of skills taught and the kinds of language practice the students take part in. (p. 1)

In other words, textbooks are the main basis of language input for learners, apart from their teachers, and also serve as a source of lesson planning for teachers. As Hutchinson and Torres (1994) also pointed out, teaching and learning is never complete without relevant textbooks because of the crucial role they play in disseminating knowledge to language learners. In a more recent study, Diepenbroek and Derwing (2013) also argued that textbooks are the fundamental assistance for English teaching and learning, especially for new teachers "in terms of how to introduce a given concept, and new teachers may benefit from assistance with regard to the sequencing of material" (p. 2).

In the EFL context, the important role of the textbook has also been highlighted, as textbooks are almost the only language input for language learning given limited language output outside the classroom (Kim & Hall, 2002). As Wang and Farmer (2008) claimed, textbooks dictate the instructional content for EFL teachers, as teachers "emphasize detailed analysis of textbooks ... expect learners to learn whatever the

teachers and textbooks have to convey” (p. 2). Similarly, Richards (1998) pointed out that textbooks “represent the hidden curriculum” in the classroom and guide the in-class language teaching (p. 125).

In sum, textbooks serve as the major and predominant learning resource for language teachers and influence in-class teaching and learning (Ekin, 2013; Richards, 2001; Tomlinson, 2003).

Studies on the Content of ELT Textbooks

Because of the crucial role of English language teaching (henceforth ELT) textbooks, studies on textbook content emerged at least two decades ago (e.g. Shelton, 1988; Williams, 1983). Since then, there has been prolific research on ELT textbook content, most of which relies on the use of checklist-based criteria (Litz, 2005; McGrath, 2002; Tomlinson, 2003). For example, Williams (1983) used a rating scale on a checklist (i.e., 4. *to the greatest extent*; 3. *to a large extent*; 2. *to some extent*; 1. *just barely*; 0: *not at all*) and presented a textbook evaluation scheme that consisted of three categories: (1) General considerations, which included learners’ and teachers’ needs; (2) Language, which included speech, grammar, vocabulary, reading, and writing; and (3) Technical information, which covered content, authenticity of the language and writing style. Using a similar rating scale, Sheldon (1988) provided an evaluation checklist that consisted of two parts: factual details and factors. Factual details included information about the author, publisher, duration of the course, target learner, and teacher. Factors included information about availability, layout, accessibility, suitability, and authenticity. As illustrated by these studies, evaluators, by making reference to the criteria listed on a checklist, can only gain an impression of the potential value of an ELT textbook content

(Tomlinson, 2003). However, the value of a textbook is not inherently fixed; it is dynamic and reliant on teachers who deliver its content to students in class (Santos, 2008). This type of checklist-based research thus fails to show what happens to a textbook in a real classroom.

In a different way, researchers also studied the value of ELT textbook content by drawing on feedback from textbook users (e.g., teachers, students) through interviews and surveys (Lawrence, 2011; Litz, 2005; McDonough & Shaw, 1993; Tomlinson, 2003). For example, Litz (2005), by means of surveys, evaluated an EFL textbook used in an English course at a university in South Korea. By eliciting teachers' and students' actual reflections on the pedagogical value of the EFL textbook, Litz concluded that the long-term effect of the EFL textbook was compatible with the university's language learning aim of improving learners' communication skills. Litz also suggested that feedback-based evaluation enabled teachers to make up for the relative weakness of a textbook by supplementing, modifying, and adapting problematic aspects of the book. Similarly, Lawrence (2011) examined the suitability of a series of secondary level EFL textbooks to meet the demands of the local curriculum in Hong Kong. By eliciting teachers' responses, Lawrence concluded that the series of textbooks did fit with the local curriculum. He also pointed out that teachers' responses were a good source for judging the quality of a textbook. These studies relied on textbook users (i.e., students and teachers) to determine the value of the language textbook content, and yet they failed to provide a detailed picture of the impact teachers had on changing the value of a textbook through in-class instruction.

In sum, while the above two types of studies acknowledge the internal value of language textbooks as central teaching and learning resources, they fail to show the value of textbooks in the classroom through teachers' use of the given materials. In other words, these two types of studies lose sight of how, in the actual classroom, teachers affect the value of language textbook content.

Studies on Textbooks and Teachers' Use

Indeed, the value of ELT textbooks in a classroom cannot be determined by its content or by textbook users' post-use feedback only. As Santos (2008) noted, "the meanings of a textbook are always in flux and constantly negotiated, rejected, confirmed, shaped, legitimised, reinforced—in sum, re-constructed by individuals (typically, teachers and students) in interaction" (p. 150), which means the value of a textbook is shaped by the way in which teachers use it to interact with students (Donato & McCormic, 1994; Lambert, 1999; McElory, 1934; Nunan, 1991; Santos, 2008; Walker & Horsley, 2006).

Despite the attention that ELT textbook use has received in the language learning literature, the actual use of the language textbook is still an under-researched topic (Harwood, 2014; Santos, 2008; Tomlinson, 2003). However, much research has emerged on how non-ELT disciplinary teachers use textbooks to negotiate mainstream students' appropriation of meanings in social studies, science, and mathematics (e.g., Bagley, 1931; Hinchman, 1987; Walker & Horsley, 2006; Moulton, 1997; Sunderland, Cowley, Rahim, Leontzakou, & Shattuk, 2000; Sosniak & Stodolsky, 1993). Given that there is limited research on ELT textbook use, the following subsection discusses research on textbook use from several disciplines and justifies why there is a need for an investigation

of actual use of an ELT textbook and also why there is a need for discourse analysis as an alternative analytic method.

Cross-disciplinary Literature on Textbook Use

Indeed, a large body of literature has revealed the important role of teacher-student interaction in dynamically changing the internal value of the textbook, especially in fields of mathematics and social studies (e.g., Hinchman, 1987; Kon, 1993; Lambert, 1999; Nicol & Crespo, 2006). These studies, primarily through a thematic analysis of observations, revealed that teachers went beyond what was suggested in the textbook in the process of interacting with their students. These studies thus further argue against research that focuses on language textbooks themselves, and instead encourage research that explores the effect of teachers' textbook use on students' in-class learning.

A recent study in mathematics textbook use, by Nicol and Crespo (2006), for example, investigated the way in which four prospective teachers used mathematics textbooks in a Canadian university. Through participants' coursework, audio-taped interviews, and classroom observations, the researchers found that these four prospective teachers differed in terms of mathematics textbook use in regards to elaboration and creation. Nicol and Crespo also noted differences in external factors, such as classroom setting and access to resources, both of which have an effect on teachers' interpretations and use of the texts as well. This study therefore suggests the importance of including teacher-student interaction in investigations of the value of textbooks. More importantly, this study suggests that an investigation of teachers' textbook use cannot be detached from any external context.

While not as widely known as the other disciplines mentioned above (e.g., mathematics, social science), research on ELT textbook use has gained gradual attention (e.g., Bonkowski, 1995; Forman, 2014; Santos, 2008; Sunderland, 2000; Sunderland, et al., 2000). For example, Bonkowski's (1995) study included an investigation of English as a second language (henceforth ESL) teachers' use of elementary ESL textbooks in two Francophone public schools in Quebec. By conducting interviews with three ESL teachers and observing their classes, he found that the three instructors were different in terms of interpretation of textbook materials despite showing a similar pattern in their efforts to be consistent with the textbook writers' suggestions.

As seen above, solely relying on checklists or textbooks' users to evaluate the pedagogical value of a textbook is not enough. It is thus imperative to bridge the content of a textbook with teachers' practices because the value of a textbook is dependent on teacher-student interactions. In addition, these studies also suggest that research on how teachers use textbooks cannot be separated from socio-cultural context because their teaching practices are constrained by contextual factors (e.g., Nicol & Crespo, 2006).

Despite the crucial findings on the importance of teachers' actual instruction and relationship with the textbook, scant research conducted in the ELT field points to the importance of adding to the literature, particularly in contexts where English language teaching is textbook-driven and teacher-centered (e.g., China). More importantly, most of these studies used a similar method (i.e., content analysis of observations and interviews) in both non-ELT and ELT disciplines. Using just observation, however, researchers can miss the detailed interactions between teachers and students when using the textbook, or what Li (2013) has called "moment-to-moment" interactions (p. 176).

This means an alternative analysis should be applied to show such detailed interactions in the textbook-based classroom and also attends to the contextual influences on textbook use as revealed by the above studies.

Discourse analysis, with its focus on both detailed interactions and contextual influences, is optimal for research on textbook use. Indeed, the power of discourse analysis has already been exemplified in a few studies on textbook use, even though these studies could have also provided contextual explanations for teachers' textbook-based teaching practices. Sunderland et al. (2000), for example, conducted a discourse analysis on EFL lesson transcripts and found that textbook content is not the only factor in how textbook knowledge/meaning gets transmitted; it is how teachers mediate the content that is important and shows the textbook's impact on learners. The study thus suggests the practical application of discourse analysis in future research on ELT textbook use for its power in revealing the detailed interactional pattern between students and teachers in the process of using textbooks. Similarly, Santos (2008), also from a discourse perspective, investigated EFL textbook use in an elementary school in Brazil. By examining teacher-student interactions regarding textbook use, Santos concluded that the meanings within a textbook are not statically embedded; rather, the meanings in a textbook are dynamically constructed between participants (i.e., teachers and students) in the process of interaction. This study, echoing Sunderland et al. (2000), also implicates using discourse analysis to explore the interaction between teachers and students in the process of textbook use. Hence, these two studies clearly showed that discourse analysis is an alternative analytic method by demonstrating the complexity of interactions in a textbook-based teaching context.

The above literature reflects research on textbook use in the classroom across a variety of disciplines such as social studies, mathematics, and ELT courses. These studies concluded that teachers' textbook use is a vital factor that can change the value of a textbook, which is also constrained by context. In other words, these studies implicate the significance of doing textbook research by focusing on how they are actually used at an instructional site, such as in the context of China's EFL tertiary classroom where no such research has been conducted. In addition, few scholars among them (except for Santos, 2008; Sunderland et al., 2000) have explored teacher-student talk in the process of textbook use in a detailed way. The paucity of this literature thus points to an opportunity for experimentation with adopting discourse analysis as an alternative analytic approach.

Additionally, as various researchers have noted (e.g., Cha'vez-Lo'pez, 2003; Kagan, 1992; Sosniak & Stodolsky, 1993), to better understand language teachers' practices in using textbooks, it is also imperative to explore their beliefs about textbook use in that there is a close connection between teachers' belief systems and their practices. Indeed, while there is literature reporting that teachers do not comply with their beliefs (e.g., Lee, 2009), more research has reported on how teachers' beliefs influence their behaviors in the classroom (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2006; Freeman & Porter, 1989; Freeman, 1992; Johnson, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Yang & Gao, 2013). As Clark and Peterson (1986) in particular noted, teachers' beliefs are like a cognitive filter in that they guide them in interpreting and implementing classroom practices. Similarly, Pajares (1992) contended that beliefs are pivotal in facilitating teachers' cognitive interpretation of teaching tasks and thus how they are implemented. This means that

there is a need to look into teachers' beliefs while doing research on classroom practices, including textbook use.

Studies on Teachers' Beliefs and Textbook-based Instruction

Indeed, many scholars have focused their attention on the close interconnectivity between teachers' beliefs and textbook use. In fact, the earliest literature that touches on textbook use and teachers' beliefs can be dated back to at least 22 years ago (e.g., Moulton, 1997; Sosniak & Stodolsky, 1993). This research has also occurred across different disciplinary subjects such as mathematics (e.g., Chávez-López, 2003; Freeman & Porter, 1989; Remillard, 1996, 2000), social studies (e.g., Hedrick, Harmon, & Linerode, 2004; Sosniak & Stodolsky, 1993) and English language teaching (Menkabu & Hardwood, 2014; Sosniak & Stodolsky, 1993). Despite the boom of scholarship on teachers' beliefs and textbook use, this important and interesting research area mostly clusters in the field of mathematics and social studies, which means there is still limited research on EFL/ESL language textbooks and teachers' beliefs. For this reason, the following subsection, similar to the previous one that discusses literature on textbook use, includes studies on teachers' beliefs in relation to cross-disciplinary courses and the methodology being used.

Cross-disciplinary Literature on Teachers' Beliefs and Textbook Use

Mathematics and social studies are two areas that have prolific studies on teachers' beliefs and textbook use (e.g., Chávez-López, 2003; Cornett, 1990; Hartzler-Miller, 2001; Handal & Hereington, 2003; Stipek, Givvin, Salmon, & MacGyvers, 2001). For example, Chávez-López (2003) reported on mathematics teachers' beliefs and their use of textbooks by means of surveys, interviews, and classroom observations of 53

mathematics teachers at 11 middle schools in the U.S. The study found that teachers' personal beliefs about the subject matter and how to teach it shaped their use of the textbook. For example, in the three teacher-based case studies, two of the teachers had positive beliefs about the role of textbooks and were actively engaged in using the textbook to mediate students' understanding of mathematics concepts as well as adapting and selecting appropriate textbook content for instruction. The other teacher did not believe in the importance of the district-adopted textbook and exemplified his passive role in using the textbook, only bringing it in for certain class topics as opposed to using it to guide the entire course. In other words, this study suggests that it is crucial to include teachers' beliefs in investigating textbook use because teachers generally act upon their beliefs in the process of instruction.

To date, few researchers have explored the interconnection between teachers' beliefs and English language textbook use (e.g., Allen, 2008; Kuzborska, 2011; Lee & Bathmake, 2007; Menkabu & Hardwood, 2014). For example, Lee and Bathmaker (2007) investigated 23 English language teachers' beliefs about textbook use in an upper secondary vocational school in Singapore. By means of a semi-structured questionnaire, the study showed that teachers taught a variety of language skills using the textbooks such as vocabulary, reading comprehension, and functional writing. It also showed that they used their own supplementary materials (e.g., past examination papers) since the textbooks they were using were not tailored to their in-class tests. Furthermore, it was found that the teachers believed it was more important to prepare pupils for their examinations by improving their English-test-taking abilities. The study concluded that teachers' beliefs, which are shaped by various social and cultural factors, are also

reflected in their teaching practices. It therefore suggests the importance of considering how sociocultural context shapes teachers' beliefs.

Allen (2008), for example, conducted a case study on foreign language teachers' beliefs and textbook use in an American college, with an added focus on context. By administering interviews and questionnaires to twelve teaching assistants on Italian and French courses to elicit their beliefs and their actual practices in relation to the textbook materials, Allen (2008) found that the teachers' beliefs about the important role of textbooks as learning resources were reflected in their teaching practices when presenting new materials and organizing class activities. However, the study found that these language teachers differed in nuanced ways of using textbooks because of their different language backgrounds. That is, non-native foreign language teachers highlighted using textbooks as the primary source for cultural material while native speakers considered themselves experts on this matter. The study thus further suggests the importance of doing research on teachers' beliefs and textbook use and taking into account language teachers' socio-cultural settings (e.g., past learning experiences) that might shape their beliefs.

Kuzborska (2011) also explored the belief system of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) teachers on using reading textbooks to teach reading to first-year undergraduates in a state university in Lithuania. Through a qualitative case study of eight teachers' classrooms that included observation, video stimulated recall, and documented data analysis, the study revealed that college teachers' beliefs were congruent with their practices which emphasized vocabulary, reading aloud, translation, and whole-class discussion of texts. Based on the findings, suggestions included teacher

educators taking into account teachers' belief systems and helping teachers reflect on their beliefs to look for alternative teaching approaches that could benefit students' reading when using the textbook (e.g., focus on the meaning of a text within the textbook). In other words, this study suggests that teachers as reflective practitioners could reshape their beliefs and better their textbook-based practices.

The above studies have pointed out how beliefs have been shaped by sociocultural factors and how these beliefs impact teachers' practices. In other words, an exploration of teachers' instructional use of textbooks cannot be separated from their beliefs which are themselves contextually shaped.

However, these studies on teachers' textbook beliefs are problematic because they relied on a thematic identification of questionnaires and interviews and failed to show in detail how language as a social-semiotic resource constructs teachers' verbalized beliefs, which points to discourse analysis as an alternative analytic method (Kalaja, 2003; Talja, 1997). Kalaja (2003), for example, adopted discourse analysis to examine language users' beliefs about an English test and vigorously explored the detailed linguistic resources used in constructing their belief discourse while investigating the contextual constraints that led to their different beliefs. Therefore, it is optimal to use discourse analysis as an alternative method to thoroughly analyze teachers' belief discourse while highlighting a socio-cultural explanation (Brown & Yule, 1983; Mansour, 2009).

Summary

This chapter shows that there are still few studies on how language teachers use textbooks and how their teaching practices connect to their beliefs. Most importantly, the previous studies mostly relied on content analysis to reveal teachers' practices and their

verbalized beliefs, which is problematic because such approach fails to provide in-depth linguistic analysis. Hence, this chapter justifies a discourse approach to language teachers' teaching practices and beliefs in a textbook-centered classroom for the purpose of making contributions to (a) scarce literature on the topic and (b) limited analytic methods as it pertains to analyzing teachers' practices and beliefs.

CHAPTER 3

**A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR UNDERSTANDING LANGUAGE
TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND THEIR TEXTBOOK-BASED TEACHING
PRACTICES**

Chapter 3 includes four sections that show and justify the conceptual framework of the study. The first section demonstrates how SFL and SCT as language and learning theories inform this exploration of a textbook-based language learning classroom. The second section discusses how the SFL-based speech function provides a discourse perspective on teachers' textbook use while the third section shows how the SFL-based appraisal system from a discourse perspective illuminates teachers' beliefs. The last section is a summary of this chapter.

Learning to Use Language: A Systemic Functional Perspective

Many scholars have highlighted the importance of developing language learners' contextual use of language (e.g., Bachman & Palmer, 1982; Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972; Savignon, 1983, 2002; see also Laughlin, Wain, & Schmidgall, 2015 for a review). Many countries that offer English as a foreign or second language have been following this trend to meet the challenges of this globalized world. For example, to counteract its overemphasis on language form in English language teaching, China has been pushing its attention toward cultivating EFL learners that can flexibly use language in different settings. The emphasis on fostering students' knowledge of language use in context is also reflected in China's latest College English Curriculum Standards (Chinese

Ministry of Education, 2007), which underscore the demands on college English teachers in training such language users to facilitate China's emergence in this globalized economic world.

Systemic functional linguist M.A.K Halliday and his followers (e.g., Butler, 1985; Byrnes, 2009; Fang & Schleppegrel, 2008; Martin, 1992) illuminate from a socio-semiotic perspective that learners' contextual use of language is a process of awareness development on meaning making through choosing contextually appropriate lexico-grammatical resources (i.e., words and grammar). Specifically, based on the longitudinal study of his son Nigel's acquisition of English from birth until puberty as well as Malinowski's (1923, 1935) and Firth's (1957) concept of context, Halliday's (1978, 1994) semiotic approach to language learning in SFL explains how language users produce discourse/text in relation to context for the purpose of communication.

Indeed, the role of context in Halliday's language learning theory is an essential hallmark for distinguishing it from Chomsky's (1957, 1965, 1986) form-centered language theory. As Halliday (1978) noted, "the context plays a part in determining what we say; and what we say plays a part in determining the context" (p. 3). In other words, Halliday emphasized the bidirectional relationship between context and language use, and used the constructs of context of situation and context of culture to explain their relationship to language use. The relationship between context and language use is explained in what follows in terms of how it connects to an investigation of textbook-based language learning in an EFL classroom.

Language Use as a Meaning Making Process

One component of the SFL-based language theory that is highly important for this current study is that learning language is a process of learning how to make semantic meanings in relation to the context of situation and context of culture (Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Specifically, as a semantic instantiation of the context of situation, the immediate environment of language use, Halliday (1978, 1994) used the concept of register to explain how the following three register variables realize the context of situation and shape language use: (1) *Field*. Field is concerned with the social activity or what is going on; (2) *Tenor*. Tenor is related to the social relationship between language users; and (3) *Mode*. Mode refers to the channel of transmission of information (e.g., spoken, written).

Respectively, these three register variables are realized linguistically through three interrelated dimensions known as the metafunctions: 1) Ideational function, the linguistic repertoire afforded to language users to construct experiences and logical semantic relationships; 2) Interpersonal function, the linguistic repertoire afforded to language users to create/maintain social relationships; and 3) Textual function, the linguistic repertoire afforded to language users to organize information in texts. For instance, in a context where one student on campus asks me about my occupation, the field is the discourse content, that is, one stranger's curiosity about my job. The tenor is the interpersonal relationship between me and the stranger on campus and the mode is spoken since we are communicating face-to-face. It is these three variables that

constituted the context of situation and influenced my language realization *I am a linguist* instead of *Dear Sir, I work as a linguistic researcher* in response to the stranger’s inquiry.

One level up from the context of situation is the context of culture, which gives “purpose and meaning” to the context of situation (Eggins, 2004, p. 30; see also Figure 1).

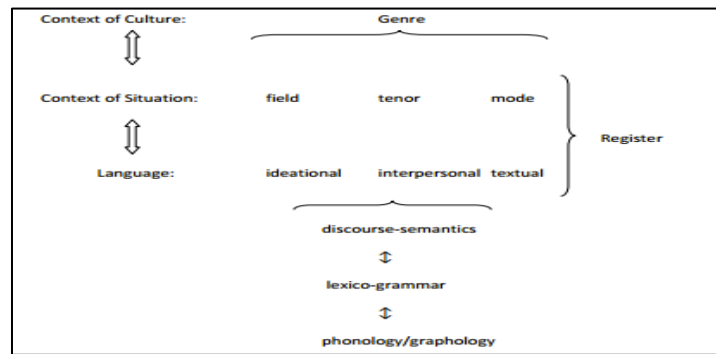


Figure 1. *Context, meaning and linguistic realization* (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010, p. 33).

As shown in Figure 1, in a manner somewhat distinct from Halliday’s preliminary conceptualization of context of culture, James Martin and his colleagues in Sydney found it more efficient for educational contexts to conceptualize this movement within a text as a stage oriented process. That is, the context of culture is realized by recurrent configurations of situational meanings to achieve different social purposes or genres (Rose & Martin, 2012). In other words, the three strands of meaning in a context of situation are organized into different stages to achieve different social purposes as genres in response to the context of culture.

Numerous genres have been identified by the Sydney school, such as recounts, narratives, procedures, reports, explanations and exposition. For example, if someone on campus asks about my job, the field, tenor, and mode, realized through lexico-

grammatical resources, are woven together at the level of genre in the asking of such information—an everyday informational genre that we use to chat with acquaintances (Eggins, 2004; Rose & Martin, 2012). In other words, in a classroom that is textbook-based, language teachers should also move beyond the context of situation and support learners in handling linguistic meanings in a culturally appropriate pattern to help them achieve a special social purpose (e.g., how to organize meanings in a way to persuade readers) (Figueiredo, 2010).

The Lexico-grammatical Realization of Meaning Making

Another component of the SFL-based learning theory related to textbook-based language learning is that the three meanings/functions that are shaped by the context (i.e., context of culture and context of situation) involve making lexico-grammatical choices from different systems at the same time. Halliday claims that all of the linguistics resources are in a system, which is defined as “a set of options with an entry condition: that is to say, a set of things of which one must be chosen” (Halliday, 1976, p. 3) or “paradigmatic ordering in language” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 22). In other words, the lexico-grammatical choices are first made from different systems that are then mapped in a syntagmatic order (i.e., structural order) to form clauses and a discourse.

In SFL, there are three main systems. First is *transitivity*, a system for realizing language content or ideational meaning. This system includes *process* (e.g., what event/state is being described), *participants* (e.g., entities involved in the process), and *circumstances* (e.g., additional information about the process). Second is *mood*, a system for negotiating relationships between language users; it includes *subject* (e.g., what a proposition is about), *finite* (e.g., anchoring point of a proposition), *polarity* (e.g., positive

or negative), *predicator* (e.g., verbal element), *complement* (e.g., the element that has the potential to be a subject) and *adjunct* (e.g., additional information to the interpersonal meaning). The third system features *theme sequencing* (i.e., the departing point of a clause that links it with other subsequent clauses) and *cohesion* (i.e., the organization of information flow beyond a clause) (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).

When using language, it is a process of simultaneously making choices from these different systems for communication. In the same situation of context where I was asked about my job, I made the lexico-grammatical choices *I, am, a, linguist* from the systems of transitivity (i.e., relational process) and mood (i.e., declarative system, polarity system), which are enabled by theme (i.e., *I*) and rheme (i.e., *am a linguist*). The utterance simultaneously conveys the ideational function, interpersonal function, and textual function. As the response is only one clause, there is no cohesion in terms of the textual meaning. But if my response is *I am a linguist, and I am also a musician*, my meaning making regarding the textual meaning involves cohesion, that is, I used the grammatical word *and* to create the information flow, and I also repeated the lexical word *I* to create the information flow.

Indeed, as shown by above, discourse is “the product of ongoing selection in a very large network of systems... a language is a resource for making meaning, and meaning resides in systemic pattern of choice” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 23). In other words, by emphasizing the systemic feature, SFL further highlights the importance of teaching how lexico-grammatical resources interact with these three systems and realize meanings in appropriate contexts.

Both ESL and EFL language learning studies have reported the power of SFL as a learning theory because of its emphasis on the triadic relationship of context, language meaning and lexico-grammatical resources. For example, Swami (2008) reported that EFL students' improvement of academic writing in the Philippines was a result of genre-based teaching and learning. Specifically, Swami's findings revealed in the post test that EFL students showed improvement in terms of textual organization and language features (e.g. verb tense, voice), in comparison to those in pre-test. Schleppegrell (2003) demonstrated English learners improved their understanding of language use in the science register such as the use of technical terms, when apprenticed into making context-specific linguistic choices. Similarly, Gibbons (2006) demonstrated the efficiency of developing English learners' academic literacy by apprenticing them into making appropriate linguistic choices in the context of situation (i.e., academic discourse). In an earlier study, Gibbons (2002) also demonstrated the power of apprenticing students into understanding the three meta-functions to facilitate English learners' writing, reading, listening and speaking skills by using the variables field, tenor, and mode. These studies suggest that the use of systemic functional linguistics does help English language learners develop knowledge on how language realizes discourse by drawing on the constructs of genre, register, the three meta-functions, and their lexico-grammatical realization.

As shown above, learning to use language from the perspective of SFL is learning how to make meaning in response to a context for language output (e.g., writing, speaking) and learning how to deconstruct meaning making for language input (e.g., listening, reading) (Gibbons, 2006; Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Rose & Martin, 2012). SFL thus demonstrates itself as a powerful language theory that can

inform language education settings, such as a textbook-based EFL classroom in that it connects the importance of learners' sensitivity to lexico-grammatical resources, meaning making and context, and prepares them for using language appropriately (Figueiredo, 2010).

Learning Language Use in a Textbook-based Classroom

Indeed, a textbook-based language classroom is no different from other language classrooms except that foreign language teachers often rely on the textbook as the authoritative resource for teaching language input and output. The reliance on textbooks, from the perspective of SFL, means teachers should foster students' awareness of how to understand the lexico-grammatical resources in the textbook to achieve or deconstruct different meanings in different contexts (Fang & Schleppegrell, 2008). As Matthiessen (2006) pointed out, "In learning a foreign language, a learner is also learning through the language... (p. 33). In particular, Matthiessen connected the relationship between learning through language and learning through texts and emphasized that "as learners become more advanced, such texts can move closer to where they are at in their general learning/professional experiences ..." (p. 34). That is, when learning through textbooks, what teachers need to do is sensitize students to the linguistic resources in a text and gradually guide them in learning more advanced resources to meet different purposes and use language on different occasions—the core requirement of China's College English Curriculum Standards (2007). This points to students' reliance on teachers' talk to show the link between language form and meaning in a textbook-based classroom.

In sum, given that language learning in a textbook-based language classroom is ultimately about learning how to use language in social interactions, an SFL language

learning perspective indicates well that learners should develop language proficiency through their awareness of the interrelationship among words, grammar, meaning, and context, rather than through merely learning words and grammar in decontextualized ways.

