

**AN IMPLEMENTATION STUDY OF THE ENGLISH  
AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE CURRICULUM POLICIES  
IN THE CHINESE TERTIARY CONTEXT**

by

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## ABSTRACT

This study explores the implementation of the mandatory national college English curriculum within a Chinese tertiary context. Using a mixed methods approach, I conducted the study by engaging three groups of participants. I interviewed four national policymakers in terms of syllabi, textbooks, and tests to identify the intended curriculum. I interviewed six departmental administrators to determine their perceptions of the national language policies and their roles in ensuring the implementation of these policies. I conducted surveys to discover 248 teachers' perceptions of the intended curriculum and uncovered the factors affecting their implementation activities in the classroom. By observing two teachers' classrooms and through follow-up interviews, I also examined how the language policies were being interpreted at the grass-roots level.

The findings revealed a discrepancy between policymakers and administrators and between policymakers' intentions and teachers' implementation. Policymakers designed general, open-ended, and abstract policies to offer local universities and teachers some flexibility and autonomy when they put those policies into practice. However, administrators as intermediary individuals between policymakers and implementers apparently interpreted the open-endedness of the curriculum policies differently than the policymakers had intended. Instead of using the built-in flexibility to tailor methods of helping students gain proficiency, they placed their emphasis on only one outcome—students' good scores on the national English test. They also failed to support their teachers in understanding the policies by not providing necessary resources to help them implement the policies fully.

Furthermore, the research uncovered five external and internal factors as significant predictors of teachers' implementation: resource support, teaching methods (communicative language teaching and grammar-translation method), teaching experience, language proficiency, and professional development needs. Classroom observations and interviews revealed that teachers failed to implement what was expected from policymakers in the classroom. Rather, they conducted teaching based on the classroom and political reality. Their factors were mainly student factors and the departmental factor. The implications of this study point to the importance of the intermediaries, the department heads, in both providing the necessary pressure (motivation) and support (resources) necessary for the implementation to occur.

**DEDICATION**

In memory of my parents, who valued education and supported me during those difficult days.

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

The current study explored the implementation of the mandatory national college English curriculum within a Chinese tertiary context. The focus was on both the intended and the enacted curriculum since 1986 when the College English Teaching Syllabus was adopted nationwide, with particular emphasis on the revision of this syllabus in 1999. This chapter consists of five sections and provides an overall introduction to the study. First, I identify the research problem and state the purpose of the study as well as the research questions. Then I introduce the context of the study: the educational system, college English education in terms of its syllabi, textbooks, and tests, and the fidelity assumption of college English curriculum implementation. Next I discuss the significance of the study. Finally, I provide an overview of each chapter of the thesis.

#### *The Research Problem*

Since the late seventies, educators and researchers in general education have recognized the problematic nature of implementing a proposed curriculum (Snyder, Bolin, & Zumwalt, 1992). The process of curriculum implementation has been described as a “black box” (O’Sullivan, 2002), in which challenges to implementation can arise. The complexities of and incongruent relationship between curriculum policy and its practice are indicators of the implementation problems (Elmore & Sykes, 1992). According to Bekalo and Welford (2000), a discrepancy often exists between what was intended and what is enacted. The view that these two objectives should match poses

challenges for policymakers, administrators, and teachers in particular (Connelly & Lantz, 1991).

Problems of various kinds arising from curriculum implementation have been recognized as inevitable, and therefore the implementation is inherently more complex than people anticipate (Brindley & Hood, 1990; Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991). This complexity can be perceived from several aspects, with stakeholders at different levels interpreting the curriculum policies differently than as originally conceived. First of all, policymakers produce policies with good intentions, but unforeseen and often unwanted results may occur as the policies are translated by the local implementing institutions. Second, as the policy translators, middle-level administrators may have their own interpretation of the policies. They are likely to encounter institutional or contextual constraints; so therefore, their attempts at implementing the policies from the top may get stuck in real operations.

Third, the implementation may also be confounded by the resistance of the primary stakeholders, i.e., the teachers (Morris, 1985; Nisbet & Collins, 1978; Williams et al., 1994). Teachers may view the revised curriculum either negatively or simply differently than as was the intent of the policymakers (Karavas-Doukas, 1995), or view the innovations<sup>1</sup> favourably but not incorporate the curriculum changes into their day-to-day classroom teaching for various reasons (Beretta, 1990; Gahin & Myhill, 2001). This non-implementation or semi-implementation of curriculum is prevalent in both English as a second language and foreign language contexts. My 14 years of teaching and administration in a Chinese university have confirmed this observation. Other researchers besides myself have found teachers adopting and using what they consider to be

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<sup>1</sup> In this thesis, the term “innovation” is used interchangeably with the terms “reform” and “change.”

appropriate teaching methods and suitable instructional materials behind closed doors, skirting the guidelines laid down in the syllabus (Anderson, 1993; Penner, 1995; Wang, 2001; Wang & Han, 2002). Despite guidelines from curricular documents stipulating what is to be taught, teachers often continue in their previous methods.

Studies of the impact of curriculum implementation on educational outcomes tend to adopt three different approaches (Snyder et al., 1992). First, the fidelity perspective determines “the degree of implementation of an innovation in terms of the extent to which actual use of the innovation corresponds to intended or planned use and to determine factors which facilitate and inhibit such implementation” (Fullan & Pomfret, 1977, p. 340). Several studies from this perspective measured and assessed the degree of implementation (Carless, 1998; Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; Gross, Giacquinta, & Bernstein, 1971). Second, the mutual adaptation perspective (Berman, 1978; Berman & McLaughlin, 1980) studies how the innovation has been adapted during the process of implementation. The third perspective shifts its focus from studying the implementation and adaptation of proposed curricula to studying curriculum enactment. Studies with this last focus have examined how a curriculum is shaped through the evolving constructs of teachers and students (Bussis, Chittenden, & Amarel, 1976; Paris, 1989). These three approaches have been used in the fields of general education and of language education to explore the effects of curriculum implementation on both teachers and students.

There has been an increased interest in curriculum implementation in language education. Many studies have been undertaken on English as a second language (ESL) curriculum implementation to improve teaching and learning and on how to manage curricular innovation in the ESL context (Beretta, 1990; Brindley & Hood, 1990; Fox,



2005; Johnson, 1989; Markee, 1997; Stoller, 1994; White, 1988, 1993). However, only a few empirical studies (Gorsuch, 2000; Henrichsen, 1989; Karavas-Doukas, 1995; O'Sullivan, 2002) focusing on English as a foreign language (EFL) curriculum implementation have actually been conducted. Particularly, studies of the EFL curriculum at the tertiary level in the Chinese context are scarce. This curriculum is a national one; it is supposed to be followed by over 1,571 universities and colleges in China (<http://www.edu.cn>) and potentially affects approximately 3.1 million Chinese university students each year. Therefore, it is imperative that a study of college English curriculum implementation in this context be conducted.

### *The Purpose of the Study and Research Questions*

The overall purpose of this research was to explore the implementation of the mandatory national college English curriculum in the Chinese tertiary context. Explicitly, this research was to uncover the factors affecting implementation through the lenses of different participants—in this case, policymakers, administrators, and teachers. Through the identification of these factors, this research intended to help language policymakers and administrators gain a better understanding of college English curriculum development, of the impact of this curriculum on the English as a foreign language teaching and learning, and of the challenges it has posed for teachers, with a view to improving language education in China.

In this study, I addressed four research questions:

1. What has been proposed in terms of the intended curriculum to achieve the stated objectives in the official syllabus?

2. What perceptions do administrators have about the college English curriculum and its implementation?
3. What perceptions do teachers have about the college English curriculum and its implementation?
4. How is the intended curriculum interpreted by classroom teachers?

### *The Context of the Study*

This section provides background information about college English education in China. It first describes the educational system that governs college English teaching and learning in the Chinese tertiary context. Then it describes syllabi, textbooks, and tests in relation to this context.

#### *The Educational System of College English in China*

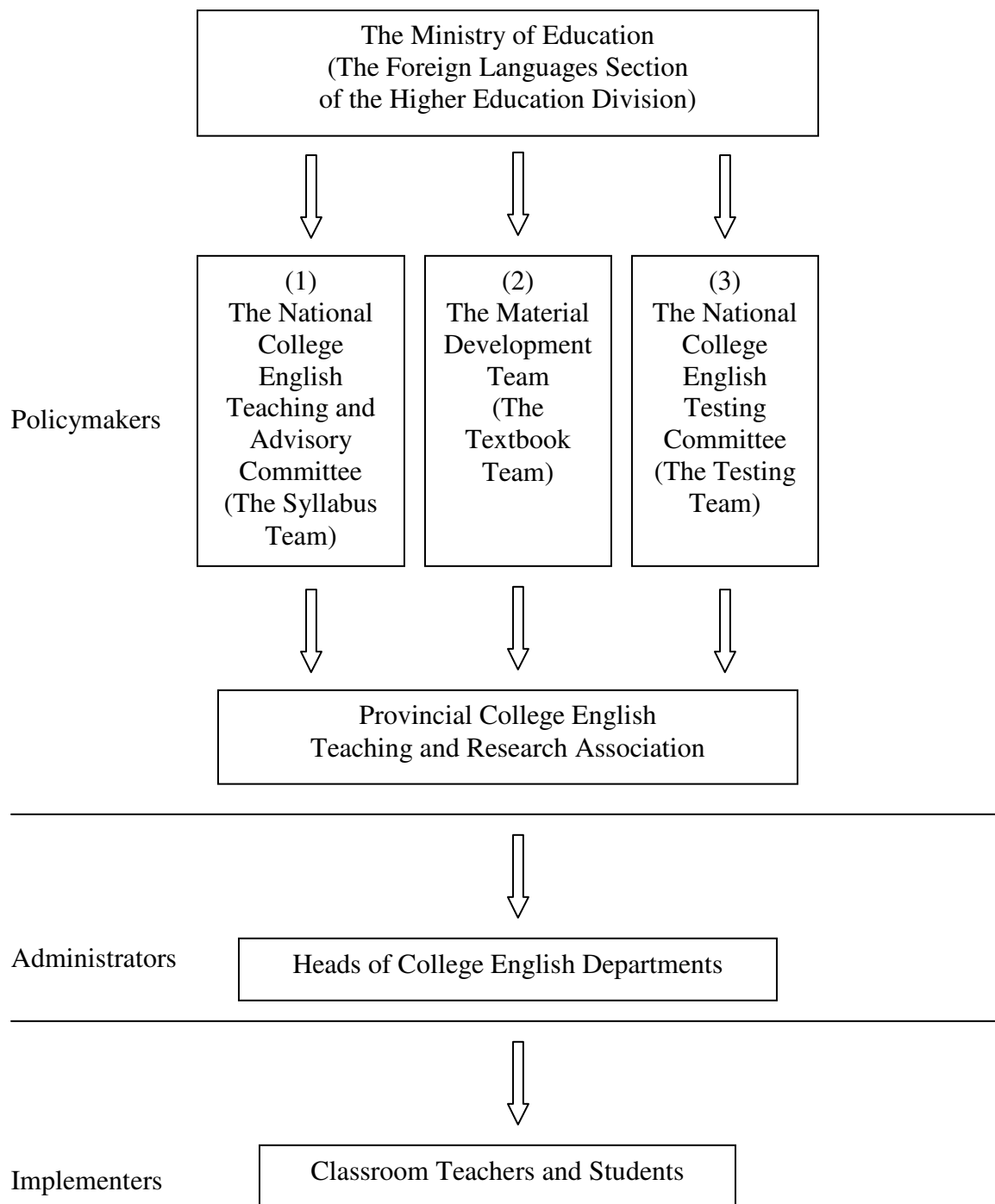
In China at the tertiary level, there are two types of English language education: one for English-major students and the other for non-English-major students (Wang, 2001). Language education for English majors centres on developing students' language proficiency to an advanced/sophisticated level; only a small number of university students are enrolled in such a program. Language education for non-English majors is called "College English Education," which refers to the English language instruction in both universities and colleges. Non-English majors constitute the largest proportion of tertiary-level students pursuing undergraduate degrees in a variety of disciplines, such as the arts, sciences, engineering, management, law, and medical science. These students study English primarily as a tool to help them achieve advancement in their own fields. In 2003, approximately 3.1 million students (<http://www.china.org.cn>) were enrolled in such English instruction at 1,571 Chinese universities and colleges (<http://www.edu.cn>) in 32

provinces, autonomous regions, and municipalities within an area of 9.6 million square kilometres in China.