SCT as a Learning Theory to Understand Textbook Use

Despite its allusion to the role of dialogical activity in developing students' language learning (e.g., Halliday, 1978), SFL, as a learning theory, still almost exclusively puts emphasis on language as a meaning-making process in response to context (Byrnes, 2006; Wells, 1994). As Byrnes (2006) highlights, Vygotsky's theory complements SFL's emphasis on language and cultural knowledge learning by showing:

how this knowledge arises out of collaborative practical and intellectual activities and, in turn, mediates the actions and operations by means of which these activities are carried out, in the light of the conditions and exigencies that obtain in particular situations. Furthermore, such a theory should explain how change, both individual development and social and cultural change, occurs through the individual's linguistically mediated internalization and subsequent externalization of the goals and processes of action and interaction in the course of these activities. (p. 84)

In other words, an optimal conceptual frame for language learning should be characterized by a balanced emphasis on language use as a meaning-making process and teachers' mediating role in facilitating learners' internalization of language use.

Indeed, in a more detailed elaboration than SFL's view that interaction is the plane where learning and teaching occurs, Vygotsky and his colleagues in Russia in the

1920s and 1930s proposed sociocultural theory as a way to explain learning and development in sociocultural context. The principle tenet of this theory claims that learning, as other social activities, is a process of social interaction between experienced learners (e.g., teachers) and novice learners.

Vygotsky (1978) pointed out that “human learning presupposes a specific social nature and a process by which children grow into the intellectual life of those around them” (p. 88). In addition, he asserted two levels of learning, first on the social plane and later on the psychological level. In such a process, experienced learners use tools (e.g., talk) to mediate novice learners in appropriating knowledge with the ultimate goal of having novice learners accomplish a task independently without assistance, which means they have internalized that knowledge (Vygotsky, 1987, 1997). In other words, instead of aligning with autonomous learning on the part of learners themselves (e.g., Chomsky, 1986), Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory highlights a way of understanding learning on the interpersonal dimension: learning arises from interaction between experienced learners and novice learners.

To further clarify sociocultural theory and its relevance to a study of a textbook-based language classroom, the following sections expand on the central constructs from Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory: mediation and zone of proximal development to better inform a study on textbook use in a language classroom.

Mediation through Cultural Tools

While emphasizing the important role of interaction in facilitating the learning of students, a Vygostkyian view on learning argues that such interaction between experienced learners and novice learners is indirect and mediated by means of language

and other symbol systems (Gibbons, 2006; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). That is, in the process of physical interactions between people that might bring about learning and cognitive development, tools (e.g., language or physical tools) are crucial for learners to make meaning. As Wertsch (2007) argued:

A hallmark of human consciousness is that it is associated with the use of tools, especially “psychological tools” or “signs.” Instead of acting in a direct, unmediated way in the social and physical world, our contact with the world is indirect or mediated by signs. This means that understanding the emergence and the definition of higher mental processes must be grounded in the notion of mediation. (p. 178)

In other words, learning is not internalized directly, but rather, through the use of tools, teachers mediate and transform learners’ mental functioning. These tools include “language; various systems of counting; mnemonic techniques; algebraic symbol systems; works of art; writing; schemes, diagrams, maps and mechanical drawings; all sorts of conventional signs and so on” (Vygotsky, 1981, p. 137).

Among these cultural tools, scholars (e.g., Gibbons, 2002, 2006; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006) pointed out that language is the most powerful mediating tool of all, given its accessibility for use in the process of social interaction and its role in learners’ inner speech. Gibbons (2006) noted, “language functions not only as a mediator of social activities by enabling participants to plan, coordinate, and review their actions, but also as the tool that mediates the related mental activities in the internal discourses of inner speech” (p. 25). Similarly, Santos (2008) also claimed that “the meanings of a textbook are always in flux and constantly negotiated, rejected, confirmed, shaped, legitimised,

reinforced – in sum, re-constructed by individuals (typically, teachers and students) in interaction” (p. 151). This means that in a textbook-based classroom, a teacher’s interaction with his/her students or talk is crucial for their learning of linguistic knowledge from the textbook.

The role of language as a key mediating tool in a language classroom is illustrated in many studies. For example, Gibbons (2006) showed a teacher’s semiotic mediation of students’ understanding of lexical words in the scientific register. In order to describe the difference between words in a daily conversation and an academic register, Gibbons illustrated how the teacher primarily relied on talk to support students’ understanding of the contextual use of scientific words in addition to visual materials. Indeed, as Wells (2007) claimed:

there is no doubt that it is ‘signs,’ and particularly linguistic signs, that play the principal role in mediating the emergence of consciousness and the construction of knowledge on the part of individuals during the course of their ontogenetic development (p. 246).

Such a view on the role of language as a mediating tool is also echoed by Walker and Hosley (2006) who claimed that sociocultural theory provides a useful perspective for textbook researchers to “analyze classroom based observations and mediated use of teaching and learning resources and artifacts” (p. 51). In other words, the construct of mediation can inform an in-depth investigation of dialogical activity between teachers and students and reveal in an added dimension the way that teachers use language to bring about students’ learning in a textbook-based classroom (Donato & McCormic, 1994).

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

The ultimate purpose of mediated learning according to Vygotsky is learners' internalization (i.e., appropriation and reconstruction) of experienced learners' knowledge. To ensure internalization occurs, there are important boundaries for the mediated activities (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Vygotsky, 1987), called the zone of proximal development (henceforth ZPD), that is, the distance between what learners can do on their own and what they can do in collaboration with a more competent other).

In particular, the term "scaffolding" has been coined to describe such assistance within learners' ZPD (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). In the classroom, scaffolding is temporary and indispensable assistance that supports novice learners' appropriation of new skills, concepts, or levels of understanding, including language appropriation (Gibbons, 2002, 2006). Indeed, by positioning students' learning in the context of social interaction where teachers use mediation, the purpose of education is to apprentice students into independently problem-solving (e.g., use of language) and extending their ZPD. In the process of mediation, teachers must always keep in mind students' current skill and prepare them to reach "beyond what they are able to achieve alone, to enter into new situations, to participate in new tasks, to learn new skills" (Gibbons, 2006, p. 26). Therefore, the construct of ZPD, as the optimal site of mediation, provides an additional focus on teachers' facilitation of their students' language development and learning in a textbook-based classroom.

Indeed, researchers have paid much attention to language learners' ZPD (e.g., Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Atkinson, 2002; Lei, 2008). In Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) research, they studied the development of three ESL students' writing. The study showed that through tutors' proper adjustment of mediation forms within the learners' ZPD, learners were moving from other-regulated learning to self-regulated learning, which means the learners internalized the tutors' writing instructions. The study concluded that language learning involves mediation from other individuals who provide assistance constantly within learners' ZPD. Similarly, Anton (1999) investigated learner-centered and teacher-centered discourse in second language classrooms of Italian and French. Anton's study showed that learner-centered discourse created opportunities to scaffold students' learning within their ZPD. In contrast, Anton also displayed that teacher-centered discourse provided rare opportunities for negotiation. Anton concluded that by looking at teacher-learner interaction from a sociocultural perspective, educators could improve their understanding of the functions of the communicative moves used by teachers and provide learners with effective scaffolding assistance within learners' ZPD during the negotiation process. These examples illustrate that the construct of ZPD enables one to investigate the ways in which teachers support students' appropriation of language. This also suggests that using an SCT approach to examine language textbook use in a classroom would provide a global view of teachers' teaching practices in textbook-based language learning classrooms.

As seen above, Vygostkyian theory supports SFL as language learning theory in several aspects. First, it claims and emphasizes the social origin of language learning along with learners' cognitive ability. Second, it also complements SFL in that

Vygotskyian SCT particularly brings to the fore semiotic mediation in the process of language learning, thus showing the nuanced dimension of the role of mediation in the process of learning and ZPD as the desirable site for such mediation. Therefore, in a textbook-based EFL language classroom, the constructs of sociocultural theory (i.e., mediation and ZPD) are able to provide a useful lens for highlighting the way that teachers use cultural tools (e.g., their language) to inquire into the language use of textbooks and guide them with the internalization of language knowledge.

SFL's Discourse Perspective on Teachers' Talk-based Mediation

In spite of SCT's elaboration on teachers' role in the process of students' learning, Hason (1992, 2002, 2005) pointed out many gaps in Vygotsky's theory that need to be filled when doing educational research (see also Byrnes, 2006). Among them is Vygotsky's downplay of linguistic realization of the interaction between teachers and students in the process of mediation. In response to this concern, Halliday's SFL is well-suited for filling in this gap because of its focus on explaining the linguistic realization of interpersonal interaction (Byrnes, 2009; Wells, 1994, 2007; Zolkower & Shreyar, 2007).

SFL's complementary role lies in its interpersonal component—the speech function. The speech function, as one discourse semantic construct, is located at the level of the interpersonal meaning. It is concerned with how language users (e.g., teacher and students) negotiate information, goods, or services. As a part of the interpersonal meaning, the speech function with its linguistic realization (i.e., mood system) is influenced by the register variable tenor—the social relationship between language users at the level of the context of situation. Additionally, the context of culture as a manifestation of a larger community provides all of the potential meanings one can make

in a larger community, which is filtered through and realized by the context of situation (Christie, 2002; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). In other words, the construct of speech function at the discourse semantic level is realized through lexico-grammatical choices in response to both context of situation and context of culture. Because of its trinocular link among discourse, linguistic realization, and context, the construct of speech function thus provides an optimal lens for investigating teachers' mediation in a classroom (e.g., a textbook-based classroom). Indeed, as researchers (e.g., Fang, 1996; Mansour, 2009) claimed, when investigating teachers' practices in relation to their beliefs, it is always helpful to highlight their teaching in a context in which teachers' practices could not be void of influence from contextual constraints. In other words, the speech function at the interpersonal level of SFL is able to provide an in-depth linguistic investigation of textbook-based teaching practices by focusing on the speech function and its linguistic realization in context.

In particular, the linguistic realization of how teachers and students interact through speech functions primarily lies in their choice of *mood types* in the mood system to express speech functions in the process of interaction (Halliday, 1994; Eggins & Slade, 1997). The mood types are (1) *Indicative*, which can be subdivided into *declarative* (e.g., clauses with subject-verb order) and *interrogative* (e.g., clauses in which the auxiliary verb comes before the subject), and (2) *Imperative* (i.e., clauses with no subject) (Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 1994). Typically, each mood type has its typical or congruent lexico-grammatical realization in the process of our social interaction (see Table 3.1 below).

Table 3.1 <i>Speech Functions and Typical Linguistic Realization</i>		
Initiating speech functions:	Responding speech functions	
	Supporting	Confronting
Offer: Shall I write it on the board?	Acceptance: Yes.	Rejection: No thanks.
Command: Tell me the meaning of the word!	Compliance: Sure, no problem.	Refusal: I won't.
Statement: He likes English.	Acknowledgement: Yes. (He does).	Contradiction: He does not.
Question: What is the lexical category of the word massive?	Answer: Noun.	Disclaimer: I do not know.

As shown in Table 3.1, in terms of initiating speech functions, declaratives realize statements, interrogatives realize questions, imperatives realize commands, and modulated interrogatives (interrogative structure with modal verbs) realize offers. Regarding responding speech functions, their linguistic realizations are typically characterized by elliptical positive or negative declaratives or minor clauses that have no subject and predicate. As also Table 3.1 illustrates above, acknowledgment can be achieved through *yes*, *he does* or just *yes*. In addition, Eggins (2004) also pointed out that supporting speech functions could also be realized in a non-verbal way. For example, shaking heads has been conventionally accepted as a refusal in response to a question.

However, depending on the statement's situational use or the intonation of the speaker, such a typical lexico-grammatical realization might vary (Eggins, 2004). For example, commands may be realized by interrogatives or declaratives (e.g., *Can you tell us the meaning of the word?* or *You might have to check the dictionary for the meaning if you do not know*). In other words, when investigating speech functions that are used by

teachers to mediate students' language learning through textbook use, one has to be careful with mood type as well as the situational use of intonation.

As seen above, SFL-based speech function from a discourse-semantic level provides a linguistic lens through which to view teacher-student interactions in context. Therefore, the construct of SFL-based speech function is optimal for complementing the construct of mediation from SCT and better explains the complexity of language use or talk as the primary mediating tool in a textbook-based classroom.

The following section describes the appraisal system, another useful discourse-semantic component from SFL's interpersonal function (Martin & White, 2005), and argues for its connection with teachers' belief systems from a discourse perspective. Indeed, to restate, the research thread that runs throughout this study aims to provide a discourse perspective for the relationship between textbook use and teachers' beliefs.

Teachers' Beliefs as Evaluative Stances

Teachers' beliefs are a key factor related to teachers' language-teaching in a textbook-based classroom. Indeed, teachers' beliefs came to the attention of researchers as early as the 1960s (e.g., Borg, 2006; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Freeman, 2002; Jackson, 1968; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Thompson, 1992; Yang & Gao, 2013). Borg (2006) summarized three reasons for the emergence of the study on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their teaching practices: (1) The influence of cognitive psychology inspired researchers to look into the mental life of teachers rather than just observable behaviors; (2) There was growing awareness of teachers' roles in making decisions in the classroom; and (3) There was also consciousness of the limitations on conducting research on teachers' behaviors properly. As a result, since the 1960s, there has been

much research on teachers' belief systems and their teaching practices (see Chapter 2 for research examples). However, the definition of teachers' beliefs is debatable; literature shows that it is mixed with teachers' knowledge, attitude, or even perception (Borg, 2006; see also Fives & Buehl, 2012 for a review). To anchor this current study, one definition is offered showing how it fits with SFL's appraisal system.

The definition of teachers' beliefs adopted in this study can be summarized as teachers' evaluative stances toward language education (e.g., attitudes, judgments, values) (Borg, 2001; Calderhead, 1996; Naspor, 1987; Pajaras, 1992). Borg (2001), for example, defined beliefs as "a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is *evaluative* [emphasis added] in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further it serves as a guide to thought and behavior" (p. 185). Borg, by highlighting the evaluative nature of a belief system, differentiates it from teachers' knowledge, since teachers' knowledge, according to Borg, must be true externally and does not vary from one person to another. It is from Borg's definition that teachers' beliefs are the assumptions individual teachers hold about teaching and learning, meaning they are evaluative in nature.

To further clarify what constitutes teachers' beliefs, Calderhead (1996) pointed out five relevant content planes: (1) "Beliefs about learners and learning" (p. 719), which are concerned with teachers' evaluative stance toward their students' learning; (2) "Beliefs about teaching" (p. 720), which are related to teachers' evaluative stance toward the objective of teaching; (3) "Beliefs about subjects," which focus on teachers' evaluative stance toward what constitutes a subject (p. 720); (4) "Beliefs about learning to teach" (p. 720), which describe their evaluative stance toward their professional

development, including in-service education and pre-service education, or other learning experiences of being a teacher; and (5) “Beliefs about self and teaching role” (p. 720), which are about their evaluative assessments of themselves and the purpose they serve in teaching. Calderhead’s categorization thus provides a clear path for linking with Martin and White’s (2005) appraisal system, which I explain in the next subsection.

Mapping Beliefs to the SFL-based Appraisal System: A Discourse Perspective

Martin and White (2005), informed by the SFL perspective of the close relationship between language and context, proposed the appraisal system as one dimension of the interpersonal meaning/function to show the linguistic realization of language users’ evaluative stance. That is, Martin and White linked the register variable *tenor*, the social roles of discourse participants (e.g., solidarity with a person or thing) at the level of context with the linguistic realization of language users’ evaluative stance toward subject matter. Martin and White also followed SFL’s stratification of the context of culture and explained how it acts as a matrix that provides meaning resources and governs meaning organization (e.g., the instantiation of appraisal resources) to meet a specific social purpose. In other words, the appraisal system aims at showing the evaluative stance of a discourse and, at the same time, reveals how meaning, language, and context dynamically interact with each other. It aligns very closely with many scholars’ (e.g., Borg, 2001; Pajares, 1992) definitions of a belief system where the focus is on teachers’ evaluative stances and beliefs as contextually shaped constructs (Mansour, 2009; Tschannen-Morgan, Salloum, & Goddard, 2015). In other words, the appraisal system provides an optimal discourse analytic tool for analyzing teachers’ verbalized beliefs about textbook use when linked to Calderhead’s (1996) five content planes.

In particular, Martin and White (2005) scaled the system of appraisal in the following three subcategories: Attitude, Engagement and Graduation (see Figure 2 below).

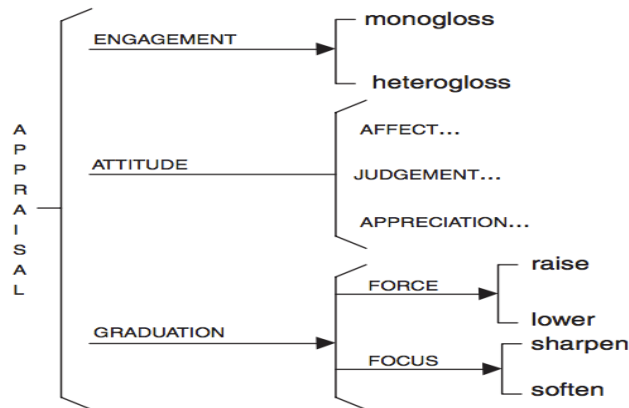


Figure 2. *SFL-based appraisal resources* (Martin & White, 2005, p. 38).

As shown in Figure 2, language users could use one or all of these three types of appraisal resources to show their evaluative stances. The following subsections elaborate on each of these three types of resources and their typical linguistic realization in showing language users' evaluative stances or beliefs in the case of this current study.

The system of attitude. As one of three categories of appraisal resources, attitude is concerned with attitudinal positioning, which includes *affect*, *judgment*, and *appreciation*. Affect is concerned with discourse participants' emotional responses to subject matter, positive or negative. Martin and White (2005) categorized discourse participants' affect on a scale of positive/negative (with sample lexical realizations) as dis/inclination (e.g., *long for*, *fearful*), un/happiness (e.g., *cheerful*, *sad*), in/security (e.g., *confident*, *anxious*), and dis/satisfaction (e.g., *impressed*, *bored with*).

While Martin and Rose provide a variety of lexico-grammatical resources that can realize affect, they cautioned that the resources provided in their book “are by no means

exhaustive, but included simply to give the gist of the range of meanings involved...” (p. 50). In other words, it is always advisable to look at a specific contextually embedded text/discourse (e.g., a teachers’ belief discourse). This also applies to the other appraisal subsystems described in this chapter.

Another subcategory of attitude is *judgment*, which deals with an evaluation of human behavior, or in Martin and White’s (2005) words, “construing our attitudes to people and the way they behave – their character (how they measure up)” (p. 52). It includes two categories: *social esteem* and *social norm*. Social esteem is concerned with admiration or criticism of a person’s internal nature regarding the normality (e.g., *lucky, unlucky*), capability (e.g., *powerful, weak*), and tenacity of a person (e.g., *brave, timid*). Social norm is concerned with a person’s morality, is socio-culturally shaped, and can be praised or condemned by his/her veracity (e.g., *truthful, dishonest*) and propriety (e.g., *moral, immoral*).

The third category of attitude is *appreciation*, which is concerned with the aesthetic evaluation of things (Martin & White, 2005). It includes three dimensions: the impact of a thing (e.g., *arresting, boring*), quality of a thing (e.g., *good, bad*), balance of a thing (e.g., *harmonious, discordant*), complexity of a thing (e.g., *clear, unclear*) and valuation of a thing (e.g., *profound, insignificant*).

As seen above, the system of attitude is able to illuminate a teacher’s belief system by revealing their emotion toward teaching/learning and also their judgment of students’ learning behavior and their evaluation of teaching materials themselves. For example, as a linguistics teacher, if I was asked about what I think of linguistics and what should be taught to non-English major college students, I might say the following:

Linguistics is very interesting. I really enjoy teaching it. For teaching linguistics, I think linguistics teachers should avoid using technical terms. Instead, plain language is best for non-linguistics majors.

In a very short sample narration about my beliefs about linguistics instruction, I used the appreciation resource *interesting* to show my positive stance toward the subject of linguistics. I also used the appreciation resource *plain language* to show my evaluative stance toward how linguistics courses should be run for non-linguistics majors. I also used the affect resource *enjoy* to show my positive evaluative stance toward the job of teaching linguistics. I used the judgment resource *avoid using technical terms* to show my stance toward the teachers' obligation in teaching linguistics to non-linguistics majors. Overall, these attitudinal resources revealed my beliefs about linguistics teaching.

The system of engagement. Parallel to attitude, the *engagement* system within the appraisal system describes a set of linguistic resources through which discourse participants adjust and negotiate their propositions and proposals, and dialogically interact with potential readers (i.e., allowing or rejecting a space for other voices and alternative positions to surface). Specifically, *monogloss*, as a subcategory of engagement, is about facts and bare assertions that ignore dialogical potentials. For example, in my narration above *plain language is best for non-linguistic major students*. It is a statement that does not acknowledge alternative viewpoints, thus making it monoglossic.

In contrast, *heterogloss*, as a subcategory of engagement, recognizes the alternative source of the dialoguer by contracting or expanding the dialogical space with

other discourse participants. It is characterized by two categories: *contract* and *expand*. Contracting resources show that language users' battle with external viewpoints by either challenging or restricting them. Contraction includes, (1) *disclaim*, which is concerned with denying (e.g., *did not*) or countering (e.g., *although*); (2) *proclaim*, which is concerned with concurring by making affirmations (e.g., *obviously*), making concession (e.g., *admittedly...*), pronouncing by showing language users' authoritative voice on information (e.g., *I contend...*), or endorsing by showing agreement with external authoritative voice (e.g., *the report demonstrates...*). Different from contraction, *expansion* shows how language users accommodate alternative voices. Expansion includes (1) *entertaining*, making room for alternative points of view (e.g., *it is probable that...*); (2) *attributing*, acknowledging an external source in a neutral way (e.g., *Halliday argues...*), or (3) *distancing* (e.g., *Chomsky claims...*), showing indifference to the external source, which allows more room than acknowledging does. Again, in my short narration, most of my belief discourse segments are from my own proposition or bare assertions. However, the frequent use of *I think* as a way of expansion also makes some of my assertions open to other propositions/proposals. For example, *I think linguistic teachers should avoid using technical terms* is a proposition only held by me while I acknowledge different alternative voices.

As seen above, the system of *engagement* provides extra linguistic resources to show how discourse producers (e.g., teachers) align themselves with external voices when making their evaluative stance (e.g., their belief discourse about textbook use).

The system of graduation. *Graduation*, as another dimension of appraisal, describes the lexical resources for intensification (e.g. *very, least*) or adjusting boundaries

(e.g., *kind of, sort*) of attitude and engagement. As Martin and White (2005) pointed out, “the resources are inherently gradable, graduation has to do with adjusting the degree of an evaluation – how strong or weak the feeling is” (p. 37) and operates on an up-scaling (maximization), such as *absolutely happy*, or downscaling (minimization), such as *slightly happy*. The first subcategory of graduation is *force*. Force is concerned with quantity (i.e., number, mass, and extent) and intensification (i.e., quality, process) of evaluative meaning. The second category is *focus*. It is concerned with how a phenomenon represents a typical instance as illustrated in the two contrastive expressions *a real teacher* and *a so-called teacher*. Again, in my narration, I used graduation force (e.g., *very interesting*) to show my interest in linguistics, and my enthusiasm for teaching linguistics (e.g., *really enjoy*). In other words, identification of these graduation resources revealed the intensity of my belief system about teaching linguistics. This means that graduation resources are connected with scalability of propositions/proposals, which thus enable us to analyze how strongly teachers feel about language teaching or learning regarding their beliefs about textbook use.

Linking appraisal with belief content. As shown above, the three major categories of the appraisal system—attitude, graduation, and engagement—well describe how the evaluative stances of discourse participants are instantiated in discourse through linguistic realization. It is because of the emphasis on the link between linguistic realization and the interpersonal function (i.e., evaluative stance) that the appraisal system is an optimal construct for revealing a language teacher’s verbalized beliefs, contributing to the repertoire of analytic tools that have been dominated by qualitative content analysis of surveys and interviews.

In particular, an appraisal analysis can be conducted on Calderhead's (1996) categories of teachers' beliefs with attention to the following: (1) Beliefs about EFL learners' learning in a textbook-based classroom. That is, teachers' evaluative stance toward their students and their strategy of learning from a textbook; (2) Beliefs about EFL teaching through textbook use. That is, teachers' evaluative stance towards EFL literacy teaching at different levels (i.e., listening, speaking, writing, reading); (3) Beliefs about the subject. That is, teachers' evaluative stance towards the nature of EFL literacy; (4) Beliefs about learning to teach. That is, teachers' evaluative stance toward their current or past professional development experiences; and (5) Beliefs about the self and the teaching role. This dimension is concerned with teachers' evaluative stance toward their personal involvement in a textbook-based classroom. In other words, using appraisal resources on the five major content planes of teachers' verbalized beliefs would be an optimal way of conducting a discourse analysis of teachers' beliefs, offering an addition to the methodology of teachers' belief systems that transcends methods in previous studies such as content analysis.

Summary

This chapter provides the theoretical foundations for understanding and analyzing teachers' beliefs and their use of an ELT textbook in a classroom. From the perspectives of SFL and SCT based language and learning theories, this chapter shows that learners' knowledge of language use in context is connected to their awareness of meaning making in context and involves teachers' mediation. This chapter also illuminates that the SFL-based speech function offers a discourse perspective on teachers' talk-based mediation in a textbook-based classroom while the SFL-based appraisal system provides a discourse

perspective on teachers' verbalized beliefs. Hence, the integration of SFL and SCT helps to reveal the intricate picture of teachers' beliefs and textbook use in a textbook-based classroom.

CHAPTER 4
COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING, CURRICULUM, TEACHER EDUCATION
AND TEXTBOOK POLICIES IN CHINA

This chapter intends to present the cultural background of Chinese EFL tertiary teaching and learning. Primarily, it presents a brief history on the evolutionary status of China's EFL teaching and learning while discussing the historical changes in the college English curriculum and testing system. It also focuses on EFL teacher education at the tertiary level in China and elaborates on textbook adoption policies in Chinese college EFL classrooms.

Necessity of Context of Culture for Research

Indeed, as mentioned in the previous chapter, Halliday and Hason (1985) argued that the context of culture is “an institutional and ideological background that gives value to the text and constrain[s] its interpretation” (p. 49), while the context of situation, as a more immediate environment for the discourse, directly shapes its linguistic realization (Christie, 2002; Halliday, 1978, 1994). From an SFL perspective, then, a presentation of both the context of culture for EFL teaching and learning as well as the context of situation of the research site are key elements in an analysis of teachers' belief discourse and textbook-based classroom discourse (Eggins & Slade, 1997; Halliday, 1978). To this end, I therefore provide a description of the context of culture in this chapter and save the discussion of the context of situation for the methodology chapter, the one that follows.

The Path of English Becoming the First Foreign Language in China

While many missionary schools taught English in China early on, government-sponsored English teaching in China can be traced back to 1861 in the Qing Dynasty (Adamson, 2004; Fu, 1986; Lam, 2002, 2005; Wang, 1981; see also Table 4.1 below for a general view). At that time, the Qing government established Tong Wen Guan in Beijing, an institution that trained prospective English language speakers or users in interpretation and translation. In 1903, all tertiary schools officially offered English as a school subject (Fu, 1986).

Before 1949	Qing Dynasty	During this period, the government started to sponsor English Education.
	1912-1927	English teaching and learning boomed.
	1927-1948	There was a slight repression of English teaching and learning.
1949-Now	1949-1950s	Russian replaced English and became the first foreign language and Chinese students started to learn Russian at all levels of school.
	1962	The Russian boom receded and English began to thrive as the first foreign language for all levels of schools. English came to be a subject required for college entrance.
	1966-1977	Sporadic English learning and teaching occurred because of the cultural revolution.
	1980s- now	English regained its privileged status as the first foreign language.

From the overthrow of the Qing Dynasty in 1912 to the foundation of the People's Republic of China in 1949, power in the Chinese government was constantly shifting. Accordingly, the level of college EFL teaching and learning experienced ups and downs (see Table 4.1 above). There was a relatively high degree of ideological freedom initially during the Republic era (1912-1927), especially because of John Dewey, an American educational reformer who gave several lectures in China from 1919 to 1921 promoting

the idea of democratic education (Hu & Adamson, 2012). As a result, English education continued to thrive in Chinese tertiary schools. In 1927, however, during the reign of Kuomintang (1927-1949), a formerly divided China was united and the new government considered English to be harmful to the country's unity, requiring schools to reduce course hours on college English learning and teaching (Yang, 2000).

Following the dissolution of Kuomintang's government and the foundation of the People's Republic of China in 1949, English education continued to undergo frequent interruptions (Adamson, 2004). First, the priority status of EFL in the university was discontinued when the communist party took power in 1949 and was replaced by Russian because of the close relationship between China and the Soviet Union as well as China's dissent from the Western political system at that time. In the 1950s, however, in response to the breakdown of the diplomatic relationship between China and the Soviet Union and China's attempt to unite with the West, English regained its status as the first foreign language in the university, reclaiming that position from Russian, which was in decline. English even became a subject for college entrance examination. Unfortunately, the Cultural Revolution from 1966 to 1977 stymied English teaching and learning, as English language use, among many foreign things, was associated with a betrayal of the Communist party. Nixon's 1972 visit to China, however, sparked a rejuvenation of English, which was then taught sporadically, tinged with Chinese political characteristics; for example, textbooks often promoted the ideology of Chairman Mao (Yang, 2000).

Following the end of this revolution, English gradually regained its status as the first foreign language at the tertiary level in China. By the 1980s, English had once again become a required course at all levels of education and had been relisted as a course for

the college entrance examinations (Yang, 2000). Indeed, following the end of the Cultural Revolution, the Chinese government has been desperately making strides to enact a series of political and social reforms, including the policy of opening its doors to the world to integrate with the global economy. It is this policy that has re-stimulated the vigorous development of English teaching, which aims at training EFL students to use world English to communicate with the rest of the globe and thus boost the Chinese economy.

In sum, government-sponsored EFL teaching is a more than one hundred-year-old practice in China. While changing political parties and internal upheaval hindered EFL development in the past, EFL teaching in China is now receiving increasing attention at various levels, including the tertiary level, and encouraging more students to learn English.

Curriculum Change

To meet the demands of economic development and effectively guide China's EFL teaching and learning at the tertiary level, the Chinese Ministry of Education drafted a college English teaching curriculum in 1982 and publicized it in 1985 (Li, 2012). It was the first national college curriculum in China after the Cultural Revolution and was meant to guide tertiary English teaching and learning.

This first college English curriculum was made specifically for students in the sciences. In 1986, however, the Chinese Ministry of Education issued a curriculum for non-English major students in both the arts and sciences. Students, as per the 1985 curriculum, were expected to have "a relatively high level of competence in reading, an intermediate level of competence in listening and translating and a basic competence in

writing and speaking” (Chinese Ministry of Education, 1985, p. 1). In the 1986 curriculum, everything remained the same except that translation was no longer a requirement. As can be seen from these two curricula developed in the 1980s, reading was considered far more important than other aspects of literacy, such as speaking.

A modified version of the College English Curriculum was issued for all non-English majors in 1999. In this new curriculum, the core content highlighted that college English teaching should enable students to develop “a relatively high level of competence in reading, an intermediate level of competence in listening, speaking, writing and translating” (Chinese Ministry of Education, 1999, p. 1). Comparing the focus of the 1999 curriculum with those of 1985 and 1986, it is obvious that the Chinese Ministry of Education realized the importance of all aspects of language use, including speaking, writing, and translation, by requiring college students to have at least an intermediate level of knowledge in all of them. Reading, however, was still given priority status in terms of college students’ English language development.

In 2004, a trial version of the College English Curriculum Requirements (CECR) came out, putting a balanced emphasis on students’ listening, speaking, writing, and reading abilities, including their translation skills. This version later, became the official guideline for China’s English teaching and learning in 2007, highlighting listening and speaking, which had been overlooked in previous versions of national college English curricula and classroom instruction. As is stated in the latest CECR (Chinese Ministry of Education, 2007):

the objective of College English is to develop students’ ability to use English in an all-round way, especially in listening and speaking, so that in their future work

and social interactions they will be able to exchange information effectively through both spoken and written channels, and at the same time they will be able to enhance their ability to study independently and improve their cultural quality so as to meet the needs of China's social development and international exchanges. (p. 1)

The basic requirements for college English learners are shown below in Table 4.2.

As seen in this table in terms of the required English competency of the latest CECR, there is an obvious emphasis on developing college English language learners' knowledge of language use in both life and their discipline across all modes of literacy.

Table 4.2 <i>Basic Requirements of College English Learners in China</i>	
Speaking	Be able to participate in class discussions in English. Be able to give English talks regarding daily life, with appropriate time to prepare. Be able to have good pronunciation and intonation. Be able to master basic conversational strategies in dialogue.
Listening	Be able to understand in-class instructions, everyday conversations, and lectures on general topics. Be able to understand the main idea of English radio and TV programs spoken around about 130 to 150 words per minute. Be able to use basic strategies to help with listening comprehension.
Reading	Be able to read 70 words per minute for common topics. Be able to read longer yet less difficult texts at the speed of 100 words per minute. Be able to skim and scan reading materials. Be able to know the main ideas when reading English materials about their majors or when reading newspaper and magazine articles on familiar topics. Be able to understand texts of practical styles commonly used in work and daily life. Be able to use effective reading methods to assist reading.
Writing	Be able to write on common topics, such as personal experiences. Be able to write no less than 120 words for a topic within 30 minutes. Be able to write complete and coherent content while maintaining an appropriate use of words.
Translation	Be able to translate articles from English to Chinese and vice versa with a dictionary. Be able to translate English into Chinese at 300 English words per hour and Chinese to English at around 250 Chinese characters per hour. Be able to translate articles with accuracy, showing a good understanding of the content and correct use of language.

The newest English requirements, as scholars (e.g., Chang, 2006; Du, 2012; Zheng & David, 2008) suggested, are a result of Chinese education reform in response to globalization of the economy as well as their awareness of the need for developing

students' communication skills in various social contexts. Indeed, globalization of the world market means there is a need for English learners who can communicate verbally and colloquially; rote memorization of words or grammatical rules no longer suffices. In the latest curriculum, the Chinese Ministry of Education has started to encourage teachers to be more student-centered and to focus on meaning-based teaching (as opposed to form-based), since those adjustments are more likely to develop students' language use in context.

College English Test

Linked with the curriculum, the College English test, which has been around since 1987, was designed by the Chinese Ministry of Education to test Chinese non-English major undergraduate students' English ability. The two written tests include two bands: College English Test Band 4 (CET 4) and College English Test Band 6 (CET 6). The tests are held twice a year close to the end of each semester (i.e., June and December). Generally, students who have taken two years of college English courses are qualified to take the CET 4; students who have passed the CET 4 are qualified to take the CET 6.

The tests are also very high-stakes, as students' scores on the tests are almost the only means that potential employers have to evaluate their English proficiency (Chen & Zhang, 1998). In particular, the CET 4 is a requirement for every college English learner who completes two years of college English study, and the test is also a bachelor's degree requirement at many of China's universities (Adam & Xia, 2011). In what follows, I focus on the culture surrounding this test to show how it has changed in compliance with curriculum reform.

From 1987 to 2013, the CET4 underwent several changes in response to the curriculum's gradual emphasis on developing students' skills in language use. Based on the grading scale, chronologically the test can be divided into four developmental phases (see Table 4.3 below for an overview). The first phase occurred between 1987 and 1995. At that time, the band test was graded on a scale of 100 with students needing a 60 to pass. The entire test contained multiple-choice questions, except for the writing component. During this period, those who passed the band test were awarded a certificate by the Chinese Ministry of Education.

Table 4.3
Content and Grade Proportion Change of CET 4

1987-1995	1996-2005	2005-2013	2013-Now
Listening 20%	Listening 20%	Listening 35%	Listening 35%
Vocabulary and Grammar 15%	Vocabulary and Grammar 15%	-----	-----
Reading 40%	Reading 40%	Reading 35%	Reading 35%
Writing 15%	Writing 15%	Writing 15%	Writing 15%
Blank filling 10%	Blank filling or Translation or Short answers 10%	Blank filling 10%	----
----	-----	Translation 5%	Translation 15%

From 1996 to 2005 (i.e., the second phase of CET 4 test development), while keeping the same grading scale, the content of the test had two minor changes. First, dictation-based listening (filling in blanks with words/phrases and sentences) was introduced. The other new components were the English to Chinese translation and short answer sections, which interchangeably occurred on the test with blank filling (i.e., multiple choice of words to fill in a passage). This period shows that the Chinese Ministry of Education wanted students to put more effort into language use through testing dictation-based listening, students' translations, and short answers, and the

Ministry aimed to keep students from earning a grade by randomly picking answers in multiple choice sections in the previous version of the test.

Also within this period, a separate and optional speaking test was introduced. At that time, CET 4 test-takers who scored 85 out of 100 were eligible to take the speaking test. The speaking test for each band is now about 20 minutes and has three parts. The first of the three includes a 5-minute interaction between three or four test-takers and examiners⁴. The second part requires test-takers to give a 1.5-minute presentation in addition to engaging in a 4.5-minute group discussion. The third section includes a more detailed interaction between the examiners and the test takers on the basis of the following criteria: (1) Accuracy in pronunciation; (2) Diversity of vocabulary and grammatical structures; (3) Contributions in a group discussion; 4) Discourse coherence; 5) Flexibility in using language with different situations and topics; and 6) Appropriateness in the contextual use of language (National College English Testing Committee, 2006; see also Zheng & Cheng, 2008)

The third phase of test reform occurred from 2005 to 2013 and saw drastic changes to the test in terms of the grading scale and format. In particular, the grading scale changed from 100 to 710, which meant the weight of each part changed as well. Compared to the previous test, listening was raised from 20% to 35%, reading was lowered from 40% to 35%, and the writing component remained the same at 15%. Starting in 2005, the score needed to take the speaking test changed to 550⁵ out of the new 710 maximum.

⁴ Since 2012, the spoken test has been computer-based assessment while keeping the same testing content.

⁵ Starting from 2014, the score was lowered to 500.

With the new scale of 710, there was no longer a passing grade, as anyone who scored 220 or above would be given a paper transcript from the CET commission (Adamson & Xia, 2011). Even so, there seemed to be an understanding among universities that the passing grade for the CET 4 was 425 since that was the grade the CET commission designated as necessary to take the CET 6. 425 was also the grade some universities required to grant students a bachelor degree.

In terms of content, the new CET eliminated the vocabulary and structure section. The reading section instead included an in-depth reading component (three short passages) and a skimming or scanning portion (one or two passages), which were tested using multiple-choice questions, fill-in-the-blank constructions, and sentences completion. In other words, the test was more equipped to test students' language use instead of their memorization of words or grammatical rules.

In 2013, there were further changes to the CET 4, resulting in the test currently in use. In terms of the grade proportion of each section, everything remained the same except for the blank filling and translation sections. In fact, the blank filling was eliminated altogether which meant that its weight was redistributed to translation, raising it to 15%.

In terms of format, the translation section changed from being a sentence-based translation to a paragraph-based one. For the reading section, students were now expected to match sentences with paragraphs in a long passage in addition to completing the in-depth reading, fill-in-the-blank, and sentence completion parts. This addition took the place of scanning/skimming, which was removed entirely. Last, the listening section's length was increased, despite maintaining the same weight on the grading scale.

As seen from these changes, the Chinese Ministry of Education further emphasized that English learning lies in using English rather than purely memorizing language rules or vocabulary.

While the CET 4 was designed as a means to test whether college English learners have achieved the required competency, it does influence students' learning. Indeed, as a nationwide test with stakes connected to students' graduation, job prospects and potential promotion as well as its use as an evaluation of teaching quality at a university, all parties place a strong emphasis on passing the test or earning a high grade on it (Adamson & Xia, 2011; Rao & Lei, 2014; Zhan, 2008). Some researchers (e.g., Shao, 2006; Yang, 2003) found a positive impact on this as a result. For example, Shao's (2006) empirical study of 45 college English classrooms found that the CET facilitated the implementation of the curriculum and fostered students' literacy at all four levels. In contrast, however, the majority of studies showed that the CET had a negative impact on teaching and learning, especially in the second year when most students had to take the exam. For example, both Ren (2011) and Zhan (2008) found that there was no significant influence on in-class teaching and learning except in the second year when classroom teaching became characterized by test-coaching, which also meant that textbooks were not used anymore. In particular, as Ren (2011) pointed out, because the speaking test is optional, it is often not a focus in many college language classrooms, as most university instructors teach in accordance with the test. In other words, the CET indeed exerts influence over college English teaching, be it positive or negative.

In sum, the curriculum changes demonstrate the Chinese Ministry of Education's efforts to strengthen college English learners' language use. As a complement to the

national curriculum, this national high-stakes test was designed to set standards for students' learning. Its reformations were designed to encourage both teachers and students to focus on language use. However, because of the high risks related to the CET 4 (e.g., job or diploma procurement), students and teachers have often felt pressured to pass it, turning some college English classrooms into test-oriented teaching and learning sites.

EFL Teacher Education and Its Impact on Teaching Practices

EFL teaching at the tertiary level is mostly practiced by non-native English speakers who were trained as English major students at the undergraduate or graduate level in a university in China; few universities hire native English speakers to teach college English (Rao & Lei, 2014). Though in the past bachelor's and master's degree-holders were able to receive an English teaching position in Chinese universities, now only doctoral degree-holders in language related areas are eligible (Liu & He, 2014).

Chinese EFL Teachers' Pre-service and In-service Education

As would-be English teachers, these English majors generally spend four years of their undergraduate career enhancing their language foundations in all aspects of language literacy during their undergraduate career. During their final year, they also have a chance to complete a month-long teaching internship (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). For English major graduate students (i.e., master's students and doctoral students) in China, there are options to begin with a focus on Western literature, theoretical linguistics, applied linguistics, or translation. Whatever research orientation they choose, they often run the risk of focusing too much on the subject matter and not enough on practicing in real contexts for becoming a teacher. For example, theoretical linguistics majors might

have a good knowledge of Noam Chomsky, but they likely have no idea how to apply what they learned in a language-teaching context (Cai, 2013; Zhou, 2002). As a result, when they graduate, many of them struggle with teaching college English (Cheng & Sun, 2010).

A further problem is that when these students become in-service teachers, they have limited opportunities for professional development both on and off campus. On campus, because of a lack of financial resources and departmental support, many EFL teachers have limited or no access to teacher education at their home institutions (You, 2004). If any professional development is offered, it is often in the form of a novice teacher observing an experienced teacher's class or preparing their lessons with them. In some instances, teachers of the same course may meet weekly, discuss teaching materials, and share supplementary materials and opinions on how to teach a certain unit together (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Rao & Lei, 2014).

Off campus, the most common professional development opportunities are teacher training programs organized by publishing houses, such as the Beijing Foreign Language Press, in conjunction with research centers, such as the Sino Foreign Language Education Center. This training is often characterized by short sessions held during summer and winter vacation and typically have limited participation (Cheng, 2015). According to the Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press (FLTRP) (2015), the teacher education program in 2015 extends from May to August, but only a total of fourteen days out of the three months are used to provide face-to-face communication with teacher trainees, with the rest of the time designated for in-service teachers to study online courses about how to do research. Given the programs' weak emphasis on

education as well as their theoretical focus, it would be nearly impossible for teachers to change dramatically in terms of their cognition, which calls for long-term education (Cheng, 2015; Ding, 2013).

In addition, the content of the in-service education programs tends to be more about teaching methodologies or how to conduct academic research (Zheng, 2009). Thus, they give little attention to fostering teachers' awareness of meaning and form construction as illustrated by FLRP's (2015) program. Teaching language use, however, involves teaching both language form and language meaning (Halliday, 1978). Without appropriate linguistic awareness of language form and meaning in constructing a text/discourse, it is hard to expect in-service teachers to effectively teach in accordance with the national curriculum standards, which is obviously needed. For example, in Gebhard, Chen, Graham, and Gunawan's (2013) study, it was found that one Chinese English major student (i.e., a pre-service English teacher) benefited from a meaning-form based teacher education and realized how language form and meaning co-impact the construction of writing, which was a method she had never been exposed to in China. In other words, the most obvious problem with Chinese EFL teacher education is that there is not an appropriate or effective model that can better prepare teachers to meet the requirements of the national standards, which place emphasis on contextualized language use (Borg & Liu, 2013; Zhou, 2008).

EFL Teachers' Personal Learning Experiences

Because of the above factors, many in-service college students choose to follow their own beliefs, which are often formed by personal learning experiences (Cheng & Sun, 2010; Zheng, 2009; Zheng & David, 2008). To understand EFL teachers' learning

experiences, it is thus optimal to know what teaching practices they have been exposed to. According to Yang (2000), EFL teaching practices at both the secondary and college levels have also undergone several developmental stages, which means the potential for different practices to emerge from these beliefs is great. From 1919-1949, for example, the predominant teaching method was grammar translation. Originating from Europe, the grammar-translation method focuses on rote memorization of words and grammatical rules. Therefore, during that time, Chinese EFL teaching was heavily influenced by structuralism. Similarly, from 1949-1978 when English replaced Russian as the first foreign language, English was mainly taught using grammar-translation along with the audio-lingual method, a practice that has its origins in the U.S army and emphasizes students' listening and speaking skills through memorization. However, during the Cultural Revolution (1966-1977), grammar-translation came to the throne again as the predominant language teaching method. This reversal was due to the audio-lingual method's connection to the U.S., with whom China had a bad diplomatic relationship.

From 1978-1999, on the other hand, there was an enthusiasm for the communicative approach, which aims at creating a pure English environment for students without any explicit teaching of grammar. However, this approach was soon replaced by the grammar-translation method again, given a high demand for Chinese EFL teachers with higher spoken proficiency. It was also detrimental for students to pass the CET which was oriented towards grammar and vocabulary at the time. In such a scenario, grammar and vocabulary-centered teaching has continued to prevail in Chinese EFL classrooms that train pre-service English teachers (i.e., English major students) and

influence their own teaching later on. In other words, the grammar-translation method continues to be used by the majority of EFL teachers in China (Rao & Lei, 2014).

The focus on grammar and structure aligns well with the Chinese cultural propensity for teacher-centered classrooms, which characterizes many Chinese college English settings (Rao, 2013; Rao & Lei, 2014). Indeed, teachers lecture in class most of the time and explain word for word the structure of sentences while students sit passively and are expected to learn. In fact, interactions are considered a luxury for most EFL classrooms as students also consider their silence a sign of respect for their teachers (Liu & Jackson, 2009; Peng, 2007). This aspect of Chinese culture is thus powerful in shaping the non-interactive, teacher-centered classroom, which greatly hinders EFL students' communication skills. Even when EFL teachers make efforts to engage students and encourage them to participate, these students who have grown up with a teacher-centered class ideology often find it difficult to challenge social norms.

In effect, due to limited and ineffective teacher education in China, English teachers at the tertiary level are characterized as having a good mastery of grammar and vocabulary because of their intensive exposure to it as students, but they are not familiar with any effective language teaching theories that could help them teach both meaning and form. As a result, most EFL teachers habitually resort to their personal learning experiences to teach, making them hard line practitioners of the grammar-translation method despite the latest national curriculum and tests that urge EFL educators to support EFL learners' skills in language use.

The Textbook and Its Adoption in China's EFL Classroom

As a crucial resource, textbooks remain in a central position in Chinese language classrooms, even at the tertiary level. That is, teachers teach English based on the textbooks. In the following, I discuss the social and cultural context regarding policies on textbooks in addition to providing information about the content of one of the most dominant textbooks used in China's universities: Li and Wang's (2013) *College English*.

At the tertiary level, textbooks used before the foundation of the People's Republic of China were those that used authentic English materials (Fu, 1986). However, from the founding of the People's Republic of China in 1949 to 1978, English textbooks were mainly about politics that aligned with Chairman Mao's political achievements. Thus, these textbooks espoused his political beliefs and contained some original works in English literature such as *English* by Guozhang Xu. In the 1980s, imported textbooks such as L.G. Alexander's *New Concept English* became popular due to their focus on authentic language use.

In order to change this situation and have its own authentic textbooks, the Chinese Ministry of Education decided to edit a series of textbooks in 1983. With the efforts of foreign educators from many top universities in China, *College English* (the trial version) came out in 1986 and was published by Shanghai Foreign Language Press. In 1992, the textbook was officially marketed. In the following years, the textbook underwent three revisions, in 2001, 2010 and 2013. In recent years, however, many other textbooks have emerged, such as *New Horizon College English*, *21st Century College English*,

Experiencing English, and *New Standard College English*. Currently, *College English* is one of the most popular books and is used by about 1,000 colleges and universities in China to prepare students for their national test and language literacy development (Dong, 1997; Fan, 2000; Wang, 1999).

There are two main reasons for the widespread use of *College English*. First, in the face of a competitive market that has many quality textbooks characterized mostly by the same or similar content, the power of marketing seems to be working for these publishers. For example, You (2004) found that even though a dean of a department acknowledged the relative advantage of the diversified and theme-based content in *College English*, one key reason he continued to promote the use of *College English* is because the publishing house is willing to provide professional development for their teachers who would never otherwise have such a chance due to their lack of financial support. This might partly explain why the college textbook is used so extensively. In addition, while the Chinese government never stipulated exactly which textbooks should be used to teach college English, it is always safe to use those recommended by the Chinese Ministry of Education, like *College English*, because it means it is approved by authorities and would not have any sensitive topics in it, such as political issues (Adamson, 2004). These two reasons tentatively explain why *College English* is now used by thousands of universities and colleges across China.

College English is a series that includes specific books on reading, writing, speaking, listening, and the integration of all four modes previously mentioned (e.g., *College English- Reading*, *College English-Writing*, and *College English-Integrated Course*). However, for most EFL classrooms, the textbook *College English-Integrated*

Course is the only textbook used to meet the nationwide requirement of two year English teaching and learning in China's universities (Fan, 2000; Wen & Mo, 2013). Regarding the predominant use of the textbook *College English-Integrated Course* alone, there are again some external factors exerting influence. First, its content fits with most college teachers' teaching practices (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Yang, 2000). As mentioned in an earlier section about college English teachers, the teaching convention at the tertiary level of English education still regards learning linguistic expressions (e.g., language points, set phrases) as an important means to improve English. *College English-Integrated Course* fits this model by emphasizing reading texts and with others being ancillary. Second, it would be costly for many colleges to offer separate courses, such as listening, writing, and speaking. Hiring one EFL teacher to teach speaking, listening, reading, and writing all through the use of *College English-Integrated Course* would be the best and most cost-effective choice (Li & Xiang, 2009). Third, college English is offered to non-English major students in China, which means they also have a heavy major course load outside of English. With limited credit hours for them to take separate courses, offering an integrated course seems to be the best choice given the national demand of improving their English and students' own comfort (Zhao, Chu, & Liang, 2015).

The massive use of *College English-Integrated Course*, as mentioned above, also leads to curiosity about what is inside the text. *College English-Integrated Course* has six volumes. The first four are for beginner and intermediate students during their first two years of compulsory English learning in the university, while the last two volumes are for advanced students and optional. All the volumes have the same format, that is, each book consists of 8 units that include a listening task, a reading task, a home reading

task, and comprehensive language exercises. Table 4.4 summarizes the content in each part.

Table 4.4 <i>Structure and Content of the Textbook</i>				
Structure	Part 1	Part 2	Part 3	Part 4
Content	Listening	In-class reading	Home-reading	Speaking and writing practices

The book editors recommend part 1 be used as warm-up. The listening materials in this part are mainly stories or background information that might be related to the reading text in Part 2. Part 2 is the core part of the textbook. It contains texts for reading and is the recommended teaching focus. It aims at showing students' language use through authentic texts selected from original English sources, such as newspapers or novels. Each text is accompanied by vocabulary words with both English and Chinese definitions that help facilitate students' comprehension of the text and enhance their knowledge of language use. Each text is also followed by the practice exercises, which are also similar across all six volumes, including description of the text content and structure, learning text words/phrases to fill in blanks of paragraphs or sentences, and sentence and paragraph translation (Chinese to English). Part 3 features home reading tasks and contains reading-based exercises such as multiple choice questions, translation, and blank filling, all of which are intended for students' after-class learning to encourage self-improvement of their language knowledge. Part 4 includes writing practices and speaking practices related to the reading texts in Part 2, which is designed to help students apply the language resources they have learned in the previous sections. Indeed, the integrated course book seeks to help students create a solid foundation of language use at such different levels as grammar, words, and discourse (e.g., understanding of the meaning of the whole text, translation).

Summary

To understand Chinese EFL teachers' belief discourse and textbook-based classroom discourse, this chapter presents socio-cultural background information on Chinese college English teaching and testing as well as college teacher education and college textbook use in China. That is, Chinese college English teaching and learning has a more than 200-year history and is now gaining great attention. The accompanying CET also has a more than 20-year history. Yet, despite the long history and important status of college English education in China, in-service teacher education is still in its infancy, characterized by limited accessibility and effect. Similarly, pre-service teacher education is also restricted to learning words and grammar at the undergraduate level or theoretical research (e.g., literature, formal linguistics) at the graduate level that may or may not be related to their English teaching. For these reasons, teachers who instruct college English courses predominantly rely on themselves to teach through the textbook.

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

Chapter 5 focuses on the methodology of this study. Following a revisiting of the research questions, section one of this chapter justifies the use of a qualitative case study. Section two discusses the research site and participants as the context of situation of this study. Section three provides a description of the researcher's role and the ethical issues in the process of data collection. Section four elaborates on the data collection process while section five shows how the data was transcribed and coded. Section six provides a sample analysis and section seven reports the limitations of this study. The last section summarizes the chapter.

A Qualitative Case Study Approach

As mentioned in the introductory chapter, this study has two purposes. One is to contribute to the literature on the study of language textbook use and its connection to teachers' beliefs. The other is to show how SCT and SFL can contribute to an understanding of teachers' beliefs and textbook use. Therefore, the pertinent research questions are as follows:

1. How does the focal teacher exemplify his beliefs about EFL textbook use?
 - a. How are the focal teacher's beliefs realized linguistically through his evaluative stances?
 - b. What are the contextual sources that shape the focal teacher's beliefs?
2. How does the focal teacher enact his textbook use in the classroom?

- a. How does the focal teacher interact with his students and deliver language knowledge from the textbook?
- b. What are the contextual factors that influence the focal teacher's textbook use?

To explore the above questions, a qualitative approach was adopted for this study. Indeed, the choice of research design depends on the research questions of a study (Merriam, 1988; Yin, 2014). While a quantitative approach is used to explain a phenomenon (e.g., cause and effect or proving a hypothesis), a qualitative approach in contrast is optimal for studies on understanding a phenomenon, particularly in terms of “how” and “what.” In this current study, the purpose is to gain an understanding of (1) the connection between EFL teachers' beliefs and textbook use and of (2) the power of utilizing SCT and SFL perspectives to explore teachers' beliefs and practices. In other words, the research purpose of this study is not to test a hypothesis; rather, it aims to gain an in-depth understanding of the connection between teachers' beliefs and textbook use, in addition to exploring how SFL and SCT can inform such an investigation. Therefore, a qualitative approach is suitable for the current study.

Second, as Slavin (1992) contended, a scarcity of studies on any given topic makes quantitative research full of difficulties because of the challenge “to look for right variables” (p. 73). Since there are still few studies that have looked into the dynamic relationship between language textbook use and teachers' beliefs, qualitative research is optimal here before a large scale quantitative approach can be adopted to compare differences or find correlations between various variables.

Third, qualitative research is also a good choice when the research aim is to reveal problems in a particular context (Slavin, 1992). Indeed, to understand the connection between teachers' beliefs and language textbook use, the sociocultural context must be taken into consideration (Borg, 2006; Fang, 1996; Mansour, 2009). By engaging with the world and interpreting phenomena in it, qualitative research is especially useful for the current study given its emphasis on the inclusion of context through a variety of methods such as observations and interviews.