College English education in China reflects a highly hierarchical structure. From my perspective, I have identified five tiers in language teaching and learning in institutions of higher learning (see Figure 1). The first tier is the Ministry of Education, with the Foreign Languages Section of the Higher Education Division as its representative. This tier represents the level where policymakers from governmental organizations formulate the national language policies, based on the needs of the country as well as on the needs of national economic development. The second tier consists of three committees or teams undertaking three respective tasks at the national level. They are: (1) the National College English Teaching and Advisory Committee (i.e., the Syllabus Team); (2) the Materials Development Team (i.e., the Textbook Team); and (3) the National College English Testing Committee (i.e., the Testing Team). These first two tiers are the national policymakers in language curriculum implementation.

The third tier is at the provincial or municipal level, where there exists a Provincial College English Teaching and Research Association. This is an academic association that regularly organizes local language teaching activities such as lectures, academic conferences, and large-scale English contests. This tier is also involved in policymaking; however, its academic nature indicates a lesser role.

The fourth tier consists of universities that maintain a College English Department, with administrators tasked with carrying out the intended curriculum expected from the national policymakers. They formulate local rules and regulations on college English teaching and learning, based on the situation at each university. Within



*Figure 1.* Policy hierarchy of college English education in China.

the department, there are several teaching and research groups, which consist of teachers who teach students of the same cohort. These groups conduct teaching activities under the leadership of a director on a regular basis. This tier includes administrators carrying out curriculum implementation.

The fifth tier consists of classroom teachers and students: those who deliver the curriculum and those who receive the curriculum, and who are the actual implementers of the process. College English teachers are usually assigned two classes each term and teach 10 to 12 teaching periods each week, with each teaching period having a duration of 50 minutes. There are between 45 and 60 students in each class, and every EFL teacher must provide lessons on all the components (i.e., “Reading and Writing” and “Listening and Speaking”) in the college English course.

Overall, the structure of college English education at the Chinese tertiary level is that of a hierarchical administration, in which the top tiers have more power than the lower ones with regard to policymaking.

### ***College English Education at the Chinese Tertiary Level***

In 1977, College English was called “Public English.” The term was changed to “College English” in the early 1980s. Since the advent of the official national college English curriculum in 1985, college English teaching has undergone dramatic changes and reforms. The most noticeable changes have been connected with three aspects of college English education: syllabi, textbooks, and tests. The following section will elaborate on these three aspects.

***The College English Teaching Syllabus.*** The College English Teaching Syllabus (see Appendix A) is an official curricular document that sets standards for college

English teaching and learning. The first syllabus was published in 1979. The second one was published in 1986 and has been adopted by virtually all Chinese universities and colleges. This functional-notional syllabus organized the content of the language teaching around both functions and notions, with the former tied into concepts from discourse analysis, such as defining, explaining, apologizing, and inviting and the latter drawn from conceptual categories such as dimensions and measurement (Krahnke, 1987). A third revised syllabus was released in 1999, and the title of the fourth version of the syllabus was changed to “College English Curriculum Requirements” on its release in January 2004.

The College English Teaching Syllabus has exerted a tremendous influence on teaching and learning at the tertiary level in China. The objective set out in the syllabus states: “College English aims to develop in students a relatively high level of competence in reading, an intermediate level of competence in listening, and a basic competence in writing and speaking” (College English Syllabus Revision Team—CESRT for short thereafter, 1986, p. 1). After the completion of the course, students are expected to be able to use the English language as a means to obtain whatever information they need in their fields of specialization.

In accordance with the syllabus, college English teaching is divided into two stages: the foundation stage and the specialized reading stage. The foundation stage is subdivided into six progressive bands, known as College English Bands 1-6. According to students’ different levels of English, college English at the foundation stage is categorized into two requirements: basic requirements at Band 4 and higher requirements at Band 6. Those who have successfully completed the first four bands are considered to

have met the basic requirements of Band 4, whereas those who have passed Band 6 are considered to have met the higher requirements.

College English at the specialized reading stage aims to ensure continuity in English learning for students and to help them access information from English books, English journals, and other resources of English medium/origin, required from their specialization (CESRT, 1986). The syllabus states that a specialized reading course should be offered by teachers from relevant disciplines in the third and fourth year. During this period, students are expected to have two teaching periods per week of class where they are given instruction and guidance in reading English publications related to their undergraduate major.

For all university and college non-English majors who learn English as a foreign language (EFL) in the Chinese tertiary classroom, a study of college English for at least two years or four semesters is mandatory. Students have to take a total of 280 teaching hours of English—about 70 hours each term (5 hours each week for a total of 17 weeks)—in order to meet the basic requirements of Band 4. Students with better English proficiency can continue their language learning to meet the higher requirements of Band 6. The requirements for each skill at Band 4 and 6 are presented in Table 1.

The aforementioned requirements in the 1986 Syllabus have remained the same for about 15 years. Due to the demands of society as well as due to the improvement in students' English proficiency, the College English Teaching Syllabus was revised twice after 1986. In 1999, the revised syllabus changed the teaching objectives to the following statement: "College English aims to develop in students *a relatively high level of competence* in reading, and *an intermediate level of competence* in listening, speaking,

writing, and translating so that students can communicate in English” (CESRT, 1999, p. 1, author’s emphasis). The change from the three-level requirements of language skills in the 1986 Syllabus (i.e., *a relatively high level of competence* in reading, *an intermediate level of competence* in listening, and *a basic competence* in writing and speaking) to the 1999 two-level requirements indicated an emphasis on the equal development of reading, listening, writing, and speaking. This change implied that writing and speaking were no longer considered as secondary in college English teaching in the late 1990s. Such change is dramatic since historically the productive skills of writing and speaking were least assessed in English tests, which justifies my focus on the 1999 Syllabus in this study.

Table 1

*Specifications for College English Band 4 and Band 6*

Skills Levels	Vocabulary	Reading	Listening	Writing	Speaking
Band 4	Recognition of 4,000 words	Average materials at 50 WPM*	Average, familiar materials at 120 WPM	Write, without serious grammatical mistakes, a 100-120-word-long guided composition within 30 minutes	Carry on simple everyday conversations; ask and answer questions based on a given text
Band 6	Recognition of 5,300 words	Average materials at 70 WPM	Average, familiar materials at 140 WPM	Write, within 30 minutes, a 120-150-word-long coherent composition, such as a letter or summary of a given text	Give, after some preparation, a short talk on a given text or a given topic

*Note.* WPM means words per minute.

In January 2004, the College English Teaching Syllabus was changed to “College English Curriculum Requirements.” The objective was once again restated as follows:

The objective of College English is to develop students’ English 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. (Ministry of Education, 2004, p. 24)

This objective statement signalled a significant switch—from an emphasis on reading in the previous syllabi to the current emphasis on listening and speaking.

*The College English Textbooks.* In Chinese college English education, textbooks play a very important role. The importance of college English textbooks can be understood from Y. Wang's (1999) comment: "They [college English textbooks]<sup>2</sup> are compiled by a government-appointed panel of experts according to the curriculum set by the government and are universally used by universities and colleges throughout the country" (p. 47). To a great extent, textbooks represent the syllabus and dictate what needs to be taught. Teachers are expected to closely follow the structure of textbooks to plan their teaching; students must purchase the textbooks being used by their teachers.

Between 1986 and 1999, four sets of college English textbooks were developed under the guidelines of the 1986 Syllabus, but only two sets were widely used for non-English majors in most institutions of higher learning in China. They were *College English* (Zhai et al., 1991), for students of arts and sciences, used by about 50% of all universities and colleges and *College Core English: Reading and Writing* (Yang et al., 1992), for students of science and engineering, used by about 25% (Wang & Han, 2002).

Ranked top among all textbooks for non-English majors in China, *College English* exerted the most influence on materials development. It embodied the essence of the syllabus. In fact, this set of textbooks influenced college English teaching to such an

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<sup>2</sup> I use [ ] in the whole thesis to refer to my additions or explanations of quotations from the literature or of interview data.

extent that the instructional sessions were arranged according to *College English*. It consisted of a five-volume series: Intensive Reading<sup>3</sup>, Extensive Reading<sup>4</sup>, Fast Reading<sup>5</sup>, Grammar and Exercises, and Focus Listening. The five-volume series functioned as five components in the college English course, and is presented in Table 2.

Table 2

*Instructional Sessions for the College English Course*

Course Components	Time Slots Each Week	Instructional Focus
Intensive Reading (20-minute Grammar & Exercises included)	2 teaching periods	Grammar, vocabulary, reading, and writing, taught through a written text
Extensive Reading (20-minute Fast Reading included)	2 teaching periods	Different reading skills and strategies
Focus Listening	1 or 2 teaching periods	Listening skills and strategies

With the modifications of the College English Teaching Syllabus in 1999, new college English textbooks were produced by publishers and distributed to all Chinese universities and colleges. Among them, four sets of textbooks were recommended by the

<sup>3</sup> Intensive Reading (IR) in the college English education “is actually not a reading course, but the core course in EFL in which everything that the teacher wants to teach (grammar, vocabulary, reading aloud, etc.) is taught through a written text” (Li, 1984, p. 13). Susser and Robb (1990) referred to IR as “close study of short passages, including syntactic, semantic, and lexical analyses and translation into the L1 to study meaning” (p. 161). In the Chinese EFL tertiary setting, IR integrates reading, use of words, knowledge of grammar and structure, writing skills, and translation practice. All these skills are taught through a reading unit that includes two or three pages of a written text and several pages of exercises on linguistic and grammatical points and on writing topics (Wang & Han, 2002).

<sup>4</sup> Extensive Reading (ER) in the college English curriculum is a reading class. Students are required to read text, out of class, from the ER textbooks including materials from different genres, such as autobiographies, short stories, and popular science articles, prior to the class. What EFL teachers do in such classes is check students’ homework by asking comprehension questions, have students discuss what they have read and have them do corresponding exercises. The purpose of ER class in the college English curriculum is for the students to gain general understanding of the issued texts.

<sup>5</sup> Fast Reading (FR) in the college English curriculum refers to reading practice, in which speed in reading is the objective. Reading speed is measured in *words per minute* (WPM). Teachers distribute reading materials with known word counts, and students check their time when they complete the materials.

Foreign Languages Section of the Higher Education Division, the Ministry of Education. These four sets of textbooks gradually replaced the previous two sets of textbooks in many universities and colleges. The new textbooks also provided computer courseware to aid teaching and learning. In accordance with the new textbooks, college English teaching was restructured into two components: “Reading and Writing” with four teaching periods per week and “Listening and Speaking” with one or two teaching periods per week. There are ten units in each band for each component (see a sample text of “Reading and Writing” in Appendix B). Teachers are required to complete all of the tasks in each band during each term.

*The College English Test.* At the foundation stage, students’ English proficiency is assessed by the College English Tests (CET) Band 1-6, which correspond to the requirements of the College English Teaching Syllabus. Students must take the tests after completing language studies at each band; the test content is mainly based on textbooks. However, there are only two key bands—the College English Test Band 4 (CET-4) and Band 6 (CET-6)—that are tested nationwide. These two tests are the English proficiency tests that correspond respectively to the required basic and the higher requirements as described in the College English Teaching Syllabus.