A Qualitative Case Study

Particularly, a qualitative case study approach is adopted for this current study. Yin (2014) defined a case study as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the ‘case’) in depth and within its real life context especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident” (p. 16). In other words, a case study is especially useful for investigating a particular phenomenon in context. Two criteria have also been suggested for testing the appropriateness of a case study approach (Merriam, 1988; Yin, 2014): (1) if a study seeks to explore “how” and “why” questions or to make a “holistic, intensive description and interpretation of a contemporary phenomenon” (Merriam, 1988, p. 9) that cannot be separated from its context; and (2) if behaviors in a contemporary event are not controllable which allows the researcher to “collect a full variety of evidence-documents, artifacts, interviews, and observations” (Yin, 2014, p. 12). In this current study, the research purpose is to explore how a representative EFL teacher manifests his beliefs and practices in a textbook-based classroom through an in-depth discourse analysis while at the same time seeking contextual explanations. Hence, a qualitative case study is decidedly appropriate.

While case studies have often been accused of being inappropriate for research, especially because of their inability to generalize universal knowledge, this misconception has been rebutted by many scholars (Flyvbjerg, 2006; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2014). First, universal generalization is not the only purpose for doing a study (Flyvbjerg, 2006). For example, Flyvbjerg contended that science, in Greek, means knowledge and a case study “without any attempt to generalize can certainly be of value in this process and has often helped cut a path toward scientific innovation” (p. 10). In other words, a case study, without any universal generalization like in a quantitative study, can provide new knowledge about a certain topic, thus making it just as suitable for research. Such a view echoes that of Erikson (2012) who also argued that “the aim of the case study is not generalization beyond the case but the discovery of patterns and elucidation of processes within the case” (p. 686-687). Hence, a case study is just a different way of doing research that can contribute to research areas by providing new knowledge or perspectives on a given topic like EFL textbook studies.

Second, not being able to make a universal generalization does not mean that a generalization cannot be provided for a particular context (Erikson, 2012; Merriam, 1988; Yin, 2014). Indeed, as Stake (1995) pointed out, a generalization from a particular case is also a generalization; it is just a type of generalization for a specific context that might change in a different context. Stake also pointed out that even knowledge that has been gained through quantitative methods has the same potential of undergoing modification over time. In other words, a generalization made in a particular context, like those in case studies, is a type of unique generalization. Similarly, Merriam (1998) also claimed, as long as a typical case is selected and has an in-depth contextual description associated

with it, the findings of the case can not only contribute to knowledge in a particular area, but also provide reference information for other similar scenarios. The two points well argue against the common misconception held by those who disregard a case study as an appropriate research approach and consider universal generalizations as the only criteria for doing research.

In sum, the research approach, be it qualitative or quantitative, is dependent on the research questions of a study. When seeking contextual knowledge, a qualitative approach is more than satisfactory. Since the research purpose of this study is to gain knowledge about a contextually embedded phenomenon from the perspectives of SFL and SCT (i.e., a teacher's practices and beliefs in a textbook-dominant classroom), a qualitative case study is a good fit.

Research Site and Participants: Context of Situation

In this section, a description of the context of situation is provided to pave the way for my decision to select a single case study in an EFL classroom at Gui University as well as to inform later interpretations of my data in the following chapters (Halliday, 1978, 1994).

Gui University

Gui University, a public school maintained by Gui city, is located in the north of China. It has two campuses within the city. One campus is located in downtown and is now only for junior, senior and postgraduate students. The other campus, built only five years ago, is located in the suburbs and is used only for freshmen and sophomores. It is on this new campus that this case study took place.

Similar to other universities in China, in the first two years of students' undergraduate study, English teaching and learning in this university is compulsory as required by the latest national curriculum standards. Beyond that, it is optional. In particular, right after students' enrollment in this university, they have to take a placement test. They are then placed into two different types of classes based on their scores: type A is for advanced students and type B is for average or below average students. Each year, there are about nine course sections for type A students to choose from. Similarly, there are about thirty course sections for type B students to choose from. The type A students have veteran teachers while type B students have novice ones. Usually, a classroom has 39 students with mixed majors and each teacher has to teach three sections.

For both types of students, the first-year content is mainly implemented through the textbook *College English-Integrated Course*. However, what differs is that type A students, the high level students, start with the second volume of the textbook. By the end of the second year, they are expected to finish all six volumes of it. Type B students, the lower level ones, start from volume one of the textbook and are expected to complete four volumes by the end of their second year of learning. In addition, type A students are allowed to take the CET 4 at the end of the second semester, but type B students are only allowed to take the CET 4 at the end of their fourth semester. The reason for not allowing these students to take the CET 4 when they want is because of the university's concern for students' scores. Even though the national policy says that there is no passing score and that college students can take the test as many times as they want, students' scores on the CET 4 are closely related to the fame and evaluation of

universities in China as well as teachers' teaching evaluations (Adamson & Xia, 2011; Yang, 2015). High scores (i.e., ≥ 425), then, bode well for all stakeholders. To further improve students' CET scores, the English department at Gui University allows teachers to ignore the textbook in the fourth semester of learning in order to focus instead on test-related coaching. In other words, at Gui University, students are expected to gain a foundation of English language use through one and a half years of study.

Tong's Classroom

Tong is a thirty-one-year-old male teacher. Upon graduation in 2006 with a bachelor's degree in English, he was fortunate to get a job at his undergraduate university because he passed the Band 8 English test, the highest level exam for English majors in China. Without any training, he started to teach college English. However, not content with the teaching environment and a low salary, Tong decided to pursue a master's degree with the aim of getting a better job. After two attempts, he was finally accepted by a university in Beijing in 2008 and started his education on English-Chinese translation. Upon graduation with a master's degree in 2011, he was hired by Gui University to teach college English for type B students. At this university, Tong also got a higher salary.

From May 4, 2014 to June 18, 2014, I observed all of Tong's integrated English classes at Gui University. The classes started at 8:00a.m and ended at 9:30 a.m., and contained a five-minute break. Every other Friday, taking the place of regular college English, there was instead a 90-minute listening session where a supplementary textbook was used. The following compelling reasons illuminate why I chose Tong's classroom as

a single case study among many other textbook-centered classrooms at Gui University and others in China.

The Choice of Tong's Classroom as a Single Case

First and foremost, I was given permission to conduct research at Gui University by the dean of Tong's department. Since the Institutional Review Board (IRB) requires research site permission, I had to contact Chinese universities, ask for research permission, and submit the appropriate documentation to the University of Georgia for approval to conduct my research. Gaining permission to do research at a Chinese university is difficult as it involves having social connections in China; no school or department willingly opens its doors to strangers. As a PhD student who had left China and remained outside of the country for almost three years, it was difficult to gain permission. As a result, I called and emailed many friends for help and it took almost two months until my friend Tong agreed to help me get permission to conduct research in his department at Gui University. Because of Tong's help, I got permission, had my IRB approved, and was able to do my research at Tong's university.

Second, while at Gui University there were potentially many EFL teachers to observe, I decided to focus on Tong's classroom. As Stake (1995) noted, a "case study is not sampling research...if we can, we need to pick cases which are easy to get to and hospitable to our inquiry" (p. 4). Tong was an acquaintance of mine who I had known for five years. I met him while working on my master's degree in China. Tong and I had a mutual understanding of the teaching and learning profession, so I knew he would feel comfortable teaching as usual even though I would be in his classroom for observations. In turn, I knew I would also feel comfortable conducting research in his classroom.

Indeed, given the obvious social norms in China that value ‘face’ (Xiao, 2009), it is not convenient to elicit natural data from veteran teachers who feel their face is at stake and threatened when observed. Therefore, choosing Tong and his classroom was strategic in that we were on the same level in terms of the social hierarchy. Ultimately, this would help make both of us feel at ease during the observations and discussions, which also meant that he was more likely to act naturally in my presence.

Third, Tong’s case was selected for its representativeness (Yin, 2014). Similar to the majority of college English teachers in Tong’s university and other universities in China, Tong has limited or almost no in-service training on how to foster students’ knowledge of language use (Meng & Tajaroensuk, 2013). Tong’s teaching practices are mainly derived from his own experiences as a learner. Indeed, in a pre-study survey of his in-service professional development (see Appendix A for survey questions), he reported that he was recommended to observe some veteran teachers’ classes in his department and, in doing so, found these veteran teachers basically taught the same way as he was teaching. He also reported that he attended four professional development sessions organized by the Beijing Foreign Language Press, with each session being only two days long. In response to a question on the survey I provided about the effects of the off-campus teacher education program he attended, he stated that the professional development seemed to be unhelpful for his students because his classroom size and the students’ level were both totally different from those in the workshop he attended. In other words, Tong was not influenced by the professional development he received and thus relied on himself to teach, just like a large number of other EFL teachers do in China at the tertiary level.

Fourth, Tong's pre-service education on textbook use also made him a good case. As was also reported in the pre-study survey, Tong was never taught specifically how to use a textbook to support students' language use in context as required by the national curriculum standards. Tong was an English major at a science university when he was an undergraduate student. As an English major student, he studied core courses, such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking in a less developed city of China. However, the school he studied at did not offer any pedagogy courses, a common trend among science universities in China. Indeed, while there are hundreds of universities offering English major bachelor degrees in China, many of them focus on business English or translation since those are what can help students get a job. During Tong's graduate career, he studied the major courses, such as translation, phonology, and sociolinguistics. Again, he did not take any pedagogical courses, as they were optional. Therefore, Tong, similar to other college English teachers in China, had received little or only unhelpful pre-service professional development on how to teach effectively, especially in regards to the use of textbooks in class.

Fifth, Tong's students helped inform my decision to observe his class. In a survey I administered prior to my observations, 98% of the students reported that they mostly relied on Tong's teaching to learn English and prepare for the test, meaning they spent less than one hour studying outside of class (see Appendix A for survey questions). Therefore, the students in Tong's classroom were also representative of their counterparts in other college EFL textbook-based classrooms in China (Xu, Peng, & Wu, 2004)

Because of the above reasons, I decided to focus on Tong's classroom as a single case. Indeed, as a representative case in regards to a Chinese college EFL teacher and his

students, an in-depth exploration of Tong's beliefs and textbook use is appropriate and fruitful for answering the research questions posed in this study.

Researcher's Role and Ethics

Having decided on choosing Tong and his classroom for my research, I was then ready to collect data. However, Mears (2009) noted that before any research should begin, it is always advisable to consider the ethics of the research. In what follows, I describe the core rules that I have complied with throughout my research, keeping participants' comfort and privacy my highest concern.

Ethic Codes with Student Participants

The very first time I entered Tong's classroom, he introduced me to his students and explained the research I was doing in the U.S. I then introduced myself in terms of my study and teaching experiences in China, and my role as a friendly observer in their class, which was followed by the distribution of consent forms to his students. When all the students got the consent form, I also explained the study to them in Chinese (i.e., their first language) to better help them understand the contents of the form. When the students were reading the consent form and making decisions about their participation, both Tong and I emphasized that everyone was free to make their own choice about whether to be a participant in my study or not. I also emphasized that their personal identity would not be released in any form, which was also written on the consent forms. Fortunately, all Tong's students agreed to participate in the study.

For the one and a half months I spent in Tong's classroom, I always tried to stay as invisible to the students as possible so as not to create any inconveniences or discomfort to them. For example, I usually sat in the very back of the classroom because

I did not want to interfere with the students' learning (Marshall & Rossman, 2016; Merriam, 1988). During the five-minute class breaks, I also tried to initiate conversations with them in order to show my friendliness and put them at ease with my presence. Another purpose of establishing conversations with them was to overcome any potential interpersonal barriers that they might have had with my follow-up interviews. As Liu (2002) mentioned, shyness in Chinese students is a difficult cultural nature to overcome, especially when they are with teachers. Indeed, as scholars (e.g., Marshall & Rossman, 2016; Mears, 2009; Merriam, 1988) claimed, interviewers should always keep in mind the interviewees' psychological comfort. Only when they are comfortable can researchers elicit natural data from them.

To make students even more comfortable, I interviewed them in places, languages and times that were most convenient for them. For example, by the end of the semester, I did some semi-structured interviews with students after they finished their day of classes in places they picked such as the library, which was within walking distance of their self-study rooms. I also conducted the interviews using their language of preference (i.e., either Chinese or English). In other words, as a researcher, I always kept student participants' comfort as well as privacy in mind when collecting my data.

Ethic Codes with Tong

For Tong, I also stuck with the same ethical principles I used with the students: privacy and comfort. Regarding privacy, when I first contacted Tong, I assured him that his teaching activities would not be linked to any identifiable information in my research. It was this precondition that made him decide to help me elicit permission from his dean during my IRB application and sign the consent form before conducting my research in

his classroom. Regarding comfort, even though Tong is my acquaintance and my age, I still acted humbly and showed the utmost respect for him so as not to offend him, especially since teachers are highly respected in Chinese culture. For example, as a systemic functional linguist, I do have my own beliefs on language teaching and learning when it comes to using a textbook; however, out of respect, even when I noticed some teaching patterns that diverged from my beliefs, I never pointed them out or advised Tong's teaching in any way. At the same time, I could tell Tong also respected me for my U.S. education since Chinese culture considers studying abroad an honor. In case of any potential social distance that would cause any discomfort between Tong and me, I had many casual conversations with him after class and reassured him that nothing had changed in me. To further ensure his comfort, I also conducted interviews in English at a Café on Tong's campus, as was his preference. It was because of my efforts that Tong acted naturally both in class and out of class, arguably making him more apt to share his insights about his teaching experiences in this university. His natural performance was also evidenced in some interview answers from his students (see Appendix B for interview questions).

In sum, in the process of my data collection, research ethics were my top priority. Because of this, I was able to collect authentic data in a way that made all of my participants comfortable and stress-free. By using such care and consideration, I collected data for my research through a variety of methods (e.g., interviews, observations).

Data Collection

Informed by SFL (Halliday, 1978, 1994) and Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Vygostky, 1978) in conjunction with my research questions, my data mainly includes the following sources, elaborated upon below: (1) More than one and a half months of observations, which include about 12 hours of audio recordings of Tong and his students' interactions along with field notes of that teaching; (2) About 4 hours of interviews with Tong and 3 hours of interviews with his students; and (3) Tong's classroom artifacts (e.g., his supplementary materials and his teaching notes).

Classroom Observations

Classroom observations are crucial sources of data for researchers to understand teachers' textbook practices, as they enable researchers to "hear, see, and begin to experience reality as the participants do" (Marshall & Rossman, 2016, p. 145). Indeed, to understand how teachers actually use a textbook as a teaching resource, it is imperative to examine the actual classroom. Relying solely on teachers' own reports of their instructional practices would not allow for an exploration of the dynamic interaction between teachers and students in a textbook-based classroom, given that learning occurs on the interpersonal plane between two parties as a mediated discourse (Halliday, 1978; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Therefore, to gain first-hand data, I observed Tong's college English class weekly on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays from May 4, 2014 to June 18, 2014.

My observations were guided by a structured and non-intrusive observation log (see Appendix C). That is, I made a guide beforehand regarding what I wanted to observe (i.e., how Tong mediated his students' language learning through textbook use), and I had no intention of actively participating in Tong's class in any form and I did not break with this intention at any point during my time with him and his students. To this end, I entered the class earlier than both the teacher and students and seated myself at the very back so that I could see every detail of the class from start to end, without interfering with their teaching and learning activities. Indeed, this location not only helped me to exist unobtrusively in the class but also gave me a flexible space to stand up and stretch out while observing such intensive classes. During the observations, I used a Sony ICD-PX312 to record Tong's lectures and all student-teacher interactions. At the same time, I also took field notes as a reminder for my later analyses.

By means of classroom observations, I was able to gain real insight into the teacher-student interactions in this textbook-based classroom. In addition, I was also able to gain an understanding of the classroom setting in a more clear sense, as I familiarized myself with the classroom equipment, seating arrangement, and attendance of the students. Altogether, I had about 12 hours of audio-recordings from my classroom observations and 10 pages of notes, which enabled me to gain insight into the focal teacher's teaching practices.

Interviews with Tong and His Students

My interviews with Tong are one of the most important sources of data in this study. The interviews were audio recorded on my Sony ICD-PX312. The interviews served two purposes. First, the interviews were the major channel of elicitation for

Tong's beliefs about textbook use. The interviews were semi-structured with the questions mainly informed by Calderhead's (1996) five categories of beliefs that I expanded on in Chapter 3 (see Appendix B for the interview questions). However, I did ask additional questions during the interviews, as I saw fit and based on my observations. For example, I asked further questions regarding his beliefs about his interactions with a class of 37 students.

Second, Tong's interview answers served another purpose: to provide contextualized explanations for his belief discourse and classroom discourse, as discourse, from the perspective of SFL, is a meaning-making process in context (Borg, 2006; Halliday, 1994). To this end, I had Tong reflect upon factors that impacted his beliefs as well as his teaching practices. These interview questions were not released to Tong until the end of the semester in order to ensure he provided honest answers.

During the interview, my intention was to elicit as much information as possible from him so that I could conduct a micro discourse analysis of his teaching beliefs and use theme identification for explanatory purposes. To this end, I encouraged him to expand on the narration of his beliefs and the contextual factors that shaped his beliefs and practices. For example, in regards to teaching the reading materials in the textbook, I asked him questions such as *can you give me an example?* I also told him beforehand that if he could not understand my questions, he could ask me for clarification. For example, he seemed unresponsive to one of my questions because of the word *curriculum*. I thus explained it to him in Chinese and elicited a much fuller response. Similarly, I also provided prompting questions to stimulate his reflection; all these prompting questions were informed by literature (Borg, 2006; Fives & Gill, 2015; see

also Fives & Buehl, 2012), such as his personal learning experiences and school experiences as well as the local teaching policies and national policy. It was through such a friendly negotiation that I completed my first round of interviewing in English with him regarding his beliefs on the use of textbooks as well as his reflection on the contextual factors that impacted his belief discourse and classroom discourse.

When I had all of my data, I immediately started to listen to it. There were, however, some questions I was confused about. For example, he mentioned in passing that it was important to teach the connection of words in a paragraph. This belief statement did not come as a surprise to me as I had observed it happening in class, but I was confused because the reasons he gave for this belief were not compatible with his narration of his exposure to the grammar-translation method that he mentioned in the same interview. In this scenario, as Creswell (2007) contended, it is always optimal to have a follow-up interview when any confusion occurs. Thus, to investigate my confusion based on this first listening of the raw data, I did a second interview about three weeks later. This interview gave me supplementary data and clarified my confusions about Tong's first-round interview answers. All together I collected about four hours of interview data.

Using the same method, I also elicited data through semi-structured interviews with students about their teachers' textbook use (see Appendix B). The student interviews also had two purposes. One was to check whether or not Tong's practices were the same as before I came, based on the perceptions of his students. If there were any differences, I planned to eliminate those chunks of data, but fortunately I did not have to do this. The other reason I interviewed the students was to elicit their learning

experiences in the classroom. Indeed, the students were important interlocutors that constituted the context of situation for the teacher's teaching practices in the classroom. Therefore, their reflections on their experiences in the textbook-based classroom provided additional contextual information and explanations of Tong's meaning-making in his classroom teaching discourse.

All 37 students in Tong's class accepted my interview invitation so I sent them a schedule and had them select the times that best suited them. In the end, however, only 12 students out of the 37 were actually interviewed. The remaining 25, despite agreeing to participate, did not show up for a variety of reasons (e.g., discomfort in talking about the educational system they are in, forgot the appointment, uninterested in the research anymore). Given the limited proficiency of the students' spoken English, I allowed them to talk in whatever language was easiest for them to express their experiences in Tong's classroom. All the interviews were conducted when they had finished the spring semester and were preparing for final exams. The reason I chose to interview them during that time was because they had a one-year learning experience with Tong and the textbook by then, which was ample time for them to reflect on their experiences in the textbook-based classroom. Altogether, I have about three hours of student interview data.

Collection of Tong's Artifacts

The collection of written artifacts was aimed at providing additional information for Tong's teaching practices in the textbook-based classroom. Tong's written artifacts included his teaching notes, which are mostly in PowerPoint format, and supplementary materials such as the listening and writing materials used in class.

In sum, through classroom observations, interviews, and the collection of teaching and learning materials, I was able to create the following two categories of data: (1) Verbal artifacts, which include Tong's belief discourse about textbook use in teaching college English, his textbook use with students in the classroom, students' interviews on their learning experience in Tong's classroom, and Tong's interviews on the factors that shaped his beliefs; and (2) Written artifacts, which include Tong's teaching notes and supplementary materials.

Data Transcription and Coding

Based on the different types of data that I collected, my transcription practices differed. For my audio-recorded classroom discourse data, when a day's class was over, I would immediately listen to the recording and transcribe it in the focal university's library while making reference to my field notes. I did this because my own observations at that time were fresh in my memory. This audio-recorded data was also transcribed in a multimodal way (Cameron, 2001). That is, in addition to the verbatim transcription of Tong's classroom discourse, I transcribed Tong's and his students' paralinguistic features (e.g., intonation) because both verbal and non-verbal information constructs classroom discourse as a meaning-making process (Cameron, 2001; Halliday, 1994).

For the interview data about Tong's narration of his beliefs about textbook use and his reflections on the contextual influences on his beliefs and practices, I only conducted verbatim transcription. This is because configurations of lexical resources informed the interpretation of Tong's evaluative stances (i.e., beliefs) (Martin & White, 2005), and verbatim transcription was also enough for a thematic analysis of contextual constraints (Creswell, 2007; Wan, Low, & Li, 2011). However, unlike my transcriptions

of the class recordings, the two rounds of interview data with Tong were transcribed and then sent to him for review. This was done because sharing gave him the opportunity to correct or enhance what was said and ensure it was represented accurately (Mero-Jaffe, 2011). When I finished the transcriptions, I thus asked Tong to review my work to see whether he needed to delete or add to his answers. In addition to his revision of the grammatical mistakes in his interviews, Tong took this opportunity to delete some commentary, though he did not add anything. For example, he deleted his answer to the reason for the adoption of the textbook in his department; his original answer was about the publisher's social connection with his university and department. However, he deleted this response and wrote *I am not clear*. Since textbook adoption is not the focus of this research, I decided not to ask him about it to avoid embarrassing him or putting him in an uncomfortable situation. For the students' interviews, I engaged in the same process. Interestingly, none of the 12 student participants made any revisions to my transcriptions.

In the next stage, I coded the data. As Gläser and Laudel (2013) noted, coding is a transitional but important process in moving from transcription to analysis. However, coding is not a single task as it always involves repetition and relooking at datasets. To this end, I read my transcripts many times and engaged first in open coding, which means that I categorized my data based on different levels of beliefs, practices or contextual factors. Take Tong's belief discourse for example. I read the verbatim transcription many times and categorized his belief discourse into five dimensions (Calderhead, 1996) following the deletion of irrelevant information (e.g., my prompting questions). I also made necessary combinations/adjustments to Tong's belief discourse segments since the

open coding showed that Tong occasionally narrated his beliefs about two literacies at the same time (e.g., he talked about his beliefs about reading and writing when he was asked about reading). For the classroom discourse transcription, I also engaged in a similar process. I deleted irrelevant data (e.g., student-teacher chatting on a Chinese drama) and divided classroom activities in accordance with the literacy represented in the textbook (e.g., listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and also further segmented each classroom activity on the basis of the specific language learning (e.g., grammar and word learning in the reading activity). For supplementary interviews aimed at eliciting contextual explanations of Tong's belief discourse and textbook-based classroom discourse, I coded each sentence of the interviews by circling key concepts that might be considered as either cultural (e.g., CET 4) or situational factors (e.g., Tong's relationship with his students).

After completing the open coding and rechecking it several times, I then engaged in axial coding. Since one key purpose of this study is about using discourse analysis to investigate teachers' belief discourse and textbook-based classroom discourse while providing contextual explanations, my axial coding was conducted in the following two ways. First, informed by SFL's discourse perspective (see Chapter 3), my axial coding of Tong's belief discourse and classroom discourse was based on the unit of a clause, as a clause is the smallest unit in discourse that carries meaning (Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 1994). All clauses were consecutively numbered in the process of data transcription, but discourse segments used in this study are recoded from number one for readers' visual convenience. For clausal codes, I then coded lexical resources in Tong's belief discourse and mood types in Tong's classroom discourse (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen,

2004; Martin & White, 2005). In the way of lexico-grammatical resources coded (e.g., lexical resources and mood types) in each clause, I was able to decide on the patterns of appraisal resources and speech functions that manifested Tong's beliefs and Tong's mediation in a textbook-based classroom.

Take Tong's belief discourse data for example. In it, I did an axial coding of each clause by identifying key lexical resources that helped realize Tong's evaluative stances (i.e., his beliefs) (Borg, 2001; Martin & White, 2005). By doing so, I was able to find patterns of his five categories of belief discourse, which also helped me decide on data extraction and analysis in my findings chapter (i.e., Chapter 6). In a similar vein, my axial coding of classroom discourse segments (e.g., listening activities, reading activities) was conducted by identifying mood types (i.e., the order of subject and verb) of each clause in moves⁶ as mood types are closely related to the realization of speech function (Eggins & Slade, 1997). Based on this axial coding, along with attention to the paralinguistic features I transcribed, I was then able to identify the interactional patterns in terms of how Tong mediated his students' understandings of language use through the textbook. This also allowed me to select and analyze sample discourse extracts in my findings chapter (i.e., Chapter 7).

Second, for the supplementary interviews that were used to inform my contextual understanding of Tong's meaning making in his belief discourse and classroom discourses, I identified and combined the themes in the process of my axial coding. This is because theme-based analysis is enough to provide contextual information for informing Tong's belief discourse and classroom discourse (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 1998; Wan, Low, & Li, 2011).

⁶ In the sense of SFL, a move is a turn taken by a speaker. It could consist of more than one clause (Eggins, 2004).

Data Analysis

To show and analyze all of the data transcribed and coded would be impractical given that some parts were not relevant to my study. In other words, I chose parts of the data that best illustrate Tong’s belief discourse and classroom discourse and surface particular answers to my research questions. The full analysis of data excerpts is presented in Chapters 6 and 7. In the following subsections, I provide a sample analysis to highlight the process I went through.

Based on the two research questions, the analysis in this current study explores the connection among Tong’s belief discourse, classroom discourse and context (see Table 5.1 below for an overview).

Table 5.1 <i>Analytic Methods Adopted in the Study</i>	
	Analytic methods
Research Question 1	1. How does the focal teacher exemplify his beliefs about EFL textbook use? a. An SFL-based appraisal analysis of Tong’s evaluative stances was conducted to show Tong’s beliefs. b. A thematic analysis of Tong’s supplementary interviews (e.g., his narration of his learning and schooling experiences) served to contextually inform his meaning making in his belief discourse.
Research Question 2	2. How does the focal teacher enact his textbook use in the classroom? a. An SFL-based speech function analysis of classroom discourse was conducted to show how teacher talk as the most important semiotic tool was used to mediate students’ understandings. b. A thematic analysis of Tong and his students’ supplementary interviews was utilized to contextually inform Tong’s classroom discourse.

As shown in Table 5.1, data analysis in the whole of my study is characterized by exemplifying how two SFL-based discourse semantic constructs, namely, the speech function and appraisal system, participate in showing Tong’s beliefs and how he mediated students’ understanding of the textbook content (Halliday, 1994; Martin & White, 2005). In addition, to provide a contextual understanding of his classroom and

belief discourse as a meaning-making process from the perspective of SFL, additional data fragments from the interviews (i.e., Tong’s reflections on his textbook use, students’ reflection on Tong’s teaching practices with the textbook) were used to provide contextual explanations for Tong’s belief discourse and classroom discourse.

SFL-based Appraisal Analysis

One extract from the data that is related to his beliefs on reading instruction is shown below in Table 5.2.

Lexico-grammar	Appraisal resources
1. <i>I think</i> reading in the textbook <i>should</i> be taught in the following ways. 2. First, a teacher <i>should</i> provide some background information of a text. 3. When I talk about women rights in a text in the book, I shared equal rights awareness. 4. Second, a teacher <i>should</i> divide a text into paragraphs, based on meaning. 5. Third, a teacher <i>should</i> explain words and grammar to students, teach pronunciation and how language is used to show the connection or fluency of the text...	Engagement: Expansion Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Judgment

As illustrated in Table 5.2 (see Appendix D for transcription conventions), Tong used four modalized resources (i.e., *should*) to show his judgment about reading instruction strategies when using the textbook.

SFL-based Speech Function Analysis

Table 5.3 below provides a sample analysis of an in-class interaction to show how the focal teacher’s practices were implemented in his textbook-based classroom by highlighting his speech functions.

Speaker	Move	Mood Type	Speech function	Notation
Tong	1.Ok (.) ↑ 2.lets’ move to the paragraph ↓ 2. What is the	-- ⁷ Imperative Interrogative	Command Command Question	Tong started to dissect a paragraph with his students 1. He read sentence 1: <i>The story of our English languages typically massive stealing from other languages.</i>

⁷ Minor clauses have no mood types; their speech functions are decided on the basis of paralinguistic features.

	meaning of the word massive(.)?↑ 3. Massive 什么意思啊? ↑	Interrogative	Question	When finished reading the first sentence, he asked the meaning of the word <i>massive</i> . He also switched to Chinese to ask for the meaning of the word.
Student A	1. Large in scale, amount or degree↓	--	Answer	One student in the very front row read the annotation for the word in the book.
Tong	1.= Um, good. ↓ 2. 大量的, 大规模的↓	-- --	Acknowledgement Acknowledgement	Tong made an evaluation of the student's answer and continued reading the following sentences in the paragraph.

As shown in Table 5.3 (see Appendix D for transcription conventions), Tong used an interrogative sentence in the second clause to ask students to provide the meaning of a word, which ultimately helped lead them through the text. In a similar way, I also analyzed other extracts from my data to show Tong's teaching practices with the textbook and how he mediated his students' understanding through speech functions.

Thematic Analysis of the Contextually Driven Explanations

In order to enhance my analysis, I also drew from the themes identified from supplementary interviews with the teacher and students to learn about the factors that shaped Tong's beliefs and teaching practices. These themes provided contextual explanations for his meaning making in his belief discourse and teaching practices. For example, one theme was his exposure to the grammar-translation method as a student, which helped to explain his preferred reading strategy of teaching words, as mentioned in the above sample analysis. Indeed, embedded in my study, which takes a socio-semiotic perspective, are contextual explanations, as those are crucial for understanding Tong's discourse.

Limitations of the Study

As a qualitative case study, the findings gleaned here cannot be considered universally generalizable, meaning that there is context-dependent transferability. In

other words, this study cannot shed light on all teachers across every university in China or even on all textbook-based classrooms. However, the research purpose is not for generalization across any educational settings. Rather, the study aims to contribute to scarce literature on the relationship between language teachers' beliefs and textbook use, and also to provide a new approach for exploring the relationship from a social semiotic perspective. Therefore, the findings from this single case are sufficient only for the current research purposes, though there are wider pedagogical implications at play.

Another limitation is related to Martin and White's (2005) SFL-based appraisal framework for evaluative stances (i.e., teachers' beliefs). Even though "the nature of the source and target of evaluation" (p. 61) can help us identify evaluative resources, Martin and White pointed out that some type of lexical resources "arguably construe both affect and judgment at the same time" (p. 60). That is, linguistic resources have a fuzzy boundary, which makes it really hard to decide on their evaluative meanings. In my analysis, I encountered such situations many times. Take *students do not study* in Tong's belief discourse for example. It makes sense to interpret Tong to be either expressing his disappointment or judging his students' negatively. Another example is *I have been using the book for about three and a half years*. The lexical resource *for about three and a half years* is a graduation resource, but in this instance, it also conveys Tong's positive attitude toward himself. In these situations, I would consult Tong for first-hand information. Indeed, it means that there is a certain limitation to the analytic approach used in the current study, as Martin and White did not provide an exhaustive list of resources for researchers, an obviously impossible task.

Third, the elicitation of teachers' beliefs or the conception from teachers' mind, in whatever form, cannot be exhaustive (Thompson, 1992). Indeed, teachers' beliefs are abstract in nature. While I tried my hardest to encourage Tong to say as much as possible, it is very likely that I failed to capture some of his beliefs in regards to his textbook use in the textbook-based classroom.

Last but not least, since translation is also a literacy required by China's college English curriculum standards, it would be interesting to explore Tong's translation beliefs and practices in the textbook-based classroom. Unfortunately, I was not able to collect data on Tong's textbook-based translation teaching, which was limited by the two following factors. First, no materials used in Tong's classroom included translation instruction content, even though there are translation exercises in the textbook *College English-Integrated Course*. Second, Tong explained that translation is complex and his students needed to lay a good language foundation this year before he was going to teach some skills in the coming year (i.e., the second year of their learning) (Interview with Tong). Tong thus only translated reading texts from English to Chinese on his own during reading instruction and provided answers to students' translation practices (Chinese to English translation) in the textbook *College English-Integrated Course*.

Summary

This chapter reports on how and why a qualitative case study approach, along with SFL as an analytic tool, was used to analyze verbal and non-verbal data in this study. In particular, the first section delineates why a qualitative case study approach is appropriate for the current study while section two justifies the focus on Tong and the research site. Section three provides a description of the ethics code I complied with

throughout the process of data collection. Sections four and five provide a picture of data collection, transcription, and coding. Section six shows examples of data analysis. Section seven points out the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER 6

THE EFL TEACHER'S BELIEFS ABOUT TEXTBOOK USE

From the perspective of the SFL-based appraisal system (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Martin & White, 2005; Harman & Simmons, 2014), this chapter shows how Tong, the EFL teacher selected for this study, revealed his evaluative stances and therefore his beliefs about EFL textbook use. Section one contains an appraisal analysis of discourse segments produced by Tong (Calderhead, 1996; Martin & White, 2005). The second section of the chapter shows how supplementary interviews were used as an interpretative tool to provide contextual explanations for Tong's belief discourse (Creswell, 2011; Halliday, 1978; Martin & White, 2005; Wan, Low, & Li, 2011). The final section summarizes these findings.

Tong's Beliefs as Evaluative Stances

As discussed in Chapter 2 on the SFL-based appraisal system, teachers' beliefs are related to their evaluative stances and shaped by a context of culture and situation (Halliday, 1978; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Mansour, 2009; Martin & White, 2005). In the following sections, I expand on how Tong showed his evaluative stances about EFL textbook use through three appraisal resources: Attitude, Engagement and Graduation. I then use the analysis of the supplementary interviews to show how a specific context of culture and situation informed the construction of Tong's evaluative stances.

As has been mentioned throughout the study, the exploration of Tong’s beliefs about textbook use is informed by Calderhead’s (1996) five categorizations of beliefs: (1) beliefs about students as textbook users; (2) beliefs about his teaching role as a textbook user; (3) beliefs about teacher education on how to use textbooks; (4) beliefs about the language literacy represented in textbooks; and (5) beliefs about the instruction of language literacy represented in textbooks. Therefore, the following subsections include an SFL-based appraisal analysis of the above five categories of Tong’s beliefs.

Tong’s Beliefs about Students as Textbook Users

Teachers’ conceptions of their students and how they learn is an important component of their teaching beliefs as it can influence how they implement classroom activities (Calderhead, 1996; Tatto, 1996; Turner, Christensen, & Meyer, 2009). Since this study focuses on a teacher’s beliefs about textbook use in the classroom, it is crucial to consider teachers’ beliefs about students’ learning behavior. To this end, Tong’s discourse about his students as textbook users was elicited and analyzed as one component of his beliefs about textbook use.

An appraisal analysis of one illustrative discourse segment in Table 6.1 below shows that Tong had mixed beliefs about the majority of his students as textbook users both in class and out of class. That is, Tong held a negative yet empathetic evaluative stance towards his students who were not devoted textbook users in or out of class.

Table 6.1 <i>Tong’s Belief Discourse about His Students as Textbook Users</i>	
Lexico-grammar	Appraisal resources

<p>1. In class, <i>a small portion</i> of students is <i>really</i> listening when I am lecturing, and 2. <i>actively</i> participate in my class activities. 3. The rest of them seemed <i>sleepy</i> or 4. <i>not interested at all</i>.</p>	<p>Graduation: Force Graduation: Force Graduation: Force Attitude: Judgment Graduation: Force Attitude: Judgment</p>
<p>5. After class, I also asked them to preview new learning content in the textbook and exercise out of class, 6. but <i>some of them never do</i> that.</p>	<p>Graduation: Force Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Affect</p>
<p>7. <i>I could not help...</i> 8. I can <i>only</i> ask them to study the textbook in class. 9. They are college students and 10. they <i>really need to learn by themselves</i>: practice reading, speaking, listening and writing by themselves.</p>	<p>Graduation: Force Graduation: Force Attitude: Judgment</p>
<p>11. Relying on in-class learning is <i>not enough</i> 12. But <i>I understand</i> they have a <i>heavy</i> course load, and 13. they are <i>non-English major students</i>. 14. For <i>most of them</i>, learning English is <i>just</i> to pass tests and get a good job.</p>	<p>Attitude: Affect Engagement: Expand Attitude: Appreciation Attitude: Judgment Graduation: Force Graduation: Force</p>

As illustrated in Table 6.1, Tong demonstrated his negative evaluative stance

toward the majority of his students as bad textbook users in class mainly through attitude and graduation resources. For example, through the judgment resource *sleepy* in clause 3 as well as the graduated judgment resource *not interested at all* in clause 4, Tong showed his negative evaluative stance toward his students' lack of participation in learning through the textbook. Similarly, through the judgment resource *never do that* in clause 5 and the intensified judgment resource *really need to learn by themselves* in clause 10, Tong displayed his negative evaluative stance toward students who did not preview new content or do exercises in the textbook after class. In addition, through the affect resource *I could not help* in clause 7 and indirectly through the graduation resource *only* in clause 8, Tong demonstrated his frustration with his students, as he could do nothing to motivate them to learn in or out of class. His frustration further exemplified his negative evaluative stance toward most of his students who did not actively learn through the textbook. In other words, through these appraisal resources, Tong projected his negative

evaluative stance as his belief that most of his students were not invested in learning English.

As is also shown in Table 6.1, Tong displayed an empathetic stance towards his students. To illustrate this, Tong used the engagement resource *I understand* in clause 12 to highlight his personal opinion along with the attitude resources *heavy course load* in clause 12 and *non-English major students* in clause 13. That is, Tong realized that his students were not English majors and that they had other content to learn, so he did not believe it was realistic to expect them to be invested in learning English. He further implicitly expressed his empathy through the graduation resources *most of them* and *just* in clause 14 by positing that for his students, English learning is a tool for preparing for tests and getting a good job. In other words, despite his negative evaluative stance toward his students as textbook users in class and after class, Tong also manifested his empathetic belief that his students were not devoted to learning, which can be understandably attributed to their lack of internal motivation.

As seen above, an SFL-based appraisal analysis shows that Tong's beliefs about students as textbook users in and out of class were mixed. He manifested his negative evaluative stance that most of his students were not motivated to learn through the textbook in or out of class. Yet, Tong also showed his empathetic belief that his non-English major students' failure to make full use of the textbooks as a learning resource in and out of class was because of their lack of internal motivation.

Tong's Beliefs about His Teaching Role as Textbook Users

As scholars (e.g., Lipka & Brinthaupt, 1999; Seymen, 2012) suggested, teachers' beliefs about their teaching roles are also a crucial component of their belief system. This

Table 6.2 shows that Tong used all three types of appraisal resources, especially judgment resources and graduation resources, to show his positive evaluative stance toward his teaching role in the textbook-based classroom. For example, Tong initiated the discourse segment through the engagement resource *I think* in clause 1 to emphasize his personal proposition regarding his self-judgment as a *qualified teacher* in the same clause. Tong then used the self-judgment resources *try hard* three times in clause 3, 4, and 5, along with *guided* in clause 6 and *enhance* in clause 7, to highlight himself as a tenacious teacher who was devoted to supporting his students' textbook-based learning in class. Echoing his positive evaluative stance toward himself, the graduation resources in Tong's discourse segment also indirectly exemplified his self-judgment as a devoted teacher, such as *for about three and a half years* in clause 2, *as much as they can* in clause 3, *in very detail* in clause 4, and *again and again* in clause 5. In other words, in an effort to show his positive evaluative stances, Tong demonstrated his belief that he was a competent textbook user and teacher through both judgment and graduation resources.

In addition, Table 6.2 also shows how Tong, mainly through graduation resources, specifically emphasized his positive evaluative stance about his teaching role not just as a mechanical knowledge transmitter of the textbook in class but as a mediator. For instance, in response to his students' lack of motivation of learning after class, Tong used the graduation resources *often* in clause 10 and *as much as I can* in clause 11 and implicitly exemplified his positive evaluation of himself as an active mediator in connecting what students had learned and what they would learn in class. In other words, through these positive evaluative resources, Tong, in this belief discourse segment, further displayed his belief about his teaching role by particularly positioning himself as a

mediator who constantly bridged students' prior and new knowledge in the process of textbook use.

In sum, an SFL-based appraisal analysis of Tong's belief discourse about his teaching role in a textbook-based classroom illuminates that he had a primary belief and derivative belief, with the latter being more specific than the former (Thompson, 1992). The primary belief is Tong's positive evaluation of himself as a confident and determined teacher in a textbook-based classroom; the derivative belief is his positive self-evaluation as a knowledge mediator when supplying his students with knowledge from the textbook.

Tong's Beliefs about His Teacher Education and Textbook Use

Exposure to pre-service and in-service education are pivotal factors that shape teachers' cognition (e.g., Attia, 2014; Lortie, 1975; Peacock, 2001; Sanger & Osguthorpe, 2011; Sharma & Sokal, 2013) and in turn, may influence their teaching practices, including their textbook use. Therefore, Calderhead (1996) proposed that their experiences learning to teach be one category of their beliefs. In terms of teachers' beliefs about textbook use, it is also compelling to include beliefs about their past and on-going education with textbook use. Therefore, in compliance with Calderhead's categorization, Tong's belief discourse about learning to use a language textbook was elicited and analyzed.

An SFL-based appraisal analysis of one illustrative discourse segment, which can be seen in Table 6.3 below, shows that Tong had a negative evaluative stance toward his prior teacher education experience, but a positive stance toward teachers themselves in improving their textbook use practices.

Table 6.3 <i>Tong's Belief Discourse about Teacher Education on Textbook Use</i>	
Lexico-grammar	Appraisal resources

<p>1. <i>I think</i> in-service professional development was <i>not useful</i> on how to use textbook. 2. It is <i>short</i> and 3. <i>I felt</i> I learned <i>a little bit</i>, such as how to interact with <i>advanced</i> students in English. 4. But in my classroom, my students' level is <i>limited</i> and 5. speaking English all the time seemed <i>impossible</i>. 6. for pre-service education, I also <i>did not have chance</i> to learn how to use the textbook. 7. But I also <i>feel a need to</i> rely on myself to improve my teaching. 8. For example, I used to <i>purely</i> focus on teaching grammar and words from the textbook, 11. but I now <i>gradually</i> realized that it is <i>helpful</i> to help students see how meaning was organized, such as though cohesive ties to create a fluent text 9. <i>I really think</i> if teachers reflect on their teaching, and they can improve their teaching.</p>	<p>Engagement: Expand Attitude: Appreciation Attitude: Appreciation Engagement: Expand Graduation: Force Attitude: Appreciation Attitude: Appreciation Attitude: Appreciation Attitude: Appreciation Attitude: Judgment Graduation: Force Graduation: Force Attitude: Appreciation Graduation: Force Engagement: Expand</p>
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As shown in Table 6.3 above, in addition to the use of two engagement resources

(i.e., *I think* in clause 1, *I feel* in clause 3), Tong primarily used attitudinal resources, especially those associated with appreciation, to project his negative evaluative stance toward both his in-service and pre-service education on textbook use. For example, Tong utilized a chain of appreciation resources, such as *not useful* in clause 1 and *short* in clause 2, to indicate the uselessness of in-service education on teaching and textbook use. As an elaboration of his attitude, he used the appreciation resource *limited* in clause 4 to appraise his students' English proficiency level and justify why the in-service training designed for advanced students was not suitable for his own class where many of his students could not speak English all the time. Similarly, he also used an appreciation resource, that is, *not have chance to learn how to use textbook* in clause 6, to imply the unhelpfulness of his pre-service education on how to teach through a textbook. In other words, these negative attitudinal resources (i.e., appreciation) well illustrates his belief that the professional education he received on textbook use was not effective and useful for his own classroom where students had low English proficiency.

As is also shown in Table 6.3, Tong utilized the three types of appraisal resources and demonstrated his positive evaluative stance that teachers should educate themselves about how to use a textbook effectively rather than relying on pre-service or in-service education. For instance, Tong used the graduation resources *purely* in clause 8 and *gradually* in clause 11 to indirectly show his positive evaluative stance toward his journey of relying on himself to change his teaching through the textbook by focusing on the textual meaning of a text (i.e., how to organize language in a coherent way), despite the slow process. His positive evaluative stance toward self-education was also particularly complemented by his use of the graduated engagement resource *I really think* to highlight his positive evaluative stance toward the influence of using oneself as a powerful source for other teachers in similar contexts. Hence, through these appraisal resources, Tong clearly projected his belief about the role of the self on improving teaching through the textbook by exemplifying his own positive experience with self-education.

As seen above, an SFL-based appraisal analysis shows two strands of Tong's beliefs about teacher education in relation to textbook use. Specifically, one strand of Tong's beliefs is his negative evaluative stance toward the uselessness of in-service and pre-service education on his instructional use of the textbook. At the same time, there is also another strand of beliefs that is concerned with Tong's positive evaluative stance toward teachers educating themselves to become effective textbook users (Gebhard, 1996; Mushayikwa & Lubben, 2009; Richards, Gallo, & Renandya, 2001).

Tong's Beliefs about English Literacy and Literacy Instruction

Beliefs about English literacy and how it is to be instructed are crucial since they are closely related to in-class teaching and hence textbook use (Allen, 2014; Borg, 2006; Calderhead, 1996). Indeed, as mentioned earlier in the literature review chapter, how teachers conceptualize language literacy and teaching can influence their teaching practices (Borg, 2006). Since the textbook used in Tong's classroom mainly included listening, speaking, reading and writing, the following subsections thus discuss Tong's belief discourse about these four types of literacy and their instruction.

English listening and its instruction. Regarding English listening, Tong held a positive evaluative stance that listening involves students' knowledge of word meaning and word pronunciation as well as their constant attention and focus (Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2014), as is shown by one illustrative discourse segment and its accompanying appraisal analysis in Table 6.4 below.

Table 6.4 <i>Tong's Belief Discourse about Listening Literacy</i>	
Lexico-grammar	Appraisal resources
1. Listening is a test of students' <i>comprehensive language knowledge</i> : pronunciation, words. 2. For example, if students have a <i>bad pronunciation</i> or are <i>not familiar with some words</i> , he would <i>feel difficult</i> to do listening. 3. This happens to many of my students. 4. <i>I think</i> to develop listening skills students have to work <i>really hard</i> in daily time in class and out of class. 5. It <i>really</i> takes <i>a long time</i> for them to do so	Attitude: Appreciation Attitude: Appreciation Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Judgment Engagement: Expand Graduation: Force Attitude: Judgment Graduation: Force Attitude: Appreciation

As illustrated in Table 6.4, Tong mainly utilized attitudinal resources to show his positive evaluative stance that listening involves students' use of language knowledge and individual words. For example, Tong particularly used the appreciation resource

comprehensive language knowledge in clause 1 to emphasize that listening skills lie in students' auditory understanding of both words and pronunciation. As an elaboration of this evaluative stance, Tong further showed his positive evaluative stance toward the importance of students' knowledge of word meanings and their pronunciation in the process of decoding auditory materials by using a chain of judgment resources in clause 2: *bad pronunciation, not familiar* and *very difficult* along with *if...would*. Indeed, by appraising the relationship between students' lack of such language knowledge and their failure with listening comprehension, Tong demonstrated his belief in terms of his emphasis on the connection between students' listening competency and their language knowledge (i.e., their familiarity with word pronunciation and meaning).

Similarly, using the three types of appraisal resources shown in Table 6. 4, Tong highlighted his positive evaluative stance toward the importance of constant listening in developing students' listening literacy. For example, Tong particularly highlighted his personal evaluative stance toward the connection between their listening skills with decoding auditory materials and their devotion to listening practices. He showed this through his use of the engagement resource *I think* and the graduated judgment resource *work really hard* in clause 3 as well as the graduated appreciation resource *really...long time* in clause 5. In other words, Tong conveyed his belief that these skills could only be developed in the long run through EFL students' repeated listening.

Echoing his beliefs about listening literacy, Tong's belief about listening instruction was characterized by his positive evaluative stance toward teachers' use of drill practice to support students' listening skills. An appraisal analysis of one illustrative discourse segment is displayed in Table 6.5 below.

Table 6.5 <i>Tong's Belief Discourse about Listening Instruction</i>	
Lexico-grammar	Appraisal resource
In addition to teaching words and their pronunciations, <i>I think</i> teachers <i>should</i> <i>repeatedly</i> play recording <i>many times</i> until students understand the content. 2. Sometimes, some words or expressions <i>might be difficult</i> to understand during their first time listening. 3. But if I play <i>many times</i> , students will understand. 4. Next time, they would understand it. 5. There is <i>no secret</i> for being successful listener. 6. The only one is to let students <i>keep listening</i> .	Engagement: Expand Attitude: Judgment Graduation: Force Graduation: Force Attitude: Appreciation Graduation: Force Attitude: Appreciation Attitude: Judgment

As shown in Table 6.5, Tong used all three types of appraisal resources, especially attitudinal and graduation resources, to show his positive evaluative stance toward drill practice-based listening instruction. For instance, he started the discourse segment with the engagement resource *I think* in clause 1 to highlight his personal belief about the importance of drill practices in the process of listening instruction. Along with the engagement resource in the same clause, Tong used the graduation resources *repeatedly*, *many times* and the attitude resource *should* to make both the implicit and explicit judgment that a teacher must show tenacity as well as patience when using recordings to facilitate students' understandings of the content of listening materials, including the pronunciation and meaning of words. Tong then elaborated on his belief through the appreciation resource *might be difficult* in clause 2 to show the complexity regarding students' perceptions of some words/expressions when listening. At the same time, using the graduation resource *many times* in clause 3, he implicitly demonstrated his self-judgment about his own tenacity in tackling such a situation through drill practice. As a coda to this belief segment, Tong made a further evaluation of the complexity of listening through the appreciation resource *no secret of being a successful listener* in clause 5 while presenting his judgment that an ideal teacher should use drill

practices in the classroom through the judgment resource *let students keep listening* in clause 6. In other words, an analysis of these appraisal resources illuminates Tong’s positive evaluative stance and thus his belief that teachers should adopt drill teaching to support their students’ listening competency.

In sum, an SFL-based appraisal analysis shows that Tong held a belief that listening involves students’ auditory knowledge of words along with constant practice. The analysis also reveals that, echoing his belief about listening literacy, Tong also held a belief that teachers needed to utilize drill practices to help students get used to the pronunciation and the meaning of words and then facilitate their comprehension of the listening materials through a repeated teaching process.

Tong’s beliefs about speaking and speaking instruction. An appraisal analysis of one illustrative discourse segment in Table 6.5 below shows Tong’s positive evaluative stance that speaking is concerned with his students’ use of their linguistic knowledge (e.g., pronunciation skills) to express their thoughts, and that speaking requires students to have good listening competency.

Table 6.6 <i>Tong’s Belief Discourse about Speaking Literacy</i>	
Lexico-grammar	Appraisal resources
1. Speaking, <i>I think</i> , is about expressing ideas. 2. It is <i>really important</i> skill for students. 3 <i>Admittedly</i> , learning English is to use English. 4. To <i>speak well</i> , students <i>need to</i> have <i>good</i> vocabulary and pronunciations, grammar knowledge, and use them <i>properly</i> to express meaning. 5. Speaking is <i>really closed related to listening</i> . 6. <i>If</i> they do <i>not</i> understand, <i>they</i> do <i>not</i> know how to catch on with a topic.	Engagement: Expand Graduation: Force Attitude: Appreciation Engagement: Contraction Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Judgment Graduation: Force Attitude: Appreciation Attitude: Judgment

As shown in Table 6.6, Tong primarily used attitudinal resources (e.g., judgment and appreciation resources) to show his positive evaluative stance toward the connection

between students' linguistic knowledge and their speaking literacy. Specifically, Tong used the engagement resource *I think* in clause 1 to initiate this discourse segment as well as highlight his personal evaluative stance that speaking is about expressing ideas through a spoken channel. To elaborate on this belief, he also highlighted the value of speaking literacy through the intensified appreciation resource *really important* in clause 2 and then used the engagement resource *admittedly* in clause 3 to limit the scope of alternative voices and construe his alignment with a community that favors speaking literacy. More specifically, Tong casted his evaluative stance that competent English speakers should have a good mastery of phonetic and semantic knowledge of English, as illustrated by the chain of judgment resources *speak well, need to, good, and properly* in clause 4. In other words, an analysis of these appraisal resources reveals Tong's belief that speaking literacy involves students' knowledge of word pronunciation, grammar, and word meanings prior to being able to verbally express full ideas.

With the use of graduation and attitude resources, Tong also showed his positive evaluative stance toward the relationship between students' speaking literacy and listening literacy. That is, Tong believed that if students did not have good listening skills, they would fail to communicate because they did not understand their interlocutors. For example, through the graduated appreciation resources *really closely related to listening* in clause 5, Tong demonstrated his reaction to the relationship between the improvement of speaking literacy and listening literacy. He further used the judgment resource *if... not, they...not* in clause 6 to emphasize his evaluative stance toward the relationship between speaking and listening. That is, without good listening skills, students would not be able to receive their interlocutors' communicative

information and would thus fail to respond in the process of spoken communication. In other words, Tong believed that speaking is not just about being able to express ideas through speech; it is a process of comprehending interlocutors' information and exchanging information with them.

In response to his beliefs that speaking requires students to have linguistic knowledge of English as well as auditory skills, Tong demonstrated his positive stance that speaking instruction needed to be facilitated accordingly and that teachers needed to care for students when developing students' speaking skills, as is shown in Table 6.7.

Lexico-grammar	Appraisal resources
1. Teachers <i>should always encourage</i> their students to speak in class, and 2. use the words, grammar they <i>learned from reading</i> . 3. For example, when I talk about a text on women's right in our textbook, I ask <i>some inspiring questions</i> such as What do you think of women status in China. 4. My purpose of doing so was to make my students <i>speak as much as possible</i> and use <i>as much as</i> what they learned in a unit. 5. teachers <i>should help correct</i> their pronunciation, word use or grammar <i>as much as they can</i> 6. Teachers <i>should be also nice</i> to students when they speak English in class. 7. In my class, <i>most students</i> like to speak in English mixed with Chinese. 8. <i>I do not blame them</i> because they <i>really</i> have <i>limited English proficiency</i> . 9. I also switched to Chinese <i>time to time</i> to facilitate our interaction. 10. And <i>I think</i> other teachers should do so to <i>take care of every student</i> since speaking is not tested	Graduation: Force Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Appreciation Graduation: Force Attitude: Appreciation Graduation: Force Graduation: Force Attitude: Judgment Graduation: Force Attitude: Judgment Graduation: Force Attitude: Judgment Graduation: Force Attitude: Appreciation Graduation: Force Engagement: Expansion Attitude: Judgment

As illustrated in Table 6.7, Tong used all three types of appraisal resources to show his positive evaluative stance toward speaking instruction that focuses on the linguistic components of lexico-grammar and meaning. For example, Tong particularly conveyed his positive affect with using texts to facilitate students' accumulation of linguistic resources that could be used for their speaking development, as is shown by the appreciation resources *learned from reading* in clause 2. In other words, speaking

instruction, as Tong believed, cannot be separated from reading, as it is a way for students to expand their lexico-grammatical repertoire and use it in different modes such as speaking. As a further elaboration of such a belief, Tong also narrated how he applied this in his own teaching practices. By using the appreciation resource *inspiring questions* in clause 3, Tong highlighted his belief about how reading-based questions can facilitate students' speaking literacy by creating a meaningful context for output. Tong then expressed his positive evaluative stance toward such a practice by suggesting he was satisfied with it, which is illustrated by the graduation resources *as much as possible* and *as much as what they learned* in clause 4. In other words, these appraisal resources illustrate his belief that speaking instruction is about teaching language resources (e.g., phonetic knowledge and lexico-grammar), especially through reading, so that students can use them to express their ideas.