As stated in the syllabus, the purposes of the college English test are to assess college students’ achievement of the objectives in the College English Teaching Syllabus, to evaluate teaching and learning, to collect feedback via test results, and eventually to improve classroom teaching in accordance with the feedback. The emphasis of language tests is to measure students’ language foundation and their ability to use the language. Thus, tests must be scientific, standardized, and fair (CESRT, 1986). The CET is held

twice a year—on the first Saturday in January and on the third Saturday in June. The CET-4 and the CET-6 are administered simultaneously by the National College English Testing Committee, which is under the auspices of the Ministry of Education. Y. Wang (1999) noted that as a minimum competency test with 60 points indicating “Pass,” “each university non-English major in China is required to pass Band 4 (CET-4) after he or she finishes two years of EFL study; otherwise, he or she might be disqualified for a baccalaureate upon graduation” (p. 48).

To determine whether the College English Teaching Syllabus has been properly implemented, the College English Testing Syllabus (see Appendix C) includes the following test items: listening, reading, vocabulary and structure, cloze, and writing. Table 3 presents the test format of the CET-4. The format of the CET-6 is not included here because it is similar to the CET-4, excepting that the test item “Cloze” is replaced by “Error Correction” and that the essay writing is to be no less than 120 words. The CET-6 is optional for those who have passed the CET-4.

Table 3  
*The Test Format of the CET-4*

College English Test Band 4 (CET-4)			
Test Items	Percentage (%)	Time (Minutes)	Specifications
Listening Comprehension	20	20	10 short conversations and 3 short passages with 20 multiple-choice questions
Reading Comprehension	40	35	4 passages with 20 multiple-choice questions
Vocabulary and Structure	15	20	30 multiple-choice questions with 60% on vocabulary and 40% on structure
Cloze	10	15	20 multiple-choice questions
Writing	15	30	Writing an essay of 120-150 words according to the specification of a given topic
Total	100	120	

Since 1996, major changes have been introduced to the testing syllabus, especially in the formats of the CET-4 and the CET-6. The most significant was the change from mainly multiple-choice questions to more open-ended or short answer questions. New test items were added into the CET in order to increase subjective items and to decrease objective items, to reduce students' guessing during tests. Three new test items added were:

1. Listening Comprehension: Spot Dictation and Compound Dictation were added. Spot Dictation requires students to fill in the blanks with exact words or phrases in a passage of about 120 words. Compound Dictation requires students to fill in the blanks with words in a passage of about 250 words, and then to write down the main points of the dictated passage.
2. Reading Comprehension: Short Answer Questions were added. Instead of the Cloze Test, one passage was added which required students to answer questions in words, phrases, or short sentences.
3. Reading Comprehension: English to Chinese Translation was added. Among the four reading passages in the Reading Comprehension Part of the CET, one or two sentences in each passage were underlined for translation from English to Chinese.

In addition to the above reforms, in November 1999 the Spoken English Test (SET) was added to the College English Test for college students who have either passed the CET-4 with a score of over 80 or passed the CET-6 with a score of over 75.

### ***College English Curriculum Implementation: Fidelity or Not?***

Figure 1 above shows the college English education system to be centralized and hierarchical at the Chinese tertiary level. Within this political context, the Ministry of

Education as the highest government organization exerts enormous influence on what and how English is taught. Silver and Skuja-Steele (2005) pointed out that, in China, time allocation for English study, syllabus guidelines, and standardized assessment are set by policymakers through public policy statements. In the case of college English education, a national syllabus was created by the Syllabus Team under the auspices of the Ministry of Education and was expected to act as a guide for all tertiary EFL teachers. In other words, teachers are expected to implement the curriculum in a consistent (or faithful manner) at the classroom level. Meanwhile, a nation-wide college English test, along with the government-approved-and-recommended textbooks had a direct impact on teachers' classroom pedagogy and students' learning behaviour. In a huge country such as China, one national syllabus, one national test, and four sets of textbooks indicate a strong centralization mechanism for language education administration.

Silver and Skuja-Steele (2005) asserted that in sharp contrast to Asian countries such as China, neither the US nor many European countries, such as Switzerland, for example, have a national syllabus. Teachers in these two countries for the most part were also free to choose their own textbooks. All this seemed to suggest that Chinese EFL teachers had less autonomy and were teaching within certain boundaries. Teachers are expected to adhere to and implement the curriculum policies as they are handed down by the government whenever there are changes made to syllabi, textbooks, or tests. My 14 years of teaching experience in this setting conditioned me to the idea that when the government dictates a policy, we university EFL teachers are required or mandated to follow it, i.e., we must demonstrate a high fidelity to the policies proposed by policymakers at the national level. This fidelity perspective, as discussed by Snyder et al.

(1992), is a long-held notion that centralized systems such as in China at all times assess how faithfully teachers implement the intentions of policymakers (Morris & Scott, 2003).

However, researchers contend that no matter how good the policies seem to be and how faithfully they are supposed to be executed, more often there is a “policy drift” when implementers translate it into practice at the local level (Lewis, Jenson, & Smith, 2003). The belief that policy should be adapted locally challenges the long-held tenet that policy should be carried out exactly as specified within a centralized system, as I had presumed in the current study. Therefore, what I intend to uncover through this study is the degree to which curriculum players (policymakers, administrators, and teachers) in the tertiary context of China are being faithful to the intended curriculum policy. Exploring the intended and the enacted curriculum of college English will enable me to understand how the college English curriculum has actually been implemented.

### *Significance of the Study*

This study is one of the few empirical studies using both quantitative and qualitative methods to explore the implementation of the mandatory national college English curriculum in China. It is important in several aspects. First, it will provide information to Chinese policymakers for future planning and innovation with regard to college English education. These policymakers include the Ministry of Education and several organizations at the national level, such as the National College English Teaching and Advisory Committee, the National College English Testing Committee, and the National College English Teaching and Research Association. In addition, it demonstrates the appropriateness of applying and adapting the curriculum theories of Western educators to the Chinese EFL context through research evidence of the impact of

the curriculum implementation on classroom teaching and learning. It is hoped that the research findings will help Chinese language policymakers, administrators, curriculum specialists, and material developers gain a better understanding of the college English curriculum development and of the challenges that EFL teachers at the tertiary level have been facing. The findings are also intended to help inform policymakers and administrators on how to aid classroom teachers in meeting their mandate for both language education improvement and curricular reforms in China.

Second, from the investigation of how the college English curriculum is executed in the tertiary context of China, this study provides lessons to be learned for any future research conducted within the field of language curriculum implementation in other ESL and EFL contexts. As language curricula share commonalities, the research findings could also contribute to the understanding of language curriculum implementation in general. For curriculum planners as well as specialists in other cross-cultural contexts, it has potential utility in terms of lessons learned and challenges encountered.

Third, this study provides further insight into the complexity of curriculum implementation. Researchers have often conducted implementation studies on how a proposed curriculum has been experienced and adapted by both teachers and students. Focusing on a more comprehensive picture of how policies regarding college English education were formulated, designed, and executed, my study explores the discrepancies at different levels among different groups of stakeholders during the implementation process. In this way, this study highlights the complexity of the implementation of curriculum reforms in the EFL context of China.



### *Overview of the Thesis*

This thesis is comprised of six chapters that collectively describe the research conducted. Each chapter begins with an overview of what is included in that particular chapter. Chapter One describes the context of the study and the organization of the thesis. Chapter Two provides a literature review on curriculum policy and its implementation, a description of the roles of the major stakeholders, an overview of factors that facilitate or inhibit curriculum innovation and a hypothesized model formulated to guide the research. Chapter Three discusses the research methodology employed in this study. A detailed description of sampling techniques, instrument development, data collection procedures, and data analysis for each component of the research is included. Chapter Four presents the research findings and their interpretation in relation to the specific research questions raised in the study. Chapter Five discusses the findings of the study. Chapter Six explores the implications for curriculum implementation in English as a second or foreign language education. Limitations of the study and future directions for research are addressed before conclusions are made.

The next chapter, Chapter Two, will provide a literature review within which my study is grounded and a hypothesized model formulated and proposed accordingly to guide the research, particularly the survey study.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

This literature review explores curriculum policy and its implementation in both general education and language education using the research evidence from conceptual and empirical studies from the past three decades. The review starts by scrutinizing the assertions that have been made about the conceptions of curriculum policymaking and its implementation in terms of curriculum, curriculum policy, curriculum implementation, and stakeholders involved. Then it examines the rationale for conducting implementation studies, the roles of major stakeholders, and curriculum implementation models. Based on the models defined by Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) and Carless (1999a), this review highlights significant external and internal factors (or variables) known to contribute to or impede implementation of curriculum policies in classrooms. Finally, a hypothesized model is proposed to guide this current study.

#### ***Research Concepts***

This section has three foci: the origin and definitions of curriculum, conceptions of curriculum policy and its implementation, and the stakeholders involved in innovation. The purpose is to establish a theoretical basis for further discussion of the factors or variables affecting curriculum implementation in general education, and language education in particular.

#### ***The Origin and Definitions of Curriculum***

Studies on curricula, from conceptual frameworks to actual practice, are not new. For a very long time, researchers and educators have dwelled on many aspects of

curriculum. The most heatedly debated aspect arguably remains that of the definition of a curriculum. Currently, there is still no widely accepted or unanimously agreed-on definition for the term “curriculum,” and its concepts vary depending on the context of the discussion (Connelly & Lantz, 1991).

The origin of the word “curriculum” can be traced to Latin. Its first meaning was “a running,” “a race,” or “a course,” and its secondary meanings were “a race-course” or “a career” (Connelly & Lantz, 1991, p. 15; Egan, 2003, p. 10). Following this, dictionaries define curriculum as “a course; a regular course of study or training, as at a school or university” (Oxford English Dictionary), or as “a course, especially, a specific fixed course of study, as in a school or college, as one leading to a degree. The whole body of courses offered in an educational institution, or by a department thereof” (Webster’s New International Dictionary, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition). Compared with definitions formulated by scholars who study curricula, the dictionary explanations are incomplete, too narrow, and too simple (Pinar et al., 1995).

During the early years of the twentieth century, most educators held onto the traditional concept and referred to curriculum as “the body of subjects or subject matters set out by teachers for students to cover” (Tanner & Tanner, 1995, p. 151). Later, however, the definitions developed and expanded to mean either a “plan” (Good, 1959; Pratt, 1994; Taba, 1962), an “experience” (Bobbit, 1918; Dewey, 1902; Foshay, 1969; Smith et al., 1957; Tanner & Tanner, 1975), or a “methodological inquiry” (Westbury & Steimer, 1971, quoted in Connelly & Lantz, 1991).

In a narrow sense, curriculum is defined as a “plan;” for instance, “a plan for learning” (Taba, 1962), or “a general over-all plan of the content or specific materials of

instruction that the school should offer the student by way of qualifying him for graduation or certification or for entering into a professional or vocational field” (Good, 1959, quoted in Connelly & Lantz, 1991, p. 15). According to Pratt (1994), “curriculum refers to *plans* for instructional acts, not the acts of instruction themselves. Curriculum is analogous to the set of blueprints from which a house is constructed. A curriculum can be viewed as a blueprint for instruction” (p. 5, original italics). For teachers, curriculum is often a statement of what the school authorities, the state government, or some group outside the classroom requires the teacher to teach (Doll, 1996).