Table 6.7 also shows that Tong displayed his positive evaluative stance about speaking instruction by attending to students' differing academic levels and personality traits. For example, Tong first used the judgment resource *should be nice* in clause 6 to show his belief about teachers' obligation to be caring as students learn to speak. He elaborated on this belief by making a quantified judgment of his students' behavior through *most of them... like to...* in clause 7. That is, many students in his classroom were not proficient in speaking English. In response to this, he did not display any unhappiness, as is illustrated by his use of the self-judgment resources *I do not blame them* in clause 8. Instead, he showed them understanding as is evidenced by his graduated appreciation of the level of his students' English through use of the lexical words *really, limited* in clause 8. As a continuation, Tong made a self-judgment about

his tenacity in encouraging his students through the use of the graduation resource *time to time* in clause 10. In the end, Tong also made a judgment to emphasize that ideal college English teachers should show empathy towards their students when developing their speaking skills through the engagement resource *I think* and the judgment resource *take care of every student* in clause 12. In other words, these appraisal resources illustrate Tong’s belief that speaking instruction requires teachers to be mindful of their students’ feelings and help them overcome their shyness and express themselves.

In sum, an SFL-based analysis shows that Tong believed that speaking literacy involves students’ linguistic knowledge of English as well as their auditory skills as these skills are necessary for understanding their interlocutors. The analysis also reveals that Tong, in line with his belief about speaking literacy, believed that teachers’ speaking instruction should focus on these linguistic skills, and most importantly, teachers should help students become brave foreign language speakers.

Beliefs about reading and reading instruction. Tong’s positive evaluative stance towards the role of reading as a means for expanding students’ linguistic knowledge and other aspects of literacy (e.g., writing and speaking) can be seen in Table 6.8 below.

Table 6.8 <i>Tong’s Belief Discourse about Reading Literacy</i>	
Lexico-grammar	Appraisal Analysis
1. Speaking of reading, <i>I believe</i> it is <u>most important</u> part of college English.	Engagement: Expansion Graduation: Force Attitude: Appreciation
2. <u>If</u> students do <u>not</u> have reading, how can they learn grammar and words? 3. Students can learn <u>new</u> words and grammar through reading in the textbook so that they can use in other places, such as speaking, writing, and translation.	Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Appreciation
4. <u>If</u> they do <u>not</u> study reading, they <u>could not</u> do well in other aspects.	Attitude: judgment

As shown in Table 6.8, Tong used attitude resources to manifest his positive evaluative stance toward the role of reading, especially through the conditional if-clause. For example, as the opening of the discourse segment, Tong used the engagement resource *I believe* to highlight his own proposition in regards to the value of reading along with the intensified appreciation resource *the most important part* in clause 1. That is, the two appraisal resources (i.e., engagement and appreciation) emphasized his overall positive attitude toward the role of reading in the textbook in college English learning. To further argue for his belief that learning language depends on reading, Tong, through the judgment resource *if... do not...* in clause 2, indicated the necessity of learning reading by accumulating words and grammatical knowledge. That is, as Tong believed, reading is the only crucial literacy through which students are able to lay a solid language foundation in terms of words and grammar acquisition. As illustrated by another judgment *if...not, they...not* in clause 4, Tong believed that students' other aspects of literacy could be jeopardized if they are lacking reading literacy. In other words, as exemplified by these appraisal resources, Tong believed that reading is a crucial literacy for developing students' language use in context.

Closely related to Tong's belief that reading literacy is a crucial component of EFL students' literacy, Tong equally demonstrated his positive evaluative stance toward the importance of teachers' reading instruction on language knowledge in the process of textbook use, as shown by an appraisal analysis of one illustrative discourse segment in Table 6. 9 below.

Table 6.9 <i>Tong's Belief Discourse about Reading Instruction</i>	
Lexico-grammar	Appraisal resources

<p>1. <i>I think</i> reading in the textbook <i>should</i> be taught in the following ways. 2. First, a teacher <i>should</i> provide some background information of a text. 3. When I talk about women rights in a text in the book, I shared equal rights awareness. 4. Second, a teacher <i>should</i> divide a text into paragraphs, based on meaning. 5. Third, a teacher <i>should</i> explain words and grammar to students, teach pronunciation and how language is used to show the connection or fluency of the text...</p>	<p>Engagement: Expansion Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Judgment</p>
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As illustrated in Table 6.9, Tong primarily used an attitude resource (i.e., a chain of judgment resources) to show his evaluative stance that reading should be instructed in a top-to-bottom way. That is, Tong believed that it was important to teach reading from the overall information or organization of a text (i.e., the background information, the structure of a text) before moving to linguistic form (Yang, 2015). Specifically, he initially used the engagement resource *I think* in clause 1 to highlight his own belief about this instructional approach. As an elaboration of this belief, Tong then used the judgment resource *should* in clauses 1, 2, 4, and 5 to position his positive evaluative stance toward an EFL teacher’s obligations of teaching in a top-to-bottom way in a textbook-based classroom. In other words, as revealed by appraisal resources, he believed that an EFL teacher should first contextualize students’ reading knowledge and then explore with students the linguistic features of a reading text in the textbook. In Tong’s case, linguistic features in a text include the structure of a text, word meaning, explanations of grammatical complexity and cross-cultural awareness, and pronunciation as well as textual meaning (i.e., the fluency of a text).

In sum, as illuminated by an SFL-based appraisal analysis of Tong’s belief discourse segments, Tong believed that reading literacy is about providing students’ access to learning linguistic resources that they can use in other aspects of literacy. To

instruct reading, Tong believed that teachers should thus move from textual organization to words to grammar in order to support learners' language development.

Tong's beliefs about writing and writing instruction. In terms of writing literacy, two strands of beliefs emerged from an analysis of the following relevant discourse segment, as shown in Table 6.10 below. One is Tong's positive evaluative stance toward the important role of accurate linguistic form (e.g., words, grammar, textual structure) as well as textual meaning (i.e., the overall flow of writing) in creating a good writing piece. The other is Tong's positive evaluative stance that writing also involves students' constant practice of outputting the language knowledge they learned (e.g., what they learned from the reading text).

Table 6. 10 <i>Tong's Belief Discourse about Writing Literacy</i>	
Lexico-grammar	Appraisal resources
1. Writing is to express your ideas in a <i>native way</i> . 2. You have to show the <i>appropriate structure</i> .	Attitude: Appreciation
3. You have to write <i>correctly in terms of grammar</i> . 4. You also have express <i>natively</i> with <i>correct words</i> ...	Attitude: Appreciation
5. If you want to get a <i>high</i> score on writing, you need to write with <i>advanced</i> vocabulary and <i>complex</i> structure	Attitude: Appreciation
6. But writing is not <i>easy</i> .	Attitude: Appreciation
7. it <i>needs</i> your practice.	Attitude: Judgment
8. You also <i>need to</i> have a <i>good foundation</i> from your reading.	Attitude: Judgment
9 so you <i>won't worry</i> about what to say in your writing: such as how to use words, grammar and conjunctive words to <i>create fluency</i> .	Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Appreciation

As shown in Table 6.10, attitudinal resources, especially its subcategory appreciation resources, illuminate Tong's beliefs about what constitutes writing: the linguistic knowledge of language form and textual meaning. Specifically, regarding his belief about the important role of linguistic resources in writing, Tong used the appreciation resource *native way* in clause 1 to show that the value of writing lies in being understood and accepted by native English speakers. Following this, Tong

elaborated on his belief about the following features that constituted native writing through a chain of appreciation resources: *appropriate structure* of writing in clause 2, *correctly in terms of grammar* in clause 3, *natively with correct words* in clause 4, *advanced vocabulary and complex structure* in clause 5, and *create fluency* in clause 9. In other words, these appreciation choices illuminate Tong's belief that writing natively is about form appropriateness and complexity, as well as a good textual flow.

As is also illustrated in Table 6.10 through judgment resources, Tong emphasized his belief that students needed to practice writing by themselves using the language resources they learned from reading. For instance, Tong mentioned the complexity of writing using the appreciation resource *not easy* in clause 6, and posited that to overcome the complexity of writing, students need to practice constantly through the judgment resource *needs your practice* in clause 7. As a continuation, Tong also made another judgment through the lexical resource *need to have a good foundation from reading* in clause 8 to highlight students' need to accumulate linguistic knowledge from reading before practicing writing. Tong then used the judgment resource *won't worry* in clause 9 to show students' expected capability in creating good writing if they use the language knowledge they learned from reading. In other words, Tong also manifested his belief that writing literacy involves students' constant use of linguistic resources from reading.

Echoing his beliefs about what constitutes good writing, Tong's beliefs about writing instruction were also on a complex continuum between language form and language meaning. One belief is Tong's positive evaluative stance towards teaching the structure, the words and grammar (i.e., language form) of writing. The other belief is

Tong’s positive evaluative stance toward teaching the overall flow of writing. One illustrative discourse segment with its appraisal analysis is shown in Table 6.11 below.

Table 6.11 <i>Tong’s Belief Discourse about Writing Instruction</i>	
Lexico-grammar	Appraisal resources
1. I think it is <i>very important</i> to help students know the structure of an essay.	Graduation: Force Attitude: Appreciation
2. For example, <i>I think</i> a teacher <i>should</i> teach how to write introduction, body part, and conclusion. 3. <i>Especially</i> for body part, it is <i>different</i> from Chinese.	Engagement: Expansion Attitude: Judgment Graduation: Force Attitude: Appreciation
4. We <i>have to</i> teach students first to write a topic sentence and then use <i>different</i> ways to expand on the topic sentence. 5. In addition, grammar and vocabulary are also very <i>important</i> .	Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Appreciation Attitude: Appreciation
6. Teachers <i>should remind</i> students of <i>accuracy</i> of grammar and <i>diversity</i> of vocabulary in writing. 7. When I grading CE[B]T tests, I do not <i>give high scores</i> to students who have <i>simple grammatical mistakes</i> , such as no plural form, tense mistakes. 8. If they always use <i>simple words</i> , they also won’t get a high score.	Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Appreciation Attitude: Appreciation Attitude: Judgment Attitude: Judgment
9. In addition, writing <i>should be fluent</i> .	Attitude: Judgment
10. For example, teachers <i>should</i> teach students how to use conjunctive words, or synonyms to make a fluent writing.	Attitude: Judgment

As shown in Table 6.11, Tong primarily used attitudinal resources to show his beliefs about writing instruction. For example, Tong particularly highlighted teachers’ obligation to teach students how to write with the appropriate structure, words, and grammar by using the judgment resources *should*, *have to*, and *should* in clauses 2, 4, and 6, and the appreciation resources *different*, *accuracy*, *diversity* and *important* in clauses 3, 4, 5 and 6. As an elaboration of this positive evaluative stance, Tong, from his own experiences as a CET rater, highlighted that teaching the accuracy of language form translates into receiving high scores on the test, which is shown through his judgment of what is a bad essay (e.g., *simple grammatical mistakes* in clause 7, *simple words* in clause 8). In other words, these attitudinal resources reveal Tong’s belief about teaching language form as a way of helping students create quality essays.

Similarly demonstrated in Table 6.11, through the use of attitudinal resources, especially appreciation and judgment, Tong demonstrated his positive evaluative stance toward teaching fluency or textual meaning. Specifically, along with his appraisal of writing needing to be coherent, as illustrated by his use of the appreciation resource *fluent* in clause 9, Tong then used the judgment resource *should* in clause 10 to emphasize teachers' responsibility in helping students construct a cohesive piece of writing by showing them what linguistic resources to use in order to do so. In other words, Tong held a belief about teaching the textual meaning to students, even though it was not as emphasized as his belief about teaching language form.

In sum, an SFL-based appraisal analysis of Tong's belief discourse segments on writing reveals his beliefs about the importance of words, grammar and textual meaning in constructing a good piece of writing along with students' own constant practice. The analysis also shows that in alignment with Tong's beliefs about writing literacy, Tong displayed his belief that writing instruction should focus on language form and students' awareness of textual meaning.

A Contextual Explanation of Tong's Belief Discourse

As mentioned earlier in the literature review, discourse, from a socio-semiotic perspective, is a meaning-making process that is conditioned by context: the context of culture and context of situation (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). In particular, the context of culture provides all of the potential meanings one can make in a larger community, which is filtered through and realized by the context of situation (Christie, 2002; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). In other words, these two levels of context shape a teacher's belief discourse. A thematic analysis of supplementary interviews with Tong show that

the following context of culture factors contributed to the formation of his belief discourse: the high stakes CET 4 test, the national curriculum standards, and his exposure to English teaching in the larger Chinese community. Context of situation factors contributing to the formation of his belief discourse include his alignment/solidarity with himself and his students.

College Band Test and Curriculum

As shown in the earlier sections, Tong held a strong positive stance towards tested literacy (e.g., reading, listening, and writing) as well as writing skills, but he had a slightly negative attitude toward speaking instruction, an untested literacy on the CET 4 written test. Passing the CET4 seemed to transcend the curriculum and vigorously shaped Tong's beliefs about textbook use, as shown in the following interview excerpt:

Tong: My students need to take test, and have to pass test. If they could not pass the test, they could not get a good job. Employers in China now very emphasize CET 4... No good score on CET 4 they even won't give students chance for interviews... My department and my university also will get angry at me if my students have a low passing rate. Passing rate is directly related to the fame of university. So you know why I think test skills is one focus in my classroom... national curriculum, of course, I know its requirements, but passing test is the first when I use the textbook...(Interview excerpt 1)

As seen in the interview excerpt, the high-stakes test, as part of the context of culture, shaped Tong's beliefs about textbook use in the classroom. As a teacher, he clearly knew the current trend in the job market where human resources gives priority to those who have a good CET 4 grade. In addition, he was expected from his school and department

to improve the passing rate of the CET 4. The emphasis on the importance of the CET 4 thus contributed to his beliefs (i.e., evaluative stance). Therefore, the high-stakes CET 4 explains Tong's evaluative stance about the importance of using the textbook to develop his students' listening, reading, and CET 4-related writing skills on the high-stakes CET written test.

In comparison, the national curriculum standards, as another context of culture factor, seemed to play a weaker role in shaping his beliefs, but they should still not be ignored. Tong obviously believed that learning English should not be solely for the test but for language use. For example, he held a positive evaluative stance toward speaking literacy. However, Tong's belief about speaking instruction was running against the basic tenets of the national curriculum that requires teachers to develop students' knowledge of language use in an all-around way. Indeed, as shown by findings in an earlier section, his beliefs about speaking instruction seemed to focus on training students to be courageous speakers but not how to support students to express themselves meaningfully as required by the national curriculum. In other words, in a battle of competing cultural factors, the national curriculum standards seemed to give way to testing, showing less of an influence on Tong's belief about the comprehensive language use of English.

Experience of Schooling

As shown in earlier sections of this chapter, his beliefs about literacy and literacy instruction focused on language form of reading and writing as well as drill practices and his teaching role related to this. Tong, in supplementary interviews, also demonstrated how his personal educational experience in the larger community impacted the formation

of his beliefs. The excerpt below shows how he reflected on the connection of his exposure to English instruction and his own method of teaching in the textbook-based classroom:

Tong: In middle school, my teacher teachers use textbooks to pronunciation, grammar words. In high school, my teacher also did a similar thing: grammar, words, and when explaining reading materials. She[high school English teacher] would first play the recording, and explain paragraph by paragraph, such as words, important phrases, collocations that might occur in college entrance examination... In university, I was English major, and I took listening, speaking, reading, and comprehensive English. So I had much time learning each aspect of English [literacy]. These teachers taught in a similar way like my high school.

(Interview excerpt 2)

As revealed from this second interview excerpt, Tong was exposed to the grammar-translation method ever since he was a middle school student, or more exactly ever since he started to learn English. In particular, he presented a picture of how his past learning experience in a textbook-based classroom involved teachers' deconstructing/constructing the texts mainly on the levels of vocabulary or grammar and textual structure. In such a large community, Tong unconsciously gained this same belief and taught similarly, believing that is what a teacher should do in the classroom. Lortie (1972) called this the "apprentice of observation" (p. 61) to emphasize the many hours students spend with their teachers, which in turn gives way to and shapes their thoughts about how to teach and how to be a teacher.

Understandably, this apprentice of observation seemed to take effect on Tong because of a lack of compulsory and effective EFL teaching methodology courses offered at the undergraduate and graduate level in China (Cai, 2013; Cheng & Sun, 2010; Zhou, 2008). When I asked Tong whether he took teaching methodology classes on how to use a textbook in the classroom, he added:

Tong: I was not interested in teaching methodology classes. My undergraduate school did not offer these. In my graduate school, I tried to take it, but I was not interested, so I gave it up. Anyway, I did not have to take them to be a college English teacher... When I started teaching English here, I joined in professional development... Mostly, they gave a lecture on a research topic. I do not think it helps me on how to use textbook effectively. (Interview excerpt 3)

Indeed, as is shown in Tong's interview excerpt above, his background as an English major in a university of science and his graduate study on translation did not enable him to have access to any teaching methodology courses on textbook use during his pre-service education. What is more, Tong also reported that there was a lack of methodology courses on textbook use during in-service education as well. In other words, what shaped his teaching beliefs is the way that his teachers had taught English to him when he was a student. The context of culture surrounding Tong's educational exposure thus well explains his beliefs or his positive evaluative stance toward traditional teaching approaches in a textbook-based classroom, such as his beliefs about his grammar-translation based teaching method on English literacy (e.g., reading, writing, listening) (Borg, 2006; Mansour, 2009).

Below the level of context of culture is the variable tenor in the context of situation. Tenor is the one that constrains the realization of meaning potential through appraisal resources. In particular, tenor is related to how the discourse producer establishes solidarity or a power relationship with something or someone else (Martin & White 2005). In the following subsections, an analysis of Tong's interview excerpts details how tenor was a factor in the actual classroom and further constrained Tong's meaning making potential afforded by the context of culture.

Gradual Solidarity with Self

In the earlier section on Tong's beliefs about literacy and literacy instruction through textbook use, Tong also revealed the fluidity of his belief system. That is, while Tong exemplified his positive evaluative stance toward the role of language form for textbook-based instruction, he also showed his belief about meaning, particularly in regards to the textual meaning of the text in reading and writing. Such a change of textbook use is due to his strong alignment or solidarity with himself at the level of context of situation (i.e., the actual classroom) as is shown in the following interview excerpt:

Tong: When I started to use the textbook [college English- integrated course], I paid much attention to grammar, vocabulary... But I found that they not only have the problem of grammar and vocabulary, their writing was also not coherent text...So I've been trying to help the students (through the use of systemic functional linguistics) ... systemic functional linguistics related research I've come into contact with when I was a graduate student, but my understanding of it was not very deep. I'm keeping learning, it is difficult, but I

am more familiar with the text function. I feel textual function is much useful for my students' language learning. (Interview excerpt 4)

As illuminated in the interview excerpt above, Tong showed strong solidarity with himself in developing his students' awareness and knowledge of cohesion. In Tong's case, during his in-class instruction, he found that his students had trouble with the flow of information in writing and reading. In response to such problems, Tong diligently endeavored to help his students through his own agency. By continuing to study SFL, which was a language theory that he had picked up in his translation course when he was a graduate student, Tong started to apply the textual meaning and its realization (i.e., cohesive ties) to his reading and writing instruction. Because of the positive feedback on students' improved writing and reading literacy, Tong came to realize the power of the textual function in exploring college English teaching through his own reflective process. In other words, his positive evaluative stance toward the importance of textual meaning and being a qualified teacher are a result of the contextual variable tenor: his solidarity with himself on the interpersonal dimension. It is his inclination to establish solidarity with himself that explains his positive evaluative stance about the power of himself on learning to better use the textbook and not relying on pre-service and in-service education (Gebhard, 1996; Richards, Gallo & Renandya, 2001).

Solidarity with Students

As shown in the earlier sections, Tong held mixed evaluative stances about his students as textbook users: negative and empathetic. Supplementary interviews reveal that Tong's interpersonal relationship with students as a context of situation variable

shaped these mixed evaluative stances (Pianta, Hamre & Allen, 2012), as shown in the following interview excerpt:

Tong: I feel my students are not traditional like I was. In my view, they should listen to whatever I am talking in class, take notes and diligently study after class...But I think I also should respect them; they are adults. They know what is good for them. (Interview excerpt 5)

From the interview excerpt above, it can be seen that Tong's interpersonal relationship with his students is mixed with both alignment and alienation. Tong alienated his students because they were not as traditional as he used to be; that is, they were not obedient students in class or out of class. The alienation well explains his negative evaluative stances toward the majority of his students as unmotivated textbook users. At the same time, Tong also contradictorily showed his alignment with his students. That is, Tong also stepped back and treated his students as people who have a choice in learning just for testing. Such alignment also explains his belief that students' behavior should not be shamed and that it is his obligation to act as a mediator in facilitating students to learn and prepare them for what is tested (e.g., testing skills with writing rather than the accuracy of native speaking). It is the alignment and alienation on the interpersonal level that explains Tong's mixed beliefs about his students as textbook users.

Summary of the Chapter

The chapter presents an SFL-based appraisal analysis of Tong's belief discourse about textbook use given the evaluative feature of teachers' beliefs (Borg, 2001; Pajaras, 1992). The appraisal analysis shows Tong's positive evaluative stance toward test skills, his self-agency, language form and the textual meaning of language in relation to his

beliefs about textbook use. It also illuminates his negative stance toward his prior education on textbook use and his students as unmotivated textbook users. The chapter also used thematic analysis and further explores the context of culture and situation to provide explanations for Tong's belief discourse about textbook use. It reveals how a testing policy, Tong's schooling experiences, and his solidarity with his students and himself shaped the linguistic realization of his belief discourse about textbook use.

CHAPTER 7
THE EFL TEACHER'S TEACHING PRACTICES IN THE TEXTBOOK-BASED
EFL CLASSROOM

Chapter 7 aims to show Tong's moment-to-moment textbook use so as to explore how he acted upon his beliefs. To this end, the first section, through an SFL-based speech function analysis, demonstrates how Tong mediated his students' language learning in the process of his textbook use (Achugar, 2009; Eggins & Slade, 1997; Zolkower & Shreyar, 2007). It then discusses the relationship between Tong's textbook use and his beliefs. The second section draws on the thematic analysis of supplementary interviews with Tong and students to show how the context of culture and context of situation conditioned his textbook use in the classroom. The final section summarizes the chapter.

Tong's Textbook Use: An SFL-based Speech Function Analysis

While five categorizations of Tong's beliefs about textbook use were mentioned in the previous chapter (i.e., beliefs about students' learning, beliefs about learning to use the textbook, beliefs about teaching role, beliefs about literacy and literacy instruction), five corresponding practices are evident in Tong's literacy instruction. In addition, teaching in the textbook-based classroom, as mentioned earlier in Chapter 2, is primarily implemented through teacher talk and realized linguistically through speech functions (Gibbons, 2006; Zolkower & Shreyar, 2007). For these reasons, the following subsections explore Tong's textbook-based teaching practices by focusing on how

through his use of speech functions, Tong mediated literacies represented in the textbook (i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing) and acted upon his beliefs.

Listening Instruction through the Textbook

Tong's textbook-based listening instruction was offered in two ways. One part of his listening instruction was taught through the textbook *College English-Integrated Course*. In this textbook, a listening component is included right before a reading text in each unit, and the content of both is closely related. For example, before a reading text about the history of English words, there is a listening section that contains an introduction to interesting English expressions (e.g., *slim chance* vs. *fat chance*). However, when using the textbook *College English- Integrated Course*, Tong did not specifically teach listening but instead used the listening segment as a lead-in to his upcoming reading instruction in the textbook as was also recommended by the book. The other part of listening instruction was offered on every other Friday in Tong's college English class. In these bi-weekly classes, Tong used an alternative textbook and specifically focused on listening. To better show Tong's listening instruction through textbook use, discourse segments from his bi-weekly Friday classes are analyzed below.

The Friday listening instruction was based on the use of the supplementary textbook *New Standard College English-Listening* (Wen & Greenall, 2009). This textbook, with its accompanying audio files, has different formats of listening activities, including listening-based speaking, and CET 4-related exercises such as audio recordings that feature blank filling and multiple choice questions. Listening instruction associated with this textbook was offered on Fridays every two weeks and 90 minutes were spent per unit. For this bi-weekly listening instruction, the class was held in a computer lab

where students were able to listen to the same audio file at the same time and answer their teacher's questions on the computer while doing exercises in the textbook. Table 7.1 below provides a speech function analysis of one illustrative discourse extract from the transcription of Tong's listening instruction in the lab.

Speaker	Move	Mood type	Speech function
Tong	1. 这些都是生词. ↓	Declarative	Statement
	2. 可能会妨碍你们理解课文. ↓	Declarative	Statement
	3. 所以我们要知它们的发音和意思. ↓	Declarative	Statement
	4. Read after me. ↓ (with students reading after Tong)	Imperative	Command
	5. and pay attention to their meanings.	Imperative	Command
Students	6. Hand rear . ↓ (students' reading)	--	Compliance
Tong	7. No, it is hand rear . ↓ (Tong corrected students' stress of the syllables for the word <i>hand rear</i>)	Declarative	Disclaimer
	8. Now let me play the audio recording. ↓ (Tong did so when word instruction was completed.)	Imperative	Offer
	9. Read after the audio recording. ↓	Imperative	Command
	10. Pay attention to the pronunciation and meaning of these words. ↓	Imperative	Command

As is shown in Table 7.1, Tong, primarily through statements and commands, mediated his students' recognition of new words in the listening textbook before moving on to play the audio file and doing related activities in the textbook. For example, Tong first stated in Chinese to his students the importance of learning new words and commanded them to read the words aloud after him to get familiar with the meaning and pronunciation of these words (clauses 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5). For his instruction of words related to the audio file, Tong also further attended to students' word pronunciation in listening comprehension by offering to play the audio recording of the words pronounced by a native speaker and commanding them to listen attentively to become familiarized with the native pronunciation of the words (clauses 8, 9 and 10).

When moving to the textbook-based learning activities and the corresponding audio file about how a zoologist introduced wolves to a group of primary school students, Tong added background information related to the listening material: different from China, the West is really concerned with animals, such as dogs, and there are many animals lovers in the West (observation notes). Following this piece of background information, Tong started to play the audio material and focused on the textbook activities that required students to fill in blanks with the exact information from the audio file. Table 7.2 below shows a speech function analysis of one illustrative discourse segment about how Tong mediated students in working on the audio learning activities in the textbook.

Speaker	Move	Mood type	Speech function
Tong	1. Now listen to the recording (.) ↑	Imperative	Command
	2. and fill in the blanks. (after the first time completing of the recording) ↓	Imperative	Command
	3. Let's listen again. ↓	Imperative	Command
	4. What is your answer for the first blank, Lin? ↑	Interrogative	Question
Lin	5. Stay really calm. ↓	--	Answer
Tong	6. Good! ↓ (with the similar pattern)	--	Acknowledgement
	7. Quan, what is your answer for this blank? ↑ (Tong moved the computer mouse to blank six.)	Interrogative	Question
Quan	8. Use (.) all energy? ↑	--	Answer
Tong	9. Umm (.) listen again. ↓ (Tong played the audio segment related to the target question Quan was answering.)	Imperative	Disclaimer
Quan	10. Use up (.) all their energy. ↓	--	Answer
Tong	11. Not exactly. ↓	--	Disclaimer
	12. 注意时态. ↓ (Tong played the audio segment once more.)	Imperative	Command
Quan	13. Used up all their energy. ↓	--	Answer
Tong	14. Yes. ↓	--	Acknowledgement
	15. Pay attention to tense of words in your listening. ↓	Imperative	Command

As illustrated in Table 7.2, primarily through commands and disclaimers,

Tong's mediation focused on attending to students' auditory perception of the exact form of language expressions (e.g., the tense of a phrase) when using the listening textbook and its audio file. For example, when Tong called on Quan to fill in blank six in the textbook, Quan failed to provide an answer that was not the same wording as was in the audio material (clauses 7 and 8). Tong thus provided additional assistance by playing it two additional times and using Chinese to explicitly command Quan to notice the tense of his answer (clause 12) before Quan finally gave the exact answer Tong wanted (clause 13). To enhance Quan's and his classmates' listening skills in understanding the audio file and becoming better in filling in blanks in the textbook, Tong used Chinese to further command Quan and his classmates' attention to grammatical accuracy in their future listening (clause 15). In a similar pattern to the above process, Tong finished other parts of the listening segment in the unit, but he also skipped some sections in the textbook that he could have taught, such as practices about working in pairs (i.e., listening and speaking) that do not occur on the CET 4 (observation notes). In other words, when necessary, Tong would use multiple speech functions to mediate students' listening comprehension until they were able to fill in the blanks in the textbook with the same language expressions as those in the audio material.