In a broad sense, curriculum can be described as an “experience.” Pinar et al. (1995) contended that it was Dewey (1902) who brought the concept of experience to the definition of curriculum, a concept still operative today. Jackson (1992) asserted that Dewey not only accepted the standard definition of curriculum as “a course of study” but also accepted the underlying implication of seeing curriculum as knowledge. This knowledge is organized along subject matter lines and eventually must be mastered by students. Dewey (1902) differentiated between experience and content. He argued, “[the problem is] just to get rid of the prejudicial notion that there is some gap in kind (as distinct from degree) between the child’s experience and the various forms of subject-matter that make up the course of study” (1902, p. 11, quoted in Jackson, 1992, p. 6).

Following Dewey, Franklin Bobbitt’s (1918) assertion of curriculum as being “educative experience” was influential. He defined curriculum in the following two ways: “(1) it is the entire range of experiences, both undirected and directed, concerned in unfolding the abilities of the individual; or (2) it is the series of consciously directed training experiences that the schools use for completing and perfecting the unfoldment”

(p. 43, quoted in Jackson, 1992, p. 7). Pinar et al. (1995) pointed out that Bobbitt's concept expanded the curriculum definition by introducing a distinction between "directed" and "undirected" experience with the former denoting in-school experience and the latter out-of-school experience. After Dewey and Bobbitt, scholars continued to clarify the definition of curriculum but, to a large extent, their expositions reflected the strong influence of both Dewey and Bobbitt. For example, Foshay (1969) and Tanner and Tanner (1975) asserted that curriculum refers to all the experiences that a learner has under the guidance of the school. Moreover, curriculum was further defined as a "methodological inquiry," "exploring the range of ways in which the subject matter elements of teacher, student, subject, and milieu can be seen" (Westbury & Steimer, 1971, quoted in Connelly & Lantz, 1991, p. 15).

The conventional meaning as "subject matter" or "a plan of the content" is too narrow, neglecting other features such as out of school activities that curriculum encompasses. Meanwhile, the expanded meanings such as "educational experience" seem too broad, containing all the entities connected with school life. In addition, these conceptions, employed in general education, are mainly for children or adolescents in primary or secondary schools. Although these definitions offer a starting point for discussing problems in implementing curricula, more specific and relevant definitions from language education are required for further investigation. In fact, language education studies have already started to develop alternate definitions from those of general education studies.

Concepts of curriculum in language education have focused on the distinction between syllabus and curriculum, in addition to defining the term curriculum itself.

Robertson (1971) clarified the terms, saying, “The curriculum includes the goals, objectives, content, processes, resources, and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of the school and community through classroom instruction and related programs” (p. 566). To him, syllabus was “a statement of the plan for any part of the curriculum, excluding the element of curriculum evaluation itself” (p. 566). Yalden (1987) attached considerable significance to this distinction. She emphasized that in the Western ESL context, language courses are often offered for a particular group of learners who may require an alternative syllabus with unique goals, objectives, and resources.

Dubin and Olshtain (1986) pointed out the common belief that curriculum includes a syllabus, but not vice versa (p. 3). Krahnke (1987) maintained that “a syllabus is more specific and more concrete than a curriculum, and a curriculum may contain a number of syllabi” (p. 2). White (1988) discussed the confusion over the distinction between the two terms and especially mentioned their different usage in the USA and Britain. In Britain, a syllabus referred to “the content or subject matter of an individual subject,” whereas curriculum meant “the totality of content to be taught and aims to be realized within one school or educational system” (p. 4). In the USA, curriculum tended to be a synonym of syllabus. Furthermore, Rodgers (1989) contended,

Syllabi, which prescribe the content to be covered by a given course, form only a small part of the total school program. Curriculum is a far broader concept. Curriculum is all those activities in which children engage under the auspices of the school. This includes not only what pupils learn, but how they learn it, how teachers help them learn, using what supporting materials, styles and methods of assessment, and in what kind of facilities. (p. 26)

From the aforementioned discussions regarding the conceptions of curriculum, it can be seen that there are variations in the definitions of curriculum. Based on the

theoretical frameworks discussed in both general education and language education, and to guide my study in exploring the intended and the enacted EFL curriculum at the tertiary level in China, the two terms—syllabus and curriculum—are operationally defined as follows:

- ◆ Syllabus is a statement of the plan for subject matter, which includes the goals, objectives, content, processes, and resources, as in the college English teaching syllabus in China.
- ◆ Curriculum is all those activities in which students engage under the auspices of the university. This includes what students need to learn (syllabus), how teachers help them learn (pedagogy), using what supporting materials (textbooks) and methods of assessment (testing), in what kind of facilities and employing what means of evaluation to improve the program.

The above definitions cover the main elements of language curricula that White (1988), Brown (1995), and Richards (2001) delineated in their work, in which facilitative or hindering factors or variables that may affect curriculum implementation can be identified. Therefore, I feel that they are the most suitable definitions to guide this study.

### ***Conceptions of Curriculum Policy and its Implementation***

Since the current study explores the intended and the enacted curriculum at the Chinese tertiary level, it involves the issue of language policies and their implementation. To better understand how language policies are formulated and executed in the EFL context of China, there is a need to identify what is meant by curriculum policy. As Elmore and Sykes (1992) contended, curriculum policy is “the formal body of law and regulation that pertains to what should be taught in schools” (p. 186). They argued that

research on curriculum policy was intended to explore “how official actions are determined, what these actions require of schools and teachers, and how they affect what is taught to particular students” (p. 186). They pointed out the increasing government presence in curriculum policymaking over the past few decades in all areas, which is also the case in the Chinese higher education system. Educational reforms and innovations have revealed the supreme power of the government in policymaking. Government has been responsible for changes in mandatory course requirements. It has also been responsible for the raised graduation standards, for the development and implementation of new curricula, and for the increased attention to the curricular impact on testing and writing of textbooks. Therefore, the government’s role is becoming more and more prominent.

Furthermore, Elmore and Sykes (1992) recognized and identified the complexities and incongruent relationship between curriculum policy and practice. They postulated that once curriculum policy is formulated, developed, and carried through the school system to the classroom, the execution mechanisms will have certain impacts on teaching practices, which in turn will exert considerable influence on student learning. However, classroom teachers may not implement the curriculum policy as intended, due to constraints such as their entrenched beliefs, negative attitudes, inappropriate or inadequate skills and knowledge, and lack of available resources at local levels. This noted dichotomy between policy and implementation implies that curriculum policy shapes teachers’ classroom practice through its execution, which may require teachers to change their teaching materials, methodological approaches, or pedagogical values (Markee, 1997). Teachers may also change the policy during its implementation. They



redefine, reinterpret, and modify their teaching behaviour based on their classroom realities. They may welcome the policy due to its change and innovation, but still find it extremely difficult to put it into practice, and eventually choose not to implement it.

In fact, Elmore and Sykes (1992) drew our attention to a very important issue of implementation in understanding the confusion and frustration that curriculum policy often brings to its users when put into actual practice. Snyder et al. (1992) argued that research on curriculum implementation is relatively new, and that even the term “implementation” could not be found in curriculum literature before the late sixties. An alternative one, installation, was used instead to refer to the execution of curriculum policy in practice. Snyder et al. claimed that implementation studies only started to become a focus of research after extensive investigations on change and innovation in the late 1960s and the early 1970s. From the 1970s through the 1990s, much more attention was directed to the implementation problems involved in translating proposals into practice by scholars, researchers, and practitioners. At present, research on curriculum implementation is more prevalent.

Berman (1978) defined implementation as “the carrying out of an authoritative decision, i.e., a policy choice” (p. 160). Pal (2006) described it as the execution of the developed policy. Referring to a policy initiative in all fields of education, Pal (1997) explained that policy implementation was “the stage of policymaking between the passage of a legislative act, the issuing of an executive order, the handing down of a judicial decision, or the promulgation of a regulatory rule, and the consequences of the policy for the people whom it affects” (p. 146). To him, implementation was only one of the important phases, from policy formulation, policy analysis and development, to

policy implementation, evaluation and dissemination. Delaney (2002) also argued that among the various phases of policymaking, implementing the policy in question is the most challenging part.

Fullan and Park (1981) asserted that implementation is “changing practice” (p. 6) that “consists of alterations from existing practice to some new or revised practice in order to achieve certain desired student learning outcomes” (p. 10). They alleged that implementation is considered changing practice because the emphasis is on actual use rather than on assumed use (p. 6). Actual use in fact entails whatever change may occur in practice. That is why the terms of change, innovation, reform, revision, and renewal are all frequently used in the context of describing implementation. They elaborated further, stating that change would likely occur in curriculum materials, teaching approaches, and beliefs or understandings about the curriculum and learning practices (p. 6, also in Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991, p. 66), and that all of these changes are aimed at effectively attaining some educational goal.

Based on the conceptual work of Fullan and Park (1981), Elmore and Sykes (1992), Snyder et al. (1992), and Pal (1997) on curriculum policy and its implementation, the operational definition for curriculum/language policy used in the current study is as follows:

- ◆ Curriculum (or language) policies refer to the statements of aims, goals, objectives, and guidelines that pertain to what and how language should be taught and how students should be assessed in the institutions of higher learning.

- ◆ Curriculum implementation is the execution of the developed curriculum policies, which may require a modification in teaching practices in order to achieve desired student learning outcomes.

### ***Stakeholders in Curriculum Policymaking and Implementation***

From curriculum policymaking to its implementation in universities, at each stage there are various stakeholders (i.e., those involved in curricular innovation) at different levels during the process. These stakeholders, identified by Fullan and Park (1981), Fullan (1982), and Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991), consist of government, trustees, principals, parents and community, teachers, and students. Tanner and Tanner (1995) added other individuals or groups to this list. These included public and private interest groups, media, private foundations, external testing agencies, publishers, business and industry, researchers, and authors of curriculum materials. These combined lists reveal that many stakeholders are involved in curriculum policymaking and its subsequent implementation.

Markee (1993) mentioned that the actual participants in the implementation of any given curriculum innovation vary from context to context. Under a specific context, participants “tend to assume certain social roles which define their relationships with other participants” (p. 230). Lambright and Flynn (1980) identified five respective roles for participants in the innovation process: adopters, implementers, clients, suppliers, and entrepreneurs. Kennedy (1988), a researcher in applied linguistics, used these same distinctions to analyze the roles of participants at a Tunisian university in North Africa. He suggested that officials in the ministry of education, deans, and heads of departments are adopters in curriculum implementation of English language teaching. Teachers are

implementers, students are clients, curriculum and materials designers are suppliers, and the expatriate curriculum specialists are entrepreneurs or change agents. Kennedy (1988) also pointed out that the roles that participants play may not be mutually exclusive.

Widdowson (1993) pinpointed the importance of taking into consideration teachers' roles in relation to other participants, such as policymakers, researchers, materials designers, and learners involved in the educational process. He raised the question of what the proper professional role of teachers should be, what provisions should be made to sustain and develop teachers in that role, and whether it is more concerned with the macro-level of curriculum planning or with the micro-level of classroom practices. In fact, the irreplaceable role of teachers in curriculum development, especially at the implementation phase, has been increasingly recognized by policymakers, researchers, and other stakeholders. "Teachers make important decisions with consequences for students. In the classroom, they do so behind closed doors. No one can control all of the specific decisions that teachers make, even during a highly specified instructional episode" (Tanner & Tanner, 1995, p. 619). Failure to involve teachers in the formulation of curriculum policy could result in a situation where teachers change, reject, or ignore curriculum innovation when it is to be implemented in their classrooms.

In the Chinese tertiary context, these stakeholders include the Ministry of Education, the Syllabus Team, the Textbook Team, the Testing Team, the National and Provincial Teaching and Research Associations, publishers, teachers, and students. As in other educational contexts, teachers are definitely the most important stakeholders in carrying out the intended curriculum proposed by the policymakers in China. They

decide if and then how they will implement the required curriculum. Therefore, their roles should not be overlooked.