In sum, an SFL-based speech function analysis of Tong's listening instruction through the textbook reveals he mediated students' learning of the pronunciation of new words in the textbook, and their skills in filling in the textbook with the exact language expressions from the audio file.

Speaking Teaching Practices

Tong's speaking instruction occurred regularly when using the textbook *College English- Integrated Course*. He taught speaking by engaging students in expressing their ideas related to a reading text to be taught in a unit; this method of teaching speaking was also recommended by the textbook (observation notes). For example, in unit 7 the reading text was about English language history. Before reading instruction began, Tong asked his students what they thought about language expressions in English. The class spent approximately fifteen minutes on this discussion practice. Table 7.3 below displays a speech function analysis of one illustrative discourse excerpt of Tong's mediation of his students' English speaking.

Speaker	Move	Mood type	Speech function
Tong	1. Do you think English expressions are interesting or confusing? ↑	Interrogative	Question
	2. Any volunteers? ↑	--	Command
Students	3. (Some students remained silent and lowered their heads.)	--	Refusal
Tong	4. 你们怎么认为英语表达方式 <i>a wise man</i> and <i>wise guy</i> ? ↑ (Tong mentioned one from the listening.)	Interrogative	Question
	5. Another example, it rains dogs and cats. ↓	Statement	Statement
	6. Does it mean dogs and cats fall from the sky? ↑	Interrogative	Question
Students	7.No ↓	--	Answer
Tong	8. What is your opinion? ↑	Interrogative	Question
	9. What do you think? ↑	Interrogative	Question
	10. Hurry up. ↓	--	Command
	11. Say something. ↓	--	Command
Students	12. (After about one minute) silence		Refusal
Tong	13. Ok. ↑	--	Command
	14. Let me ask someone to tell us how he think about English language (smile) ↑	Imperative	Command
Hua	(Student Hua reluctantly stood up.) 15. (.) I do not what to say. ↓	Declarative	Disclaimer

Tong	16. You can use Chinese if you do not know how to express it in English ↓ (smile)	Declarative	Statement
Hua	17. (He then talked about what had come across in the process of language learning, using both English and Chinese.)	--	Answer
Tong	18. umm...good. ↓ (along with students' applause)	--	Acknowledgment

The speaking instruction practice, as shown above in Table 7.3, was conducted with a light-hearted attitude. Specifically, Tong's mediation of students' speaking literacy aimed to foster students' courage to express themselves as opposed to training them to speak natively or accurately. For example, when Tong started by using questions to prompt students' opinions and commanding them to talk (clauses 1, 2, 4, and 5), the students lowered their head, hiding from their teacher (clause 3), which was an indication of their refusal to respond to Tong's command or their unwillingness to express themselves (clause 7). Indeed, this unwillingness to communicate in the EFL classroom is quite common (Liu & Jackson, 2008; Peng, 2007), as speaking requires students to express themselves with more than one or two sentences.

In response to students' lack of elaboration of their opinions, Tong also seemed a little frustrated, which was indicated by his commands to rush his students to speak (clauses 10 and 11). But his frustration was repressed soon thereafter and he tried to be optimistic by keeping a smile on his face and making further actions to motivate his students to express their opinions. For instance, he did this by making a direct command as a way of exerting his power as a teacher to call on a student to speak on the topic (clauses 13 and 14) and through giving the student, Hua, permission to use Chinese (clause 16). Hua boldly expressed his thoughts about the interesting expression in the English language, even though his articulation on that topic was not perfect. Indeed, Hua, limited by his English proficiency, used Chinese and English interchangeably to

share what made English interesting to him by providing examples he had encountered in his reading, such as the idiomatic expression *as strong as a horse*, which is totally different from Chinese in its literal translation⁸. Tong acknowledged the student's contribution by saying *good* (clause 18). During this time, Tong did not interrupt Hua to mediate his pronunciation or grammar.

In sum, an SFL-based speech function analysis shows that when using the textbook to instruct speaking, Tong followed the textbook tips by having students speak on reading related topics but he was not particularly focused on mediating students' linguistic accuracy of their speaking. Instead, within students' ZPD, Tong's mediation in the textbook-based classroom was aimed at helping them overcome their unwillingness to speak, which is a big obstacle for Chinese EFL students.

Reading Instruction Practice

Following the speaking instruction through the textbook *College English-Integrated Course*, Tong started his reading instruction with the same book. By using the listening and speaking practices as a way of guiding students to know some brief background information about English, Tong moved to the reading text itself. The reading instruction took almost three lessons (about 270 minutes) to finish.

Reading instruction on the overall meaning of a text. Tong's reading practice started with students independently skimming the text in the textbook. That is, Tong gave students about ten minutes to read the text and divide it into several semantic groups based on the meaning pattern of paragraphs, as recommended by the textbook. The reason Tong gave his students time to read is because they generally did not have time to preview the text outside of class (Interview with Tong and his students). After about ten

⁸ In Chinese, it is expressed as 壮得像头牛 (as strong as an ox).

minutes, Tong started to interact with the students regarding the division of the reading text. A speech function analysis of one illustrative discourse segment is shown in Table 7.4 below.

Table 7.4 <i>Excerpt 1 of Tong's Reading Instruction</i>			
Speaker	Move	Mood	Speech function
Tong	1. Ok (.) ↑	--	Command
	2. I will give ten minutes to read very quickly. ↓	Declarative	Command
	3. Then, I need you to fill in the blanks on page. ↓ (The meaning for the semantic division of the text)	Declarative	Command
Students	4. (start skimming the text very quickly)	--	Compliance
Tong	5. (after ten minutes) Who can tell me how to divide the text? ↑		Command
Students	6. (silence)		Refusal
Tong	(Tong called a student's name because of no response.) 7. Dai, can you answer the question? ↑	Interrogative	Command
Dai	8. Paragraph 1 to 3 is about (.) umm ↓ (following the division on the textbook)	Declarative	Statement
Tong	9. 我们说过什么的? ↑	Declarative	Question
	10. 怎么快速阅读的? ↑	Interrogative	Question
	11. 英语文章有什么特点? ↑	Declarative	Question
Students	12. = 看每段 开头 和结尾都说什么. ↓	Declarative	Answer
Tong	13. 对. ↓	-	Acknowledgment
	14. 看看第一段和第三段文章开头都说了什么. ↓	Imperative	Statement
	15. 然后总结一下就可以了. ↓ (saying to Dai)	Imperative	Statement
Dai	16. (Dai read the first paragraph and said it's the main point.)	--	Answer
Tong	17. Not bad. ↓	--	Acknowledgment
	18. My answer is massive borrowing from other languages is a major feature of the English language. ↓	Declarative	Statement

Table 7.4 shows that mainly through commands, statements and questions as well as Chinese, Tong mediated students' summarization of paragraphs by attending to the learning tips in the textbook and the metalinguistic features of the English text. For example, Tong first used three commands (clauses 1, 2 and 3) to request that his students read the text for the overall meaning in accordance with the three parts of division provided by the textbook. Indeed, following Tong's guidance, students were saved the trouble of dividing paragraphs; what they needed to do was just to figure out

the meaning of the paragraphs in each part. However, when Tong commanded one of his students, Dai, to answer the question (clause 5), Dai tried but failed to provide an answer (clause 7).

To help Dai's understanding of the meaning of the first three paragraphs (i.e., part 1) in the text, Tong relied on his own knowledge to start the mediation. For example, Tong first switched to Chinese and used three questions to remind his students of the discourse features of English texts⁹ and their relationship to reading comprehension (clauses 9, 10, and 11). Tong's questions, along with his use of Chinese, seemed to work, as the students volunteered to answer the question in Chinese by saying that when skimming a text, they should look at the topic sentence and the concluding sentence (clause 12). The mediation also seemed helpful for Dai, as Dai then read the topic sentence of the first paragraph and considered it relevant for the meaning of the first part of the text (from paragraph 1 to 3) (clause 16). Tong acknowledged Dai's answer (clause 17), but he reformulated it by synthesizing the three topic sentences in paragraph 1 to 3 as his answer (clause 18).

With a similar pattern, Tong completed his interaction with the students regarding the meaning division of the rest of paragraphs in the reading text. On completing this instruction, Tong then moved to each paragraph where he mediated students' understanding of the content in each paragraph.

Reading instruction in a reading text. In the process of mediating students' understanding of the content in each paragraph, Tong mainly relied on his own professional knowledge but also the textbook as shown by a speech function analysis of

⁹ The topic sentence of an English text shows the main idea of a paragraph and the last sentence in a paragraph shows a brief conclusion (Li & Meng, 2007)

one illustrative discourse segment in Table 7.5 below.

Table 7.5 <i>Excerpt 2 of Tong's Reading Instruction</i>			
Speaker	Move	Mood	Speech Function
Tong	1. Underline <i>virtually</i> . ↓ 2. It means in fact. ↓ 3. 写作时可以用. ↓ 4. 不要老用 in fact . ↓ 5. What is the meaning of the sentence? ↑ (Tong read the sentence "the Churchill could have said: we shall never give in".)	Imperative Declarative --- Imperative Interrogative	Command Statement Statement Command Question
Students	6. 丘吉尔能说. ↓	Declarative	Answer
Tong	7. 不太准确啊. ↓ 8. 注意这里的 could have done 用法? ↑	-- Imperative	Disclaimer Command
Students	9. 能做而没有做. ↓	--	Answer
Tong	10. 所以应该是... ↑ 11. 丘吉尔本可以说: ↓ (showed his teaching notes that included several examples)	-- Declarative	Question Statement
Students	=12. 丘吉尔本可以说而没有说. ↓	Declarative	Answer
Tong	13. 清楚了吗? ↑	--	Question
Students	14. Yes. ↓	--	Acknowledgement
Tong	15. 那我昨天本来是可以来得怎么说? ↑	Interrogative	Statement
Students	16. I could (.) have come. ↓	Declarative	Answer
Tong	17. = have come ↓ 18. (keep reading) for effect 画下来. ↓ 19. 什么意思? ↑	-- Imperative --	Acknowledgement Command Question
Students	20. (A students read the Chinese meaning form the text.) ↓	--	Answer
Tong	21. Good! ↓ 22. 记得以后写作和听力时要注意. ↓ (Tong also translated the sentence) 23. 你们还有什么其他不明白的语言点吗? ↑ (after read and translated the rest of the sentences)	-- Imperative Interrogative	Acknowledgement Command Question
Students	24. 没有了. ↓	--	Answer
Tong	25. Ok, ↑ 26. what do great speakers of English do when they want to arouse people's English? ↑ (a question from the textbook exercise)	-- Interrogative	Command Question
Students	27. Use words from old English. ↓	--	Answer
Tong	28. Yes, Use words from old English. 29. Good!	-- --	Acknowledgment Acknowledgement

Table 7.5 shows that Tong used different speech functions (e.g., questions, statements, and commands) along with students' first language to mediate their understanding of the content of each paragraph in the reading text.

Specifically, Tong first mediated students' understanding of paragraph content by centering their attention on lexical expressions and their use in a new context (i.e., writing and listening). He did this by paraphrasing them or using the annotations from the textbook. For example, following Tong's use of an easier phrase *in fact* as an explanation for the word *virtually*, he then used a statement to remind them to use the phrase as a replacement of *in fact* in their future writing and particularly commanded students not to use *in fact* in their writing for the purpose of diversifying their lexical choices (clauses 1, 2, 3 and 4). In a similar way, Tong also mediated students' understanding of lexical expressions in a paragraph by attending to additional information provided in the textbook. For example, in a sentence that had the phrase *for effect*, Tong used a question to ask about the meaning of the phrase (clause 19), even though the phrase was also annotated in the textbook. Tong apparently wanted his students to pay attention to the phrase, understand it in the current context and use it in a new context. After students read out the Chinese meaning of the phrase (clause 20), Tong acknowledged it with *good* and then also switched to Chinese, commanding that the students should use it correctly in their future writing or be able to understand it correctly in listening comprehension (clauses 21 and 22).

Equally, when teaching a paragraph, Tong also mediated students' comprehension by particularly focusing students' attention on grammar. For example, for a sentence in a paragraph—*Churchill could have said: we shall never give in*—Tong used a question to ask his students about its meaning (clause 5). When the students responded to Tong's question incorrectly (clause 6), Tong saw a need for providing assistance within their ZPD by commanding his students to notice that the original form of the phrase *could*

have said is *could have done* (clause 8). Because of Tong’s prompting, the students realized that the meaning of the phrase *could have done* was what they learned and they answered their teacher’s question in Chinese (clause 9). They were then able to answer along with Tong, again in Chinese the meaning of the sentence (clauses 10, 11 and 12). Tong ended his teaching of the sentence meaning in the textbook when his students provided the correct answer to his question on using *could have done* to translate a Chinese sentence into English (clauses 15 and 16).

Aside from his mediation of words and grammar as a way of understanding a paragraph in a reading text, there was also another recurring unit in the class, which shows Tong’s efforts to mediate his students’ understanding of textual meaning (i.e., the flow of information) in the reading text. Indeed, textual meaning, as realized by cohesive ties, such as lexical resources (e.g., repetition, synonym, and antonym) or grammatical resources (e.g., conjunctive words) is crucial for comprehending reading texts (Wilawan, 2011). This is because the flow of information enables different meanings to come together in a cohesive and coherent way; a lack of such knowledge would result in failure to gain a global understanding of a text. A speech function analysis of one illustrative discourse segment is shown below in Table 7.6.

Speaker	Clause	Mood	Speech function
Tong	1. Do notice any similar ↑ (.) the same elements in the two sentences? ↓ (Tong was using example sentences from the textbook: Walkman is fascinating because it isn’t even English. Strictly speaking, it was invented by the Japanese manufacturers who put two simple English words together to name their product.)	Interrogative	Question
Students	(Silence)	--	Disclaimer
Tong	2. Are they ? ↑ (pointing to “it”)	Interrogative	Question
Students	3. Yes ↓	--	Answer

Tong	4. That is the way (.) how sentences are connected. ↓ 5. 这就是句子如何衔接的。 6. How about this one and that one? ↑ (pointing to a third clause within the same paragraph: That doesn't bother us, but it does bother the French.)	Declarative Declarative Interrogative	Statement Statement Question
Students	7. 连词(.) but ↓	--	
Tong	8. Yes, good! 9. Anything else? ↑ 10. 还有其他的吗? ↑	-- -- --	Acknowledgement Question Question
Students	11. (.) 同义词, that 和 it ↓	--	Answer
Tong	12. Good! ↓	--	Acknowledgement

Table 7.6 illustrates how Tong went beyond language form or grammar-

translation teaching of reading and mediated his students' knowledge of the textual meaning to understand a reading paragraph (Halliday & Hason, 1976; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Harman, 2013).

Through a variety of speech functions (e.g., questions, statements) along with using the students' first language, Tong acted as a rebellious grammar-translation follower and mediated, within his students' ZPD, their understanding of how cohesive ties aided in organizing the flow of the text. For example, Tong initiated his discourse by first using plain language (i.e., *Do you notice any similar or the same elements in the two sentences*) to command students' attention to the synonym in construction of the information flow (clause 1). It seemed that Tong's question was not picked up right away, for there was no response from his students. To better clarify his students' confusion, Tong then directly pointed to the two words *walkman* and *it* and asked his students whether they are similar expressions in the same paragraph (clause 2). Given the transparency and simplicity of Tong's question, students' answered with *yes* (clause 3). Using this lexical cohesion (i.e., reference) as an example, Tong then made a short statement to emphasize the role of lexical resources in constructing textual meaning and creating the information flow in a text (clause 4). For emphasis, he also stated in Chinese

the same information he delivered in English (clause 5). To further enhance students' knowledge of cohesion in a new paragraph, Tong then pointed to new sentences within the same paragraph and asked his students about the strategies used in creating textual flow (clause 6). With students using both English and Chinese to provide different ways of constructing the flow of sentences (clauses 7 and 11), Tong acknowledged their answer, a signal of the end of this part of teaching.

In sum, an SFL-based speech function analysis of the three excerpts shows Tong instructed the reading text in the following ways: (1) Tong mediated his students' knowledge of the structure, words, and grammar in the text while using the prompts in the textbook to enhance his students' comprehension; (2) Tong also mediated students' awareness of the textual meaning in recognizing the flow of the text for the purpose of better comprehending a reading text.

Writing Instruction Practices

In this textbook-based classroom, Tong's writing instruction was conducted at the end of a unit, as recommended by the textbook *College English-Integrated Course*. However, his writing instruction was not completely reliant on the textbook. This was because the topics at the end of each unit in this book vary and some topics are seldom tested (Interview with Tong). For example, in the unit I observed, the writing topic was about using statistics to describe the growth of English speakers from 1950-2050. However, this topic had seldom occurred on past CET 4 tests; writing on the CET 4 was more about testing students' knowledge of constructing an argumentative text (Interview with Tong). Therefore, upon completion of the unit, Tong used supplementary materials (observation notes). The supplementary materials edited by teachers from Tong's

department included topics and sample texts from the previous CET 4 tests. In other words, his writing practices did not strictly follow the textbook *College English-Integrated Course*; rather, it was interchangeably used with the supplementary materials depending on whether the topics in each unit of the textbook were related to the tests or not.

In the writing class, Tong first briefly reviewed with his students that an introduction of an essay is about putting forth a writer's point of view while the conclusion is about summarizing a writer's points (observation notes). The information on the structure of the essay also occurs in the previous units of the textbook. For the rest of the time, Tong devoted himself to practicing with students on how to write two body paragraphs in an essay. During my observation of the four writing lessons using the supplementary materials, one lesson involved Tong using supplementary materials to instruct students how to write an essay about the advantages of reading, with the sample text shown below:

Reading extensively can broaden our horizons. For example, through reading extensively we can learn something about our ancestors. Through reading extensively we can also gain insight of being great men.

Based on the above sample text in the supplementary materials, Tong started to enact his writing instruction. A speech function analysis of one illustrative discourse segment relevant of this instruction is shown in Table 7.7 below.

Table 7.7 <i>Tong's Writing Instruction</i>			
Speaker	Move	Mood type	Function
Tong	1.当你决定了你的观点, 下面就要写主题句和支撑句. ↓	Declarative	Statement
	2. Look at the first topic sentence here. ↓ (<i>Reading extensively can broad our</i>	Imperative	Command

	<i>horizons.</i> 3. How can we use supporting sentences to argue for this? ↑ 4. We can use many ways ↓, right? ↑ 5. Do Remember what we learned? ↑	Interrogative Declarative Interrogative	Question Question Question
Students	Silence (.)	--	(Disclaimer)
Tong	6. (Sign) (.)比如列举法 ... ↑	--	Answer
Students	=7.举例法, (.) 因果关系法, 比较, (.) 对照法 ↓	--	Answer
Tong	8. Good. ↓ 9. Can someone do it for this first topic sentence? ↑	-- Interrogative	Acknowledgement Command
Students	Silence (.)	--	Rejection
Tong	10. For example (.) ↑	--	Answer
Chen	11. (.) it can help us learn (.) what happens in the past. ↓	Declarative	Answer
Tong	12.= what happened in the past ↓ 13. I will do this way. ↓ 14. look at what I did (pointing to his teaching notes) ↓ 15. I used “for example” to support this topic. ↓ 16. Are you clear? ↑	Declarative Declarative Declarative Declarative Interrogative	Contradiction Statement Command Statement Question
Students	17. Yes ↓	--	Answer
Tong	18. also look at (.) the this short paragraph, ↓ 19. 我使用了 reading extensively 俩次. ↓ 20.这就是我们以前说的 重复词可以让段落更流畅。 ↓ 21. Grammar, words, (.) and organization is key to a good paragraph. ↓	Declarative Declarative Declarative Declarative	Command Statement Statement Statement

As is illustrated in Table 7.7, when using the supplementary materials, Tong mediated his students’ understanding of language form (i.e., paragraph structure, grammar) and the textual meaning within their ZPD through diverse speech functions (e.g., commands, answers, statements) and students’ first language.

In particular, his mediation of writing in the material started by his predominant use of questions to apprentice students into producing essays with accurate forms (i.e., structure and grammar). For instance, with a statement in Chinese to stress the importance of having a topic sentence and supporting sentences in terms of writing body

paragraphs, Tong then commanded students to look at the topic sentence in the sample text and used a question to prompt students to think about ways of supporting the topic sentence *reading extensively can broad our horizons* (clauses 1, 2 and 3). However, his students were silent and seemed unwilling to participate, as had been seen before. Facing students' silence, Tong sighed to indicate his slight frustration as also shown in his speaking instruction. But Tong, in no time, started to give more accessible mediation by providing them with a partial answer in Chinese to prompt their participation (clause 6). Because of Tong's use of their first language, the students seemed to pick up on this cue and therefore they displayed their knowledge in Chinese of how to expand topic sentences by saying such strategies as using cause and effect and comparison (clause 7). Also, because of Tong's similar mediation, one student bravely expanded on the topic sentence (i.e., *Reading extensively can broaden our horizons*) using his own words (clause 11), which was acknowledged but reformulated by Tong in terms of grammar.

Following the mediation of the role of language form in constructing a body paragraph (i.e., grammar and structure), Tong started to show the sample text through a PowerPoint and then used statements as a way of mediation to attend to the organization of the sentences (i.e., the textual flow) in the sample sentences. To illustrate, through three statements (clauses 18, 19, and 20), Tong highlighted the lexical cohesion (e.g., the repetitive use of *reading extensively*) in the text, which was also what students had learned, and its role in creating the flow of a text. That is, Tong mediated students' writing production within their ZPD by also raising students' awareness of the role of cohesive ties in constructing the textual flow of writing. Following a similar interactional pattern, he then taught the second paragraph by introducing cause-effect to expand the

structure of a new paragraph, along with lexical cohesion. Finally, Tong then showed how to combine the two topics to summarize the whole essay.

In sum, an SFL-based speech function analysis shows that when using the supplementary textbook for writing instruction, Tong, within his students' ZPD, mediated their understanding of the role of language form and cohesive ties in constructing an essay.

Beliefs and Practice: The Relationship between the Two

Based on an SFL-based speech function analysis of Tong's teaching practices, the following subsections demonstrate the relationship between Tong's teaching practices and his beliefs about textbook use.

Beliefs and practices about his students as textbook users. As revealed in the previous chapter, Tong believed that his students were not invested in learning through the textbook in class or out of class. At the same time, he also believed that most students' unenthusiastic behavior as textbook users was understandable, given that they were non-English major students and learning English just for the test. Through an SFL-based speech function analysis of Tong's teaching practices, Tong's mixed beliefs regarding this category manifest in his actual practices. For example, as a reflection of his negative evaluative stance toward his students as unenthusiastic textbook users in class and out of class, Tong gave his students time in class to read the text for the main ideas, which they should have done before class. Tong also had to command his students to speak on textbook-related topics when they seemed to lose concentration or become unwilling to participate.

Similarly, as a reflection of his belief about his students as coerced and unmotivated textbook users, Tong would always meticulously mediate his students' learning in class, even though most of the knowledge was not new to them during literacy instruction. His review of prior knowledge in the teaching of cohesive ties for writing and reading, for example, reflected his beliefs that teachers should care for their students, even though students might not invest themselves in learning English in or out of class. In other words, Tong's teaching practices show that he acted upon his mixed beliefs about his students.

Beliefs and practices about teacher education on textbook use. In terms of teacher education, Tong held a belief about teachers themselves having the power to improve their textbook use, dismissing as unhelpful the role of in-service and pre-service education. An SFL-based speech function analysis reveals that Tong's belief about his ability to teach without any training was mapped to his reading and writing practices. For instance, as a reflection of his belief about the important role of self-education on textbook use, Tong applied the textual meaning (i.e., creating or understanding the flow of a text through cohesive ties) he had self-learned and enacted it in the process of teaching writing and reading through the textbook. It was a big step forward for Tong to jump out of the shackles of the grammar-translation method and prepare his students for developing their awareness of language meaning in context. In other words, regarding Tong's beliefs about his professional education on textbook use, Tong also acted upon them in the process of textbook use.

Beliefs and practices about his teaching role regarding textbook use. Tong held a belief about himself as a qualified mediator of the textbook content. This was also

reflected in his teaching practices. As revealed by an SFL-based speech function analysis of Tong's instruction on speaking, listening, writing and reading, he was actively involved in mediating his students' understanding of the textbook or supplementary material in the process of teaching listening, speaking, writing and reading. Therefore, Tong, in the process of textbook use, also acted upon his beliefs in regards to his teaching role as a mediator of the textbook knowledge.

Beliefs and practices about literacy and literacy instruction. An SFL-based speech function analysis also shows that Tong's literacy instructional practices were an enactment of what he believed. For example, in alignment with his belief about the lesser role of speaking instruction, there was no sign of Tong's mediation of specific language knowledge; what is found is that Tong encouraged his students to talk. Regarding listening practices, Tong basically urged students to fill in blanks through repeated listening, along with his instruction about grammar and words. This also echoes his grammar-translation method informed beliefs about listening literacy and listening instruction. For reading and writing literacy and their instruction, Tong also acted upon his beliefs and meticulously mediated students' knowledge of grammar, words, and meaning of the whole text, as well as the textual meaning.

While the above subsections show Tong acted upon his beliefs in the process of textbook use, Tong's teaching practices also emerged as being more flexible and selective. Indeed, according to students' needs, Tong made changes as shown by his dynamic use of speech functions and code-switching to mediate his students' textbook-based learning based on students' reactions. For example, as shown in the data excerpts of Tong's teaching practices, he wanted to use English all the time to involve students in

class when teaching speaking and reading, but the students either failed to understand him or simply refused to respond to him when he did so. Tong had to initiate diverse speech functions that were not just questions and answers and he also had to switch to Chinese. By means of Tong's extra efforts in the process of his textbook use, he struggled to bring his beliefs to fruition in his classroom. Indeed, as Mansour (2009) noted, teaching practices develop through dynamic responses to the real learning and teaching environment. In other words, Tong's belief system could not fully predict what would actually happen in the classroom. It involved Tong's extra efforts to enact his beliefs during his teaching practices.

In addition, even though Tong acted upon many of his beliefs, Tong did not act upon all of them. In other words, what Tong believed about his textbook use seems to be a general and idealized conceptualization of his practices. For example, the belief in reading as a supplier of linguistic information did not completely map on to his teaching practices as the appraisal analysis in Chapter 6 shows Tong's evaluative stances toward the omnipotent power of reading for listening, speaking, and writing. Notably, Tong's awareness of the relationship between reading and other literacies, however, is only selectively exemplified by his connection between reading and writing or listening in his actual teaching. That is, while teaching the reading texts, Tong used a variety speech functions (e.g., commands, disclaimers) to show his students how they should use the structure *could have done* correctly in writing and understand it in listening. He also diligently mediated his students' understanding of the textual meaning in reading and reminded them to use the construction in writing. But during Tong's reading practices there was no attempt to try to connect reading to speaking in terms of language

expressions. Such selectivity is also found in the process of Tong's speaking instruction where he focused only on fostering students' courage to express themselves, which is only a part of his beliefs about speaking and speaking instruction.

In sum, an SFL-based speech function analysis of Tong's textbook use reveals that Tong acted upon his beliefs during his instruction in the textbook-based classroom. In addition, the analysis of Tong's textbook-based practices also shows that Tong's teaching practices were flexible and selective. In other words, Tong's beliefs were a more ideal conceptualization of his textbook use, suggesting there are some additional contextual factors that further conditioned the enactment of his beliefs in the process of textbook use.

A Contextual Explanation of Tong's Teaching Practices on Textbook Use

Indeed, Tong's textbook use in the classroom was a meaning-making process, similar to other classrooms (Cameron, 2001; Christie, 2005; Mansour, 2009). The context of culture influences how the classroom activities are organized as a response to the meaning potential provided by a larger community (Martin, 1992; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). On a micro level, the context of situation conditions the micro-patterns of interaction by assigning different social roles or power to interlocutors (i.e., teachers, students) and also determines the content of classroom activities (Christie, 2002; Eggins & Slade, 1997).

As shown in the earlier section, Tong acted upon his beliefs in the process of textbook use. This means that Tong's actual teaching practices were indirectly informed by the context that shaped Tong's beliefs (e.g., college band test, his past learning and schooling experience, his solidarity with himself), as shown in the previous chapter.

Indeed, Tong also reported the same contextual constraints on his actual teaching (Interview with Tong). For example, in terms of context of culture, the high stakes CET4 testing drove him to focus more on teaching what is tested. As a result, he gave only slight attention to speaking in the process of instruction. He also skipped some listening practices that were not related to the CET 4 test during his Friday listening instruction. Similarly, Tong's schooling experiences, as another context of culture factor, were also closely related to his grammar-translation based teaching, such as his focus on teaching grammar and words through reading and writing as well as drill based listening when using the textbook. In terms of the context of situation factor, his adoption of the textual meaning in the process of his reading and writing instruction was related to his solidarity of himself. Given that these repetitive contextual factors have been explored in the previous chapter, the following section thus sets out to show additional factors that emerged from supplementary interviews.

Indeed, Tong's flexibility or selectivity in acting upon his beliefs manifested in his teaching practices suggests that there were additional factors that further conditioned what he was doing in the classroom (e.g., his frequent use of Chinese during his teaching practices). Interviews with Tong and his students demonstrated the presence of additional context of situation factors such as (1) students' proficiency and personality and (2) limited course hours.

Students' Proficiency and Personality

Students, as the crucial interlocutors in the textbook-based classroom, influenced Tong's flexible use of the textbook. As mentioned in Chapter 5, students in Tong's class were not advanced English learners. Similar to many other non-English major students in

China, Tong's students were weak in English. This means that Tong needed to take care of these less advanced language learners in this textbook-based classroom. As Tong mentioned, "My students' level is not high, so I have to pay attention to my teaching. I could not speak English all the time. I want to... But if I speak English all the time, my students will feel lost. I speak Chinese time to time to better help my students understand my lecture, or change my interactional strategies" (Interview excerpt 6).

As shown in interview excerpt 6, Tong's flexible interactional practice (e.g., diverse speech functions, code-switching) was a result of him wanting his students who have limited English proficiency to better understand his lecture. As scholars (e.g., Achugar, 2009; Zolkower & Shreyar, 2007) suggested, code-switching and flexible use of speech functions are useful for mediating language learning. This is also further evidenced in students' interview answers. For example, one student reported: "I don't speak, because I did not get my instructor's question. I really think it is necessary for my teacher to speak Chinese time to time, not English all time or use different ways of question strategies" (student A's interview, author translation). In other words, students' proficiency as one context of situation factor well explains Tong's flexible instruction in the textbook-based classroom as compared to his beliefs.

In addition, students in Tong's class were not different from many other EFL counterparts in terms of their unwillingness to talk (Liu & Jackson, 2008). As student B reported: "I just do not like to participate; I just feel too embarrassed to talk in front of my classmates and would prefer to be a listener" (student B's interview, author translation). As such, there were frequent communication failures in Tong's classroom (i.e., students' frequent silence) that frustrated him momentarily while trying to teach.

Tong obviously had to come up with a way to improve such a situation by flexibly using a diverse array of strategies during the process of his textbook use (e.g., commanding his students to participate, allowing his students to speak in Chinese as a courage booster). In other words, Tong's flexible instruction can also be attributed to his students' silence or unwillingness to interact with him during his textbook use.

Limited Course Hours

Limited course hours as another context of situation factor seemed to also influence Tong's selective teaching practices in the textbook-based classroom, as is shown in the interview below:

I had to first finish the eight units of texts learning in the textbook in this semester. It is my first teaching task from my department... I really want to use the reading text and help with my students. I do not have too much time... I could only occasionally mention how it connects with other aspects of English learning, for example, such some useful phrases that might come across in their listening and writing. I barely have time to talk about speaking when using the text or correct students' pronunciation, grammar... it [speaking] is not tested on CET [written] test. (Interview excerpt 7)

As shown in Tong's interview excerpt 7, his beliefs about using the reading text as a crucial learning resource as well as his belief about the accurate expression of speaking were not completely actualized because of designated course hours implemented by his school. As a result, learning and finishing the content (i.e., reading) of the text was at the top of his agenda. This contextual factor explains how Tong's teaching practices shifted so that he could spend more of his time on reading and occasionally using it as a

linguistic supplier only for writing or listening. This factor also explains why there was no attempt by Tong to connect reading with speaking for his students or correct students' pronunciation, especially given that speaking is not even an obligatory part of the CET 4. Hence, factoring limited course hours in the context of situation illuminates why Tong selectively acted upon his beliefs in the process of textbook-based instruction.

Summary

Through an SFL-based speech function analysis, this chapter shows that Tong acted upon his beliefs in the process of textbook use. The moment-to-moment speech function analysis also illuminates Tong's flexible and selective enactment of his beliefs. This chapter, in the end, provides contextual explanations to unravel the mystery of the complex relationship between Tong's teaching beliefs and textbook use in the classroom.

CHAPTER 8

DISCUSSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Following a revisiting of the two research questions, this chapter aims to discuss the research findings in addition to exploring their pedagogical implications on future studies of teachers' beliefs and textbook use.

Research Questions Revisited

This study was motivated by two research gaps. First, many scholars (e.g., Allen, 2008; Santos, 2008; Sunderland et al., 2000) have pointed out that the value of ELT textbooks depends on how teachers use textbooks and conceptualize their use. However, there has been scarce attention on ELT teachers' textbook use and their beliefs about textbook use. Second, there is an imperative need for a new approach to textbook studies that shows a detailed analysis for such explorations, as previous studies mainly relied on content analysis of teachers' beliefs and teachers' practices (Borg, 2006; Li, 2013; see also Fives & Buehl, 2012 for a review). Studies deploying content analysis (e.g., Borg, 1998; Yang & Gao, 2013) either ignore how language as a socio-semiotic resource works in constructing teachers' beliefs or downplay moment-to-moment teaching practices in their process of showing how teachers act upon those beliefs (Kalaja, 2003; Li, 2013). In response to these two important research gaps, this current study, from the perspectives of SFL and SCT, investigated textbook use in a Chinese college EFL classroom, with the purpose of contributing to the literature on the relationship between ELT teachers' beliefs

and textbook use, and also contributing to the conceptual framework for understanding and analyzing the relationship.

Through a case study of a Chinese EFL teacher's classroom, the study specifically aimed to address two questions:

1. How does the focal teacher exemplify his beliefs about EFL textbook use?
 - a. How are the focal teacher's beliefs realized linguistically through his evaluative stances?
 - b. What are the contextual sources that shape the focal teacher's beliefs?
2. How does the focal teacher enact his textbook use in the classroom?
 - a. How does the focal teacher interact with his students and deliver language knowledge from the textbook?
 - b. What are the contextual factors that influence the focal teacher's textbook use?

In the following subsections, I provide the findings that emerged in the data analysis chapters to show how they answered the two research questions.

Finding 1: The Power of the SFL-based Appraisal System in Investigating the Focal Teacher's Beliefs

Informed by the SFL-based appraisal system (Martin & White, 2005), this study powerfully shows Tong's beliefs about textbook use within the following five categories: beliefs about his students, teaching role, teacher education, literacy and literacy instruction.

Beliefs about students in the textbook-based classroom. In alignment with previous studies (e.g., Rubie-Davies, 2015; Thompson, 1992) that claimed teachers' beliefs are sometimes mixed, the appraisal analysis shows that Tong also had mixed or

conflicting beliefs about the students in his textbook-based classroom. First, Tong held a negative evaluative stance towards his students because they did not study much after class and thus it was more difficult for him to help them learn in class. Second, Tong revealed his empathetic stance that students' learning behaviors were understandable because they had too heavy a course load and also lacked internal motivation to study English.

Beliefs about his teaching role. While previous research claimed that Chinese EFL teachers believe they are the central power in the classroom and focus on lecturing (e.g., Cortazzi & Jin, 1996), the appraisal analysis in this study shows that Tong held a positive evaluative stance toward himself as a qualified textbook user, especially as a mediator in the process of textbook use, suggesting that he was aware that students would learn better if he acted as a facilitator.

Beliefs about teacher education on textbook use. Echoing previous studies that reported the uselessness of China's college English teacher education (Cai, 2013; Cheng & Sun, 2010), the appraisal analysis of Tong's beliefs in this study also demonstrates his negative evaluative stance toward the role of in-service and pre-service teacher education in assisting his use of the textbook. In addition, in alignment with a few recent studies on the relationship among teachers' self-agency, beliefs and practices (e.g., Farrell, 2013, 2015), the appraisal analysis in this study reveals that Tong had a positive evaluative stance toward his ability to improving his textbook use on his own.

Beliefs about literacy and literacy instruction. As revealed by previous studies, teachers might have central beliefs and peripheral beliefs about their teaching (e.g., Thompson, 1992). The appraisal analysis also shows Tong's different evaluative stances

toward language literacy and its instruction. For example, Tong demonstrated a central belief in language form as the basis of learning and teaching through the textbook, such as learning words and grammar from the readings. Indeed, such a central belief about grammar-translation teaching methods has been identified and accepted by many Chinese EFL teachers (Yang, 2002; Zeng & Murphy, 2007).

However, in opposition with previous studies on Chinese EFL teachers' beliefs about language form (e.g., Ren, 2011; You, 2004), the appraisal analysis in this study also reveals Tong's peripheral belief about teaching the textual meaning during his process of textbook use. As a teacher who was subject to traditional teaching methods, Tong's belief about the status of developing the textual meaning is different from other teachers who have had similar experiences. This peripheral belief is especially characterized by his evaluative stance toward using the textbook to teach cohesive ties in deconstructing a text (e.g., reading) or constructing a text (e.g., writing).

In sum, as a response to research question one, the SFL-based appraisal analysis powerfully shows Tong's beliefs by revealing his use of different lexico-grammatical resources in constructing his evaluative stances as his beliefs. His beliefs regarding textbook use included his positive stance toward himself as a teacher and a self-motivated learner, and the role of language form and the textual meaning for literacy instruction. They also included his negative stance toward students' use of the textbook in class and out of class, and the lack of meaningful in-service and pre-service professional development regarding the use of the textbook.

Finding 2: A Peculiar SFL-based Stratification of Contextual Factors to Explain the Focal Teacher's Belief Discourse

Recently, scholars (e.g., Allen, 2008; Kuzborska, 2011; Mansour, 2009; Tschanne-Morgan, Salloum, & Goddard, 2015) showed that teachers' beliefs are shaped by social context. An SFL-based thematic analysis of the focal teacher's supplementary interviews in the current study, more exacting in the analysis of social contexts compared to these previous studies, provides a unique connection between the focal teacher's beliefs and context through stratifying context into the context of culture and the context of situation. Because of this stratification, the current study is able to provide a more detailed way of showing how the two-leveled contexts interact with each other in shaping Tong's belief discourse.

Specifically, this study, echoing previous studies (e.g. Attia, 2014; Lee & Bathmaker, 2007; Lee, 2008; Zeng & Murphy, 2007), shows that high-stakes testing and personal learning experiences are two key factors in the context of culture impacting teachers' beliefs (i.e., Tong's textbook use beliefs about the importance of testing skills and grammar-translation instruction). Also, similar to these previous studies, the national college English curriculum standards in this study emerged as a lesser contextual factor. Indeed, the national curriculum standards emphasize teaching how to use language, but Tong did not hold strong beliefs in developing students' well-rounded knowledge of language use in context, as was shown by his slight attention toward speaking instruction.

Additionally, this study, by particularly highlighting the context of situation factors—his alignment with himself and his students—further explains his belief discourse about textbook use. First, Tong’s alignment with himself shaped his positive evaluative stance toward himself in reconstructing his beliefs, disfavoring the teacher education he received. For example, Tong illustrated his changed belief of focusing on language form to focusing on language form and textual meaning in reading and writing. This change, as shown by his interviews, was a result of his own agency in learning the SFL-based textual meaning and applying it to his classroom to foster students’ writing and reading development. Indeed, the finding that the self functions as a source of power in shaping teachers’ beliefs in the current study also echoes similar findings in previous studies (e.g., Biesta, Priestley, & Robinson, 2015; Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001; Kuzborska, 2011; Wallace, 1991). Second, in alignment with few studies that emphasized how teachers’ relationships with their students influenced their beliefs (e.g., Pianta, Hamre, & Allen, 2011), this study also shows that the other context of situation factor—Tong’s interpersonal relationship with his students—influenced the formation of his beliefs. In this current study, his interpersonal relationship with his students was mixed: Tong aligned and also disaligned with his students in the classroom. It is because of this mixed relationship that results in both his positive and negative evaluative stances toward his students in his textbook-based classroom.

In sum, in response to research question one, the study also uniquely provides SFL-based context of cultural and situational explanations of the focal teacher’s belief discourse.

Finding 3: The Power of the SFL-based Speech Function in Revealing the Focal Teacher's Textbook Use in relation to His Beliefs

As revealed by previous studies, textbooks are regarded as a major resource or a hidden curriculum for teachers in the process of instruction (e.g., Tomlinson, 1998, 2003; Richards, 1998). The current study also shows that Tong also has a strong reliance on the textbook's recommendations in his classroom. For example, he used listening and speaking as a lead-in for his reading instruction, as instructed by the textbook. He also followed the textbook's tips for teaching the semantic division of a text as well as the vocabulary listed in the textbook.

More importantly, echoing a few previous studies that show the role of teachers in affecting the value of language textbooks by delivering the textbook content in accordance with their beliefs (e.g., Allen, 2008, Maggioni, Fox, & Alexander, 2015), this study contributes to literature and also illuminates that in his textbook-based classroom, Tong used a variety of speech functions (e.g., commands, questions, contradictions) along with students' first language to engage them in learning listening, speaking, reading and writing in accordance with his beliefs. In other words, Tong acted upon his beliefs during his actual teaching practices (i.e., beliefs about students in the textbook-based classroom, beliefs about himself as a teacher, beliefs about learning to use the textbook, beliefs about literacy and literacy instruction). Detailed findings regarding the relationship between Tong's textbook use and his beliefs are discussed below.

Listening. Indeed, as found in previous studies (e.g., Wang & Miao, 2003), Tong's listening instruction emphasized drill practices as he believed that repetitive listening automatically led to the comprehension of listening materials. Specifically, Tong used diverse speech functions (e.g., questions, commands) to mediate students' auditory understanding of the words and phrases, as was manifested by his beliefs about listening literacy and listening instruction.

Speaking. In alignment with part of his beliefs about speaking literacy and how it should be taught, Tong's speaking instruction seemed to focus more on fostering students' confidence in expressing themselves, not the accuracy of their expressions. This is in line with previous studies that speaking is not given enough attention in Chinese EFL classrooms (e.g., Rao & Lei, 2014; Yang, 2000). That is, his mediation practices featured his use of the speech function *question* to encourage his students' participation, but he did not try to correct any language errors in students' spoken English.

Reading. Tong's reading instruction not only reflected his beliefs about reading literacy and reading instruction, but also reflected his beliefs about his students, himself, and his teacher education. First, in line with his beliefs about reading literacy and reading instruction, Tong meticulously used a variety of speech functions (e.g., questions, commands), along with his students' first language, to mediate their knowledge at different linguistic levels in the reading text in a traditional way (e.g., words, phrases, grammar and the structure of the text). This also echoes many previous studies (e.g., Rao & Lei, 2014; Wang & Wang, 2011) that reading should be taught in such detail so that

students can learn language resources from it. Second, in alignment with his belief that his students did not have time to learn after class, he also gave time in class for students to read a little bit. Third, echoing his negative beliefs about teacher education and his positive beliefs about his self-exploration, Tong, during his reading instruction, relied on himself to mediate students' understanding of cohesive ties in deconstructing the textual meaning of the reading text.

Writing. Tong's writing instruction complied with not only his beliefs about writing literacy and writing instruction, but also his beliefs about himself and teacher education on textbook use. First, in alignment with his beliefs about writing literacy and writing instruction, Tong's teaching practices were characterized by his utilization of diverse speech functions (e.g., contradictions, acknowledgements, commands) and Chinese to mediate his students' knowledge of the rhetorical structure and grammatical accuracy of writing. Such practices were also revealed by many previous studies on Chinese EFL teachers who learned the grammar-translation method (Fu & Matoush, 2011; Yang, 2010; Yang & Shao, 2013; You, 2004). Second, during his writing instruction, Tong also highlighted the role of cohesive ties (e.g., the use of lexical resources) in mediating students to write more fluently. Such functional practices epitomized his beliefs about the power of self-agency in going beyond the grammar-translation method he was exposed to and his beliefs about the uselessness of teacher education he received. This was also found in few studies regarding Chinese EFL teachers' own agency in their attempt to break away from the tight hold of the grammar-translation method (e.g., Yang & Shao, 2013).

Flexible and selective consistency between Tong's beliefs and practices. In opposition with many previous findings that have only shown a consistency between teachers' beliefs and practices (e.g., Allen, 2008; Handal & Herrington, 2003; Kuzborska, 2011) or have reported that teachers did not act upon their beliefs (e.g., Lee, 2008, 2009), this study, through a moment-to-moment discourse analysis, uniquely shows that while there is a seeming gap between Tong's textbook use and beliefs, it was attributable to his flexible and selective compliance with his beliefs in the process of his textbook-based instruction. That is, Tong still acted upon his beliefs during his textbook use, but in a flexible or selective way. For example, while using reading to support the linguistic accuracy of other modes of literacy (e.g., speaking, writing and listening) was included in Tong's beliefs, in class he focused occasionally on using reading to develop students' linguistic accuracy of only writing and listening, not speaking. Additionally, the study also reveals that by means of a variety of speech functions, including code-switching as a way of mediation, Tong flexibly overcame interactional obstacles (e.g., students' silence) in the process of acting upon his beliefs.

In sum, as a response to research question two, the SFL-based speech function analysis powerfully shows Tong's flexibility (e.g., code-switching) and selectivity (e.g., focus on encouraging students to speaking instead of linguistic accuracy) in the process of acting upon his beliefs in his textbook-based classroom. That is, echoing previous studies, the current study reveals that Tong's teaching practices were congruent with his beliefs about the textbook-centered classroom. However, different from previous studies

that emphasize the complete congruence or incongruence between beliefs and practices, the current study uniquely reveals that the relationship between Tong's beliefs and his textbook practices was not a straightforward congruency; rather, it is a flexible and selective mapping.

Finding 4: The Peculiarity of the SFL-based Contextual Explanation for the 'Gap' between the Focal Teacher's Beliefs and Textbook Use

Since Tong's practices were a result of him acting upon his beliefs, contextual factors (e.g., learning experiences, the high stakes CET 4) that contributed to the formation of his beliefs also indirectly shaped his teaching practices in the textbook-based classroom, as reported by Tong. In addition to this, an SFL-based thematic analysis of supplementary interviews also reveals that additional context of situation factors in Tong's classroom further constrained his instructional use of the textbook, resulting in his flexible and selective teaching, as compared with his beliefs.

Students' English proficiency and personality. During his teaching practices, Tong often flexibly code-switched to Chinese or used a variety of speech functions. These were not elements of his beliefs. As shown by the supplementary interviews, these occurrences were a result of his students' low English proficiency and unwillingness to talk. Tong thus used flexible strategies to counteract such a negative scenario. In other words, his students' proficiency along with their personality explains Tong's flexible use of code-switching and diverse speech functions to help them understand his instruction and engage in his actual teaching practices in the textbook-based classroom.

Limited course hours. Limited course hours have often been pointed out as a factor leading to an inconsistency/mismatch between teachers' beliefs and practices in

previous studies (e.g., Fang, 1996; Lee, 2008). For example, Lee (2008) suggested that because of limited course hours, English teachers in a Hong Kong secondary school adopted form-based teaching even though these teachers believed in meaning-based teaching. Different from these previous studies, the current study, through the supplementary interviews, shows that limited course hours were a factor merely leading to Tong's selectivity in fulfilling his beliefs during his teaching practices; limited course hours, however, did not affect Tong's compliance with his beliefs during his textbook use practices, even though the compliance was constrained.

In sum, as a response to research question two, this study also illuminates that Tong acted upon his beliefs in the process of his textbook use in a flexible and selective way. It also shows that additional context of situation factors could explain Tong's flexible and selective compliance with his beliefs during his textbook use.

Implications of the Study

The findings in this study point to several important pedagogical implications. First, the study suggests the usefulness of SFL and SCT in investigating teachers' beliefs and instructional practices in a textbook-based classroom, including but not limited to language textbooks. Indeed, SCT and SFL, as learning theories, are able to guide an investigation of a textbook-based classroom because learning in a content-based classroom (e.g., mathematics, science) also involves teachers' mediation of both language form and language meaning through cross-disciplinary texts (Fang & Schleppegrell, 2010). In addition, given that both the constructs of beliefs and practices are meaningfully embedded in context (Mansour, 2009), it would be meaningless for an investigation out of context. SFL's trinocular emphasis on the link among context,

meaning-making and linguistic realization makes SFL a useful discourse analytic tool for an in-depth exploration of the constructs of teachers' beliefs and practices in any discipline.

Second, the study also implies that it is imperative to design textbooks that are able to guide teachers to highlight meaning-based language learning in the classroom, given that textbooks are such an important resource or a hidden curriculum in the classroom (Jakubiak & Harklau, 2010; Matthiessen, 2006; Richards, 1998). Indeed, in the current study, Tong showed his reliance on the textbooks to instruct language, similar to many other Chinese college English teachers (Wang & Farmer, 2008). To better prepare students for the global trend of emphasizing language learners' language use in context as required by China's college English curriculum standards, it is imperative to adopt textbooks that can aid teachers in gaining an awareness of the concurrent roles of language form and meaning (e.g., different genres and their linguistic realization) and better acting upon such beliefs to teach English in the textbook-based classroom (Aljohani, 2012; Wen & Mo, 2013; Zeng & Murphy, 2007).

Third, the study also casts light on the adoption of language meaning-based teacher education either in an ESL or EFL context. As found in Tong's case, he tried to teach the textual meaning, a construct from SFL, and received positive feedback from his students, even though he could have also gone beyond this construct and utilized the other two constructs from SFL (i.e., the ideational meaning and interpersonal meaning) in the process of his textbook use. In other words, incorporating SFL into teacher education seems to produce good results, as also suggested by many empirical studies conducted in international communities (Gebhard, 2010; Gebhard, Chen, Graham, & Gunawan, 2013;

Gebhard, Harman, & Segear, 2007). It thus looks promising to conduct similar SFL-based teacher education among different levels of teachers so that they, in the process of their textbook-based teaching, can better conceptualize language teaching and effectively develop students' knowledge of both language form and meaning.

Fourth, the contextual constraints on teachers' beliefs and practices also point to the need of reform in educational policies (Luft & Wong, 2014; Yang, 2015; Zheng & Davidson, 2008). For instance, the high-stakes CET 4 test in China pushes teachers to focus on testing skills and so students become test-driven. The high-stakes nature of language learning makes teachers focus more on passing the test instead of supporting students in learning a language and ultimately using it in real contexts. In other words, this suggests that EFL education policy makers should lower the privilege associated with passing the test, and raise students' awareness of the real purpose of learning a language (Deng, Chen, & Zhang, 2014).

Fifth, the study also implicates the role of self-development for teachers who have limited access to effective and long-term teacher education. Indeed, teacher education in many countries is still limited and inaccessible to many, which is the case in China (Cai, 2013; Ding, 2013; Cheng & Sun, 2010; Meng & Tajaroensuk, 2013; Zhou, 2002, 2008). However, it does not mean that there is no way for language teachers to develop in such a constrained context. As shown by the current study, teachers should give play to their own agency in reflecting and enacting their teaching practices and changing their beliefs about the use of the textbooks (Farrell, 2013, 2015; Lang, 2001). In particular, integrating a linguistic theory (e.g., SFL) would be of much assistance to teachers' self-

development and help improve their textbook-based teaching (Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001; Borg & Liu, 2013; Gebhard, 2010).

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Appendix A

Pre-study Survey

A: Pre-study Survey for Teachers

Name: _____

- (1) Years of teaching college English: _____
- (2) Is your classroom textbook-based? **Yes** **No** (circle your answer)
- (3) What is the textbook you are using? _____
- (4) What is your highest degree? _____
- (5) Have you ever received professional development on textbook use? **Yes** **No**
(circle your answer)
- (6) Do you think the professional development was useful? Why?
- (7) Do you feel comfortable having an observer in your classroom? **Yes** **No** (circle your answer)

B. Pre-study Survey for students

Name: _____

- (1) What is your major? _____
您的专业是什么?
- (2) Do you only spend time learning English in class? **Yes** **No** (circle your answer)
课堂学习是目前您主要的英语学习途径吗? 是 否 (请圈出您的答案)
- (3) How many hours do you spend on college English learning outside of class? _____
课下一般花多长时间学习英语?
- (4) What do you learn through the textbook after class?
课下都学习课本里什么内容
- (5) Do you feel comfortable having an observer in your classroom? **Yes** **No** (circle your answer)
您介意有人观察你们的教学吗? 是 否 (请圈出您的答案)

Appendix B

Interview Questions

A. Interview Questions for the Teacher

1. Can you tell me about your English education background?
2. Can you also tell me about the requirements of the latest college English curriculum? What is its main content?
3. What do you think of your students?
4. In your opinion, what are your experiences of learning to use the textbook to teach?
5. What do you think of yourself as a teacher?
6. What do you think are the crucial features that good English learners should know for speaking/listening/reading/writing?
7. How do you think speaking/reading/listening/writing should be taught?
8. What are the factors that influence your teaching beliefs/classroom performance?
9. As I found when observing your class, you taught the textual meaning, what prompted you to do so?
10. What do you think of the materials you are using?

B. Interview Questions for the Students

1. What's your name, major and hometown? 您的姓名, 专业, 家乡?
2. Before I observed your classroom, how did your teacher teach speaking, listening, reading and writing? 在我没来之前, 你们老师是如何进行听说读写的?
3. What makes you keep silent in class? 您上课为什么不爱参与老师的问答?
4. Do you understand your teacher's instruction when he speaks English all the time?
5. 如果您的老师一直说英语, 您会感觉理解吃力吗?
6. What is your purpose for taking college English? Do you think you will use it after graduation? 您为什么学英语? 您觉得毕业以后会用到吗?

Appendix C

Observation Guide

Observation of the Teacher's Performance

- How is the class organized and paced when teaching speaking, listening, reading and writing?
- How does the teacher present textbook- knowledge when teaching speaking, listening, reading and writing?
- What are the teacher's facial expressions/body language when interacting with students?
- What content does the teacher cover when using the textbook in class?

Observations of the Classroom Setting

- How many students are there?
- How are students seated in the classroom?
- What equipment/technology is used in the textbook-based classroom?
- How long does the teacher teach a specific literacy in a unit?
- What materials are being used in the class?

Observations of the Students

- How do students respond to their teacher's textbook-based teaching?
- What paralinguistic features do students have when listening to lecture?

Based on the observation guide, field notes were written for each class during my one-and-a-half months of observation. They were used to inform the context of my research and my data analysis.

Appendix D

Transcription Conventions

Symbols	Meaning
Students	No specific students were identified
[Words in a bracket]	Important non-verbal gestures and movements or long answer by teachers or students
=	Latching (Tong and his students speaking at the same time)
(.)	Pause of speech
↑	Rising intonation
↓	Falling intonation
Words in bold	Speech emphasis
<i><u>Words or phrases italicized and underlined</u></i>	Key appraisal resources