### ***Curriculum Policy Implementation***

This section discusses the reasons why implementation studies are conducted, and then describes three types of key stakeholders in implementation as well as their roles. Next, it explores curriculum implementation models from both general education and language education to provide a point of entry to further investigate factors which may facilitate or inhibit curriculum implementation in the English as a foreign language tertiary context of China.

#### ***Why Study Curriculum Policy Implementation?***

The previous section discussed the concepts of curriculum, curriculum policy and implementation, and the stakeholders involved. This section focuses on the rationale of undertaking curriculum policy implementation, on the essential roles that the major stakeholders—in this case, policymakers, administrators, and teachers play in policy implementation, and on the various implementation models in the current literature.

Snyder et al. (1992) contended that research on curriculum implementation has been a relatively recent phenomenon. The earlier literature on change and innovation (Fullan, 1982; Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; Kennedy, 1987; Levine, 1980; Markee, 1993) has focused on the diffusion and adoption of innovations. However, few empirical studies have been conducted that deal with curriculum policy implementation. Within these limited number of studies, even fewer have explored problems associated with the implementation process or pinpointed variables responsible for the sustainability or

discontinuation of innovations (Fox, 2005). It was not until the late 1970s that research on curriculum innovation started to focus on the issue of implementation.

A discrepancy often exists between theory and practice. This mismatch emerges when curriculum policy is implemented in practice. However, it is not known to what degree the government's stated curriculum policy is being enacted in EFL teachers' classrooms. Fullan and Pomfret (1977) suggested four reasons why it is vital to study implementation. They were:

- (1) To know what has changed, people must conceptualize and measure it directly;
- (2) To understand why so many educational changes fail to become established, people should study some of the most problematic aspects to bring about change;
- (3) To not do so may result in implementation being ignored, or being confused with other aspects of the change process such as adoption;
- (4) To interpret learning outcomes and to relate them to possible determinants, people should conduct implementation studies. (pp. 336-339)

Moreover, the entire process of implementation is vividly portrayed as a "black box" (O'Sullivan, 2002). Examining what is occurring in this "black box," i.e., the process of implementation, may enable its stakeholders to determine if any change has actually occurred and to discover the reasons why change was either impeded or facilitated.

### ***Major Stakeholders and Their Roles***

Curriculum policy implementation in any educational jurisdiction involves a variety of stakeholders. Their roles in the implementation process contribute to the degree to which new or revised curriculum will be successfully implemented in the local institutions. The following review of literature focuses on the roles of three major players, and relates those studies to the current study. These three major players are: policymakers who formulate curriculum policies, middle-level administrators who interpret the policies

and communicate them to the actual implementers, and the teachers who implement these directives.

Morris and Scott (2003) argued that within centralized organizations (such as the Chinese educational system), challenges often exist when transmitting policy intent from the most senior level through the middle-level managers to the point of delivery. Many people in different positions, committees, and organizations are involved. Morris and Scott (2003) also stated that many policies are impossible to implement because they are too ambiguous. Spillane, Reiser, and Reimer (2002) concurred, saying that one of the reasons for implementation failure might be caused by policymakers formulating unclear and inconsistent directives regarding the behaviours desired from implementers. They concluded that when policy directives pair a clear implementation goal with helpful procedures the policy is more likely to be implemented.

Desimone (2002), in reviewing and analyzing the literature documenting reform implementation, found that four policy attributes in addition to specificity contributed to smooth implementation, which were: consistency, authority, power, and stability. She referred to specificity as being how extensive and detailed a policy is. She contended that the more specific a policy was in terms of materials, information, professional development, guidance, and instructions provided, the more likely teachers were to be able to implement it. However, policies often contain only shadowy guidance for practice (Matland, 1995), tending to make it difficult for local implementers to execute, or allowing the grass-roots groups too much latitude in implementation.

Desimone (2002) elaborated on the other four policy attributes, stating that implementation of a policy is easier if the policy dovetails with other ongoing reform

efforts at the school, district, and state levels. She contended that the authoritative aspects of a policy can be sorted into three categories: (1) normative authority, which includes teacher participation in decision making, teacher buy-in, participation in networks and collaborative activities, and norms related to race, ethnicity and income; (2) individual authority, i.e., principal leadership; and (3) institutional authority, which includes district leadership, resource support, and parent and community support. Desimone further asserted that the power of a policy is multilevel and operates through the force of the different rewards and sanctions associated with the reform effort. Finally, she argued that a policy tends to achieve more success in implementation if it is operated in a stable environment with little turnover—i.e., a low mobility of teachers, students, and administrators. McLaughlin (1987) also purported that street-level bureaucrats (Lipsky, 1980) must be both supported and pressured into carrying out the policies. While administrative pressure alone cannot effect changes in teachers' attitudes, beliefs, and routine practices, support in terms of knowledge, skills, abilities, resources, time, etc. is needed to enable efficient implementation.

In addition to the abovementioned five essential policy attributes, policymakers should also take the contextual or organizational factors into consideration (O'Sullivan, 2002; Wang & Cheng, 2005). Morris (1995) claimed that the Hong Kong curriculum development system was a highly centralized one; similarly language education at the Chinese tertiary level is also characteristic of top-down policies. Darling-Hammond (1990) stated that these top-down policies can constrain practice because of the local conditions. Wang and Cheng (2005) found that local culture of teaching impeded teachers' buy-in of the innovation-from-the-top initiative in one Chinese university. From



a case study of one New Zealand high school, Timperley and Robinson (1997) identified reasons for the slow and sporadic implementation of the national policy initiative in the locality. They found that the local school's professional norms and beliefs about authority and the culture of conflict avoidance precluded effective implementation. Therefore, they called for an ongoing dialogue about the adequacy and congruence of the beliefs and practices that influence both the proposed policy and the local practices during the process of policy formulation.

Performing a bridging role between policymakers and implementers, middle-level managers or administrators have the task of taking a national policy and making it workable in local institutions, i.e., schools. Honig (2004) defined middle management as intermediary individuals or “organizations that operate between policymakers and policy implementers to enable changes in roles and practices for *both* parties” (p. 66, original italics). Spillane et al. (2002) maintained that the position of the administrators in the organizational hierarchy empowered them to focus their work in two directions. One direction is that administrators are themselves the enactors, responsible for implementing both national and institutional policies. The other direction is that administrators depend on other enactors—classroom teachers—for the successful implementation of these policies. Using a qualitative case study design, Honig (2004) explored how four intermediary organizations in the United States worked with policymakers and implementers to leverage changes. One of the most important findings revealed that “intermediary organizations’ functions and their abilities to perform those functions are context specific—contingent on given policy demands and policymakers’ and implementers’ capacity to meet those demands themselves” (p. 83). As well, intermediary

organizations can be independent and augment their own capacity to carry out their core functions when needs change. Just as the people on the receiving end must have the capacity and motivation to be able and willing to carry out the policy, so must the intermediaries.

Operating in complex policy arenas that include the policymakers and implementers between whom they mediate (Honig, 2004), middle managers are supposed to be able to understand and interpret the national policy mandate in the context of the implementers' knowledge, beliefs, and abilities. However, more often than not, what local administrators communicate to their implementers is a simplified, revised, or simply inaccurate version of the policies handed down to them from the policymakers. In other words, as Lefstein (2004) put it, policy messages are distorted as they filter down through the various levels of educational administration. Spillane (1998) discerned policy implementation as an interpretive process, because "implementers must figure out what a policy means and whether and how it applies to their school to decide whether and how to ignore, adapt, or adopt policy locally" (Spillane et al., 2002, p. 733). Hill (2003) confirmed that middle managers are positioned to facilitate policy interpretation for the street-level actors such as classroom teachers. Their assistance increased the implementers' understanding of what policies meant; particularly what they meant in everyday practice. Their distinctive functions also included formulating and recommending the organizational or individual practices needed for implementation and to provide the specific resources and training required by the implementers in order to meet the policy objectives.

In addition to the facilitating roles that middle managers perform in their mediation between policymakers and implementers, Lefstein (2004) confirmed that these administrators are not merely passive conduits of national policy. Instead, their active and critical roles in interpreting and shaping national and state initiatives are critical in the educational contexts (Spillane, 2004). They are responsible for ensuring that the grass-roots implementers have the skills, abilities, and resources to implement the policy. An interesting study by Gross et al. (1971) identified the middle-level educational managers as being primarily responsible for the teachers not having the abilities and resources needed to overcome the challenges of dealing with the imposed change. They found that the managers and their administrative subordinates failed to provide teachers with the retraining and resources necessary to carry out the innovation. These middle-level managers also failed to provide the appropriate supports and rewards to ensure the teachers' willingness to make strong efforts toward effective implementation of the revised curriculum and as a result, teachers were inadequately prepared to face the challenges. Using McLaughlin's (1987) perspective, then, these intermediaries neither pressured nor supported the policy implementers, the teachers.

Although these middle managers' roles are essential and indispensable, Morris and Scott (2003) lamented that middle-level managers are often faced with the task of reconciling the irreconcilable. They feel that they are frequently forced into compromise situations by having to adjust the policy to make it appropriate to their particular institutions as well as acceptable to their teachers. Without modifications, problems may arise from the imposition of a general policy within a unique institutional setting. Berman (1978) mentioned two classes of problem in the implementation of a national policy.

Macro-implementation problems are generally caused by the government, which intends to “execute its policy so as to influence local delivery organizations to behave in desired ways” (p. 164). As a result of the government policy, micro-implementation problems spring up when the local organizations feel that they are forced to “devise and carry out their own internal policies” (p. 164). The clash between these two levels is “sometimes fluid, frequently chaotic, and always conflictual” (p. 165). He maintained that to have the national policy implemented, local delivery organizations must undergo an adaptive process. Such adaptation suggested that internal and local policies be so devised as to match the general guidelines of the national policy in order to minimize conflict of interest.

Summarizing lessons learned from policy implementation, McLaughlin (1987) suggested that it is in fact desirable that policies should be transformed by the managers, and thereby adapted to conditions of the implementing unit. This transformation and adaptation require middle managers to “muddle through” the local implementation process, which McLaughlin considered not only as an adaptive response to demands for change, but also as the more beneficial response in the long term. To help the adaptation process, she recommended integrating the macro world of policymakers with the micro world of individual implementers. From another perspective, Hope and Pigford (2001) pointed to the significance of collaboration and cooperation between policymakers and implementers (i.e., administrators and teachers alike) during both policy development and implementation. They affirmed that those who shoulder responsibility for policy implementation such as middle managers must also be involved in policy development. Without such involvement, administrators charged with transforming policy into practice

are likely to lack the full understanding of the policy itself and thereby the knowledge of the reason for change, which can in turn result in the lack of motivation necessary to effectively implement a new initiative. Also, just as middle managers must be responsible for the street-level enactors being able to acquire both the capacity and will to implement the change, so must the policymakers themselves take on that responsibility of the middle-level managers by interacting with them and obtaining their feedback. To do otherwise is akin to playing the game of “broken telephone,” where the possibility exists of passing on a distorted version of the policy, as well as the further possibility that the delivery agents may lack a clear understanding of the central reasons for the implementation.

In addition to middle managers’ involvement in policy development, researchers have been cognisant that teachers as implementers are the most important players, and that their participation in policy formulation is key to successful curriculum policy implementation. Wang and Cheng (2005), in discussing an English curriculum project in the Chinese tertiary context, found that teachers’ exclusion from full involvement in the decision-making process and consequently their failure to buy into the innovation were part of the reasons accounting for the discontinuation of the project. They said that the significant role that teachers play in curriculum reform must not be overlooked if successful implementation and sustainability are to be achieved. Yet, others said that teachers’ lack of direct involvement at the policy articulation stage did not prevent them from buying into the policy (Gross et al., 1971).

Research has also demonstrated that implementers do not always do as told nor do they always act to maximize policy objectives (Cohen & Ball, 1990; McLaughlin, 1987).

Moreover, teachers have often been diagnosed as “resistant to change” or simply lazy, in ignoring or subverting curricular innovations (McLaughlin, 1987; Smit, 2005). Spillane et al. (2002) looked at their situation in a different light, explaining that this is because implementers often lack the capacity—the knowledge, skills, personnel, and other resources—necessary to work in ways that are consistent with policy. Spillane et al. warned that even if implementers form understandings that reflect policymakers’ intentions, they may not have the necessary skills and the human and material resources to do what they believe the policy to be asking of them. Moreover, they may simply not understand what is expected of them or do not know how to incorporate the changes into their daily practice. Wang and Cheng (2005) concurred, saying that teachers’ failure to implement policy as policymakers had hoped may signal their uncertainty about outcomes and their personal beliefs that the new practices are not as good as the previous ones. Gross et al. (1971) found that the teachers’ will to implement the imposed changes declined over time because the change was not supported by their directors of education in ways that assisted them. Again, one could argue that it is not the teachers who are at fault, but rather their supervisors, the middle managers, who are inadequate in both supporting and motivating their subordinates. In other words, the street-level implementers’ difficulties in enacting policy may be in a large part due to the lack of appropriate support from the middle-level administrators.

Through their study on English language instruction in classrooms in China, Japan, Singapore, Switzerland, and the USA, Silver and Skuja-Steele (2005) examined how policy and classroom practice interact by comparing classroom practices and teachers’ statements of pedagogical rationales with governmental policies. They found

that teachers were aware of the policy initiatives related to language education. However, teachers were focusing on immediate classroom priorities that influenced daily lessons, and therefore placed their emphasis on student learning. Their findings revealed that language policies were reinterpreted into structural priorities, which indirectly influenced classroom priorities and thereby filtered through into classroom practice. Moreover, teachers' willingness to implement language policies was influenced by the social and personal dimensions of classroom teaching and by teachers' goals and beliefs. In other words, changes were mitigated by the local (contextual) factors.

The grass-roots implementers may not be unwilling to implement the policy, but rather, they may not know how to implement the policy as it has been communicated to them by their intermediaries. Moreover, their intermediaries may not know how to help them. Researchers (Gross et al., 1971; Spillane et al., 2002) have discussed impediments to implementation and reasons why implementation fails in actual practice when transmitted through the teachers who are the actual implementers. In summary, these obstacles are: teachers' lack of clear understanding of the innovation; lack of knowledge, skills, and resources needed to conform to the innovative initiative; incompatibility of organizational arrangements with the innovation; lack of staff motivation; teachers' prior knowledge, beliefs, and experiences; different interpretations of the policies; and teachers' social, organizational, and historical contexts. Combined with the middle-level managers' varying levels of understanding regarding the policy and of how it should/could be implemented, these factors can potentially impede teachers in being able to implement the intended curriculum policies.

### *Curriculum Implementation Models*

To find a point of entry wherein curriculum implementation studies can be initiated in the EFL context of China, there is a necessity to look into previous implementation models where a curriculum innovation has occurred. Due to the complexity of implementing a proposed curriculum, researchers in general education and language education explore what is going on in the “black box” where implementation problems reside. Fullan (1982) and Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) stated that research findings have indicated a need to identify factors affecting implementation. The complexity of the educational change process, however, makes it somewhat difficult for researchers to search for different ways to best characterize implementation. This section introduces, and provides a critique of, two curriculum implementation models which explore factors affecting implementation. These two models are from Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) and Carless (1999a).

Curriculum implementation models proposed by these scholars reflect their approaches to understanding the problems and challenges embedded in the implementation process. They designed their models based on their own individual contexts, centring on key factors or themes. From an extensive review of literature, Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) integrated the two categories of theme and factor and developed a theoretical model (see Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991, p. 68) to probe factors that commonly influence changes in practice. They identified three sets of interactive factors affecting implementation. The first factor is change. They argued that the extent of the required change itself, in terms of actual need for change as well as how clear, complex, and practical the change is, plays a role in whether the implementation is



successful or not. The second factor is that of the local characteristics, specifically, which district, community, principal, and teacher are involved in the change process. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) discovered that the supports given by the local district school board, community, and principals were also determinants affecting implementation. Particularly, teachers exerted a strong impact in promoting innovation; their perceptions and roles in implementation were indispensable. The third factor is the extent to which government and educational agencies exert their influence on the other stakeholders.

Fullan and Stiegelbauer's (1991) mode of analysis was comprehensive, thought-provoking, and profound, and provided powerful insights into the complexity and the dynamics of educational reform. More importantly, their model has exerted enormous influence on later researchers and scholars interested in curriculum implementation. However, since their model is based on the North American context and mainly deals with primary and secondary education, some factors, such as district, community, or principal may not be as relevant in the Asian context as the current study. The situation in China has displayed unique differences, in political system, social structure, educational system, ideological beliefs, and value orientation, from those of the West. This means that some factors which seem essential in the Western context may not be applicable to the context of this study, which is situated in China and focuses primarily on language education at the tertiary level.

While studying EFL teaching in Hong Kong, Carless (1999a) developed a conceptual model of factors affecting implementation of curriculum innovation based on the literature reviewed in both general education and language education (see Carless, 1999a, p. 375). His three categorizations of teacher-related, innovation-related, and

change agent-related factors resonated, to a large extent, with Fullan and Stiegelbauer's (1991) model. Each category matched the local characteristics, the characteristics of change, and the external factors. What is distinctive in Carless' model was his further elaboration of subvariables and what was considered as the appropriateness of these subvariables in China. This allowed him to investigate in depth what those factors were in each category.

Carless (1999a) expanded Fullan and Stiegelbauer's (1991) model with regard to local characteristics. He detailed teacher-related factors into subvariables such as teachers' attitudes, teacher education, and teachers' understanding of change or innovation. He also pointed out that communication strategies, change strategies, and availability of sufficient resources in terms of human, material, and financial are important change-related factors.

However, one flaw in Carless' model lies in the category under the confusing label of "change agent-related factors." Carless (1999a) defined change agents as "individuals who prompt or facilitate change" (p. 377), but he failed to specify who these individuals were. In fact, "change agent" is a controversial term in the literature as it can be interpreted from many different perspectives. Rogers (1995) referred to a change agent as "an individual who influences clients' innovation-decisions in a direction deemed desirable by a change agency" (p. 27). Kennedy (1988) also described the entrepreneur who "acts as a link between the different participants and as catalyst for change" (p. 334) as a change agent. However, Scileppi (1988) regarded change agents as individuals who cause or facilitate change. Fullan (1993, 1999) questioned the concepts of change agent, suggesting that both teachers and students act as change agents in educational reform. De

Lano, Riley, and Crookes (1994) made a similar point and envisaged that within an educational culture, change agents can be found among administrators, teachers, and even students. Carless (1999a) in fact recognized that his own divisions or groupings of factors risked “artificiality and oversimplification” (p. 374).

Based on my review of factors affecting implementation in relation to the context of my current study, I have categorized the factors into two groups: external factors and internal factors. External factors are factors that stem from outside the classroom, such as cultural, organizational, or administrative characteristics that teachers and students have little or no control over. By internal, I refer to factors related to teachers and students in the classroom. Because teachers are ultimately held responsible for the implementation, my review of the literature focuses on teachers only, specifically, teacher-related factors such as teachers’ beliefs, attitudes, and their understanding and ownership of curriculum innovation (Carless, 1999a). In addition, I recognize that students are the recipients of curriculum innovation. Student-related factors are thus important in the change and innovation literature; however, they are not touched upon in this review because they are outside the scope of the current study.

These two sets of external and internal factors are not independent, but rather interdependent (Gahin & Myhill, 2001). To present these factors in a meaningful way, I have organized my discussion according to the themes that emerge from the literature, in which various kinds of factors are dealt with. Owing to the scope of the thesis, not all the factors are discussed extensively. Factors identified and discussed may not be the only ones affecting implementation; however, they are considered to be the most relevant to

my current study in the EFL context of China. The next two sections provide a review of the literature on external and internal factors influencing curriculum implementation.

### *External Factors Affecting Curriculum Implementation*

This section focuses on four themes identified in the literature regarding external factors affecting curriculum implementation. They are: testing (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Cheng, 1998; Cheng & Watanabe with Curtis, 2004; Turner, 2000); textbooks (Richards, 1998; Woodward, 1993); teacher training (He, 1998; Li, 1998; Morris, 1988); and resources (Berman & McLaughlin, 1976; Carless, 1999a; Fullan & Miles, 1992; Fullan & Park, 1981; Kritek, 1976; Li, 1998). While acknowledging the essential roles that these factors play in curriculum implementation, I recognize that other factors identified in the literature are also important. For example, the cultural appropriateness of innovation is an undeniable factor (Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Carless, 1999b; Ellis, 1996; Gatbonton & Gu, 1994; Hu, 2002; McKay, 2003; Sampson, 1984; Tomlinson, 1990). Communication among stakeholders during curriculum policymaking and its implementation should also be considered (Berman, 1978; Karavas-Doukas, 1995; O'Sullivan, 2002; White, 1987), as should leadership and administration in terms of support from principals, program managers, and administrators (Berman & McLaughlin, 1980; Fullan, 1982; Kritek, 1976; Mathias & Rutherford, 1983; Williams et al., 1994).

### *Testing*

Examinations or high-stakes tests exert a considerable impact on what, and how, teaching and learning are conducted in the classroom (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Andrews, 2004; Cheng, 1998; Cheng & Watanabe with Curtis, 2004; Prodromou, 1995; Shohamy, 1993; Turner, 2000; Wall, 2000). China is known as a country which places much

emphasis on examination, from primary to tertiary education (Wang & Han, 2002).

Investigating the influence of testing in the Chinese context will clarify what, how, and why tests impact on classroom teaching.

Test impact has been described in language education as “washback” (Alderson & Wall, 1993) or “backwash” (Spolsky, 1994), meaning that tests have an effect on teaching and learning, the educational system, and the various stakeholders in the education process as well (Andrews, 2004). According to Wall and Alderson (1993), “tests can be powerful determiners, both *positively* and *negatively*, of what happens in classrooms” (p. 41, original italics). The powerful impact of testing suggests that “teachers and learners do things *they would not necessarily otherwise do* because of the test” (Alderson & Wall, 1993, p. 117, original italics). Since the 1980s, much research has been undertaken on positive and negative washback phenomena of testing on teaching and learning. Researchers (e.g., Turner, 2000) strongly suggested that it is not only possible but also desirable for testing to help bring about beneficial outcomes in teaching and learning.

Prodromou (1995) contended that testing has a valuable contribution to make in assessing learners’ proficiency, progress, and achievement, and that it is indispensable for diagnosing learners’ errors. He also argued that tests are “the simplest and most effective form of extrinsic motivation, of imposing discipline on the most unruly class, and of ensuring attention as well as regular attendance” (p. 14). Pearson (1988) asserted that “good tests will be more or less directly usable as teaching and learning activities” (p. 107). To prove that positive washback existed in language classrooms, Turner (2000) conducted a study investigating the impact of the provincial ESL speaking exam at the

secondary level in Quebec schools. The positive effect was demonstrated by teachers using more speaking performance tasks in their teaching, and by students expressing satisfaction in having individual practice in speaking.

However, any positive washback is often overshadowed by negative washback. Alderson and Wall (1993) suggested that washback was more complex than had been assumed. Prodrômou (1995) posited that “professional neglect of the backwash effect (what it is, how it operates, and its consequences) is one of the main reasons why new methods often fail to take root in language classes” (p. 14). Looking at the consequences of testing on teaching in a broad educational context, he stated that negative washback makes good language teaching more difficult. Alderson and Wall (1993) elaborated, saying that “for teachers, the fear of poor results, and the associated guilt, shame, or embarrassment, might lead to the desire for their pupil to achieve high scores in whatever way seems possible. This might lead to ‘teaching to the test,’ with an undesirable narrowing of the curriculum” (p. 118). Chapman and Snyder (2000) observed that “teachers’ tendencies to teach to the test are often cited as an impediment to introducing new instructional practices” (p. 460).

No matter what effect tests bring to classroom teaching and learning, it is expected that some form of change will occur in classrooms (Cheng, 1998; Wall, 1996). This expectation of utilizing a public examination as a “lever for change” (Pearson, 1988; Wall, 1996, p. 348), however, may not necessarily be realistic. An example to illustrate this point is Cheng’s (1998) study of the washback impact associated with changes in Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination in English with a view to bringing about a positive effect on classroom teaching. Her research findings indicated that the

Hong Kong educational system responded quickly to the task-based and integrated approach to teaching and learning, during which changes in teaching materials took place. Nevertheless, the washback process occurred slowly with no fundamental changes in teaching methods. Cheng (1998) concluded that “using the examination as a change agent can change classroom teaching at the content level, but not at the methodological level” (p. iii). In order to achieve a genuine rather than superficial change in classroom teaching and learning, joint efforts need to be made in terms of teacher education, materials development, and support from various sources (Cheng, 1998).

### ***Textbooks***

In the EFL context of China, textbooks represent the syllabus and dictate what should be taught in the classrooms. Teachers teach according to textbooks, students acquire language input mainly from textbooks, and achievement tests are designed based on the content of textbooks. Therefore, the indispensable role of textbooks cannot be underestimated. Just as Richards (1998) claimed, “in many schools and language programs the textbooks used in classrooms *are* the curriculum” (p. 125, original italics).

He further elaborated,

If one wants to determine the objectives of a language program, the kind of syllabus being used, the skills being taught, the content the students will study, and the assumptions about teaching and learning that the course embodies, it is often necessary to look no further than the textbooks used in the program itself. (p. 125)

To him, textbooks and commercial materials represent the hidden curriculum of many language courses. Indeed, textbooks occupy a dominant position in the school system, regardless of the courses being taught at various levels.

Textbooks are believed to have a positive impact on teachers and their classroom teaching during curriculum implementation (Harmer, 1991; Hutchinson & Torres, 1994; Richards, 1998). As far as teachers are concerned, the benefits of using textbooks are as follows: time advantage (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994), access to more choices of professionally produced resources (Richards, 1998), relieving them from the pressure of searching for original materials (Harmer, 1991), and providing a guide to teach more effectively (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994). Hutchinson and Torres (1994) reported teachers' views from a survey about the facilitating role of the textbook, stating, "it [textbook] 'saves time, gives direction to lessons, guides discussion, facilitates giving of homework,' making teaching 'easier, better organized, more convenient,' and learning 'easier, faster, better.' Most of all the textbook provides confidence and security" (p. 318). Especially for inexperienced teachers, textbooks and teachers' guides can function as teaching training manuals. In ESL courses, these textbooks provide detailed advice on approaches to grammar teaching in a communicative class, strategies for error correction, the philosophy of process writing and how to implement it—useful information that goes well beyond the context of a particular text (Richards, 1998). With respect to students, textbooks provide an orientation to their learning program, helping them understand what they will be studying, in what sequence, and how much material needs to be covered in the course of their learning (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994).

However, textbooks are also criticized as an impediment to teacher development. Richards (1998) summarized three potential hindrances caused by teachers' use of textbooks. First, it can absolve teachers of responsibility, because, "instead of participating in the day-to-day decisions that have to be made about what to teach and



how to teach it, it is easy to just sit back and operate the system, secure in the belief that the wise and virtuous people who produced the textbook knew what was good” (Swan, 1992, p. 33). Second, textbooks can lead to “the unjustifiable attribution of qualities of excellence, authority, and validity to published textbooks” (Richards, 1998, p. 131). This may result in teachers failing to look at textbooks critically; they may assume that teaching decisions made in the textbook and teaching manual are better, superior, and more valid than those made by themselves. Third, teachers’ use of textbooks may lead to “a reduction of the level of cognitive skills involved in the teaching if teaching decisions are largely based on the textbook and the teacher’s manual” (p. 132).

No matter what positive or negative impact textbooks bring to classroom teaching, Woodward (1993), in his review of research on textbook use, concluded that use of textbooks depends on the teachers’ experience and on the subject matter being taught. For ESL teaching, the use of textbook and its influence on teaching and learning is different from EFL teaching due to the difference of language learning context, materials used, teaching approaches promoted, and teachers’ pedagogical values held. What is unfortunate is the relatively low number of empirical studies conducted on how teachers use textbooks and the extent to which their teaching is influenced by textbooks. Richards (1998) called for a “deconstruction” and “reconstruction” in this regard, proposing that teachers approach textbooks with the expectation of deletion, adaptation, and extension of content to meet both students’ needs and their own teaching style. “In this way, the potential negative impact of using textbooks can be minimized and they can find their rightful place in the educational system—namely, as resources to support and facilitate teaching rather than dominate it” (p. 140). However, in the Chinese tertiary

context, textbooks are compiled by a government-appointed panel of experts according to the prescribed curriculum (Y. Wang, 1999). Approved textbooks are written to align with the mandated syllabus and are also tied to national or university assessment (Silver & Skuja-Steele, 2005). EFL teachers have little autonomy in daily classroom instruction but rely exclusively on textbooks; teaching is text-centred (Wang & Han, 2002).

### ***Teacher Training***

In order that curriculum policy is translated into practice and to ensure that successful implementation and continuity of any curriculum innovation exists in the classroom, it is paramount that teachers receive in-service training and provision of ongoing support and professional development (De Lano et al., 1994; McLaughlin, 1987; White, 1993). As Stenhouse (1975) put it, without teacher professional development there can be no curriculum development. Brindley and Hood (1990) claimed that ongoing in-service training and professional development constitute important components of any projected implementation. In-service training focuses on teachers' responsibilities and is aimed toward short-term and immediate goals, whereas professional development seeks to facilitate growth of teachers' understanding of teaching and of themselves as teachers (Richards & Farrell, 2005).

A considerable number of conceptual and empirical studies have been carried out to illustrate the importance of teachers' in-service training and professional development in assisting teachers with their implementation of curriculum innovation. Analyzing 15 empirical studies conducted in the 1970s, Fullan and Pomfret (1977) concluded that in-service training was a factor in seven studies. These studies indicated that teachers who

received intensive in-service training had a higher degree of implementation than those who did not.

In the EFL context, in-service training is deemed especially critical in successfully carrying out a proposed curriculum (Cheng & Wang, 2004; Li, 1998; Wang & Han, 2002), such as when the innovative communicative approach is introduced into the local institutions. Li (1998) conducted a survey among 18 South Korean secondary school teachers who studied at a Canadian university in the summer of 1995. The exploration of teachers' perceived difficulties in introducing the communicative language teaching (CLT) in South Korea revealed the main barrier to be teachers themselves. These teachers identified six major constraints preventing them from using CLT: deficiency in spoken English, deficiency in strategic and sociolinguistic competence, lack of training in CLT, few opportunities for retraining in CLT, misconceptions about CLT, and little time and expertise for developing communicative materials. The majority of the reasons are connected with teachers' lack of in-service training to "retrain and refresh themselves in CLT" (p. 697). Without such professional upgrading, it was found to be almost impossible for these Korean EFL teachers to implement communicative activities in their classroom. Li's study was thorough and extensive, but seems too close-ended in its questionnaire design to obtain in-depth information. The majority of the questionnaire items required yes/no answers, leaving teachers little chance to elaborate. Though interviews were also conducted, the responses from participants fell into the preset perceived-difficulties categories the researcher devised. In so doing, the researcher failed to explore in depth the challenges the participants faced in putting CLT into classroom practice.

He's (1998) study involving 35 Chinese EFL teachers from 11 tertiary institutions demonstrated the same concern. Her investigation into the Chinese experience with implementing the College English Teaching Syllabus indicated that "the current apprenticeship-like teacher training system has done little in changing teachers' perceptions and their instructional behaviours" (p. 326) when translating the innovative syllabus into classroom practice. Pennington and Cheung's (1995) case study about the adoption of process writing was carried out with eight secondary EFL teachers in Hong Kong and resulted, however, in the finding that the implementation of the process writing approach could be assisted by teacher training. Utilizing a survey on a small sample, they analyzed factors shaping the implementation with elicitation and categorization of compatible and incompatible teacher factors and contextual factors. They found that teachers varied in their attitudes toward the introduction of process writing in initial training sessions.

However, Thompson and Bates (1995) cast doubt upon the usefulness of in-service training. They pointed out that one of the beliefs extant in general in-service training is a misconception, in that attending a training course does not necessarily improve teachers' practice. This unrealistic expectation of what training courses can offer fails to take into consideration teachers' beliefs, attitudes, and other factors. They asserted that "attending a course is only one part of a complex process in which theory becomes translated into practice" (p. 53). This in-service training, albeit an important one, must also be connected with other teacher professional development activities.

Morris' (1988) study also revealed teachers' difficulty in using a new teaching approach after in-service training. During the training session which intended to wean

economics teachers from a product-based transmission approach to a more process-oriented interpretation one, teachers, when surveyed, expressed favourable attitudes toward the new curriculum. However, when observed in their classrooms, teachers in general reverted to their former transmission type of teaching and did not implement the innovative approach. The in-service training teachers attended was not apparently seen by the teachers as useful, and therefore did not facilitate the enactment of the new approach.

### ***Resource Support***

Resource support in terms of human, material, and financial has been considered indispensable in determining the successful implementation of an innovation (Carless, 1999a; Li, 1998). Fullan and Miles (1992) asserted,

Change demands additional resources for training, for substitutes, for new materials, for new space, and, above all, for time. Change is “resource-hungry” because of what it represents—developing solutions to complex problems, learning new skills, arriving at new insights, all carried out in a social setting already overloaded with demands. Such serious personal and collective development necessarily demands resources. (p. 750)

Carless (1999a) considered teaching materials a crucial resource in the promotion of innovation. He claimed that material support can help minimize the extra workload associated with innovation, and in particular can provide vital support for untrained and inexperienced teachers who have weak subject knowledge.

Berman and McLaughlin (1976) found that a significant level of human resource support was important, and that innovations attempted would not have been possible without proper financial support. Kritek (1976) contended that the problems of resource insufficiency are not likely to be solved by providing only more money. More importantly, human support in terms of personnel training and administrator and peer support are believed to maximally increase the smooth implementation of innovations. Li

(1998) found that Korean EFL teachers perceived insufficient funding and lack of in-service training support as roadblocks to implementing communicative approach in their classrooms. Furthermore, Berman and McLaughlin (1976) found that human support from principals and other teachers increased the chances of successful implementation.

### ***Internal Factors Affecting Curriculum Implementation***

This section focuses on three themes from the literature review. They are: teachers' beliefs and decision-making in innovation (Farrell, 1999; Kagan, 1992; Peacock, 2001; Woods, 1996); teachers' attitudes towards innovation (Bailey, 1992; Gahin & Myhill, 2001; Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Morris, 1984; Punch & McAtee, 1979; Young & Lee, 1987); teachers' knowledge, understanding, and ownership of innovation (Beretta, 1990; Brown & McIntyre, 1978; Carless, 1998; Palmer, 1993; Punch & McAtee, 1979) as well as teachers' involvement and participation in innovation (Punch & McAtee, 1979; Stern & Keilslar, 1977). Other internal factors also emerged in researchers' discussion. They are teachers' learning background (Carless, 1999a), teachers' age and teaching experience (Carless, 1999a; Gahin & Myhill, 2001), teachers' personal concerns, teachers' perceived support for the change, alleviation of fears and uncertainties associated with the change (Waugh & Punch, 1987), and teachers' preparatory time in getting ready for the change (Beretta, 1990), which are recognized but not further discussed.

### ***Teachers' Beliefs and Decision-Making in Innovation***

Teachers' beliefs have been described by Kagan (1992) as "tacit, often unconsciously held assumptions about students, classrooms, and the academic material to be taught" (p. 65). Teachers' beliefs are related to their classroom practice (Burns, 1992;

Fang, 1996; Kagan, 1992). Pajares (1992) emphasized that there is a “strong relationship between teachers’ educational beliefs and their planning, instructional decisions, and classroom practices” (p. 326) and that “educational beliefs of pre-service teachers play a pivotal role in their acquisition and interpretation of knowledge and subsequent teaching behaviour” (p. 328). Nespor (1987) argued that teachers’ beliefs are likely to influence their future behaviour. Nevertheless, Fang (1996) pointed out inconsistencies between teachers’ beliefs and their practices. These inconsistencies reflected the complexities of the classroom reality and implied that “contextual factors can have powerful influences on teachers’ beliefs and, in effect, affect their classroom practice” (p. 53).

Discussing the logic of implementation, Fullan and Park (1981) claimed that implementation actually necessitates changes and adjustments in the belief systems of teachers in three aspects, and in succession; first materials, then teaching approach, and finally beliefs. They firmly contended that change in beliefs is much more difficult and time consuming to bring about than changes in materials and teaching methods. Kagan (1992) echoed this, saying that since teachers’ beliefs are deeply entrenched, they are generally stable and resistant to change, and that they reflect the nature of the instruction the teacher provides to students. Even teacher education programs may not exert much influence toward their change of beliefs. Richardson (1996) asserted that “students [student teachers] bring beliefs to teacher education programs that strongly influence what and how they learn, ... central beliefs are more difficult to change” (p. 103). In a similar vein, Tatto (1998) added, “teacher education has little effect on altering teachers’ beliefs, and changes in practices do not necessarily accompany changes in beliefs” (p. 66).

As well, Shavelson and Stern (1981) argued that what teachers do in their classroom practices is shaped by what they think, and that teachers' theories and beliefs serve as filters through which instructional judgments and decisions are made and which others' teaching performances are interpreted (Kagan, 1992). Woods (1996) stated the importance of the teachers' beliefs on their practice of language teaching, saying, "the teacher's beliefs, assumptions and knowledge play an important role in how the teacher interprets events related to teaching (both in preparation for the teaching and in the classroom), and thus affect the teaching decisions that are ultimately made" (p. 184).

Within the teaching English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) context, both pre-service and in-service teachers are not "empty vessels waiting to be filled with theoretical and pedagogical skills; they are individuals who enter teacher education programs with prior experiences, personal values, and beliefs that inform their knowledge about teaching and shape what they do in their classrooms" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 401). Teachers' classroom practice is especially influenced by their beliefs and other factors. Woods (1991) illustrated this by his longitudinal study of two in-service ESL teachers in a Canadian university who taught the same ESL course but held different theoretical orientations. One teacher had a "curriculum-based" view of teaching, whose decisions related to the implementation of classroom activities were based on what curriculum set out. The other teacher had a "student-based" view, whose decisions were based on the particular group of students in the classroom. This author found that the decisions made in planning and carrying out the course were consistent with deeper underlying assumptions and beliefs about language, learning, and teaching; yet each



teacher's decisions and beliefs differed dramatically from the other along a number of specifiable dimensions (p. 4).

To see how pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching grammar were unlocked through the use of a reflective assignment, Farrell (1999) conducted a case study in 1997 among 34 Bachelor of Arts year-4 students taking a grammar methods course at the National Institute of Education in Singapore. Student teachers were given three assignments: past experience reflection on learning and teaching English grammar in schools, a detailed lesson plan on grammar structure teaching, and a final reflection paper on conceptual change process of grammar teaching. Farrell (1999) intended to make these pre-service teachers "consciously articulate and examine their beliefs about the role of grammar in English lesson" (p. 5). Also, the author made the students more aware of their own approaches towards teaching English grammar. This consciousness-raising is the first important step to conceptual change.

In a longitudinal study exploring changes in teachers' beliefs about second language learning, Peacock (2001) surveyed 146 trainee ESL teachers over their three-year program at the City University of Hong Kong. The author assumed that some mistaken ideas held at the beginning of their B.A. TESL program would be changed after they studied TESL methodology. Disappointingly, compared with experienced ESL teachers, some negative beliefs of these pre-service ESL teachers changed very little over their three years of study. In other words, no significant changes were found. Many of the third-year trainees still held that learning a second language means learning a lot of vocabulary and grammar rules, which is in apparent conflict with the communicative approach advocated in Hong Kong schools. Peacock's survey results reinforced his

assumption that ESL teachers' beliefs are slow or very slow to change, and that teachers' beliefs are very difficult to change. However, in analyzing the causes of the beliefs and looking for remedies, the author failed to pinpoint the importance of context which plays a crucial role in helping shape teachers' beliefs.

### ***Teachers' Attitudes towards Innovation***

Teacher change, particularly changes in their attitudes towards innovation, has been considered crucial in promoting successful curriculum implementation in the classroom. Hargreaves (1989) claimed that "change in the curriculum is not effected without some concomitant change in the teacher." In their critique of literature on teacher change, Richardson and Placier (2001) maintained that "teacher change is not entirely an individually determined, psychological phenomenon" (p. 922). Rather, it is shaped by the social contexts where they work. Carless (1999a) also mentioned that teachers' attitudes are derived primarily from their own experiences as learners, their professional training, their teaching experiences, their interaction with colleagues, and the cultural values and norms of the society in which they live. Therefore, whether teachers change their attitudes or not is decided by many intertwining forces characteristic of these teachers and their social context.

Although teachers' attitudes are essential in ensuring successful innovation, they are very often resistant to change. Waugh and Punch (1987) argued that barriers or resistance to change are likely to take place if the innovation is incompatible with teachers' existing attitudes. In a comprehensive model of how to implement change, they identified the following variables—teachers' personal cost appraisals of the change, practicality of the new educational system in the classroom, perceived support for teacher

roles at school, alleviation of fears and uncertainties associated with the change, and perceived expectations and beliefs concerning the important aspects of the change—as substantial elements. The authors said that basic attitudes to education in particular have a strong effect on teacher receptivity to the change in the implementation stage. Nisbet and Collins (1978) supported this argument by claiming that “at the point of implementation, it is not easy to change educational principles and methods which are well entrenched and sanctified by tradition” (p. 3).

In general education, a number of empirical studies have been conducted to demonstrate teachers’ attitudes. In Western Australia among 841 secondary school teachers, Punch and McAtee (1979) explored teachers’ attitudes toward the new Achievement Certificate System. Teachers’ knowledge about and participation in the change, and their general attitudes to education served as independent variables. These authors found that teachers varied in their level of support for change. This variability was strongly related to teachers’ participation in and knowledge about the change. There was a strong positive relationship between teachers’ participation and their attitudes, as there was between those attitudes and their knowledge of the system. Among the three independent variables, the most important predictor was participation, followed by attitudes and knowledge.

What is unique in Punch and McAtee’s research design is their identification of school, subject, and teacher as three situation variables for further investigation, in which the main predictors of attitude are position in school, number of regional meetings attended, the size of the school, teaching subject area, and gender. Their study revealed that during the implementation of educational change, the independent variables are most

influential in revealing teachers' attitudes. Participation in the innovation turned out to be a powerful factor in teachers' support for the change. Nevertheless, the situation variables should not be overlooked, because "they constitute a network of influences which play a role in facilitating or hindering change implementation, and in teachers' reception of change" (p. 182).

Looking into the characteristics of teachers' attitudes towards teaching approaches in Hong Kong secondary schools, Morris (1984, 1985, 1988) reported the results of a research project on curriculum innovation in an economics program. In contrast to the old and traditional teaching approach which centres on the transmission of information and rote learning, the new approach is student-centred, with the intention of transforming the educational ideology and bringing about a radical change in teacher behaviour. However, the research findings revealed that "imported innovations produce a façade of change but have little effect on classroom process" (1984, p. 43). In fact, teachers in general did not employ the new approach in classroom practice despite the fact that they expressed attitudes favourable to the approach.

In language education, Karavas-Doukas (1996) took a similar perspective to examine the gap between teachers' expressed attitudes towards the communicative approach and their classroom practices. She investigated 14 EFL teachers in Greek public secondary schools using a Likert-type attitude scale. Her attitude scale consisted of statements covering the main aspects of the communicative learner-centred approach: group work, error correction, the place and importance of grammar, the needs of students, the role of the teacher and the learner. The scores revealed that teachers on the whole held favourable attitudes towards the communicative approach. However, classroom

observations and interviews told a different story, indicating that teachers deviated “considerably from the principles of the communicative approach” (1996, p. 193). In the actual classroom, most lessons conducted were teacher-fronted and grammar-oriented; pair work or group work activities were rarely implemented; teachers followed an eclectic approach, using both traditional and communicative approaches in their classrooms. Karavas-Doukas (1996) finally concluded,

Teachers’ inability to cope with the demands of the innovation as a result of their inadequate training, the incompatibility of the innovation with teachers’ teaching/learning theories, and the failure of the innovation to cater for or mesh with the realities of the classroom and wider educational context were found to be important causes of teachers’ resistance or rejection of the innovation. (pp. 65-66)

Since teachers’ attitudes have been used by curriculum developers as the primary indicators of whether reforms are successfully implemented or not (Morris, 1988), exploring whether teachers change their attitudes and what, how, and why they do so seems not only necessary but also vital in bridging the gap between curriculum policy and its implementation. At present, two conflicting views exist with regard to the first concern. While some studies have indicated that teachers’ attitudes can sometimes be changed, other studies have demonstrated contrary findings.

In a major review of teachers’ attitudes towards innovation, Stern and Keilslar (1977) stated that “teachers involved in the curriculum planning process have more favourable attitudes towards the implementation of the subject courses than those who were required to represent programs over which they have no control” (p. 64). They contemplated that teachers’ attitudes can be changed through training programs, although certain attitudes are more resistant to modification than others. The two authors also put forward some guidelines to facilitate teachers’ attitude change. They were: creating an

accepting environment, encouraging teachers' involvement in innovation, giving teachers responsibility and commensurate authority, setting role models, offering incentives, and providing teachers with adequate preparation time.

Similarly, Bailey (1992) refuted the claim that "teachers, even with training, do not change the way they teach, but continue to follow the same pattern of teaching" (Gebhard, Gaitan, & Oprandy, 1990, p. 14). From surveys and interviews, she found that teachers do change, but this change process seemed "slow, gradual, incomplete, partial, ongoing, evolutionary" (p. 276). To her, teachers do not always implement the desired changes within a short period of time. Therefore, "anyone who wishes to collaborate in the process of teacher innovation must be patient, receptive, supportive, and accepting of *partial change*" (p. 277, original italics).

Gahin and Myhill (2001) conducted their empirical study using a sample of 120 EFL teachers in Egypt to explore their attitudes towards the communicative approach (CA) versus the traditional grammatical approach in teaching. The quantitative data revealed no statistically significant differences between participants according to age and gender, but there were some clear differences according to teachers' teaching experiences and in-service training attendance. The experienced EFL teachers and their less experienced counterparts were found to be different in their attitudes towards communicative language teaching. Less experienced teachers favoured instructional strategies consonant with communicative approaches. These would include focusing on fluency rather than accuracy; use of collaborative activities and audio-visual materials; and avoidance of the mother tongue in class. With respect to the importance of in-service training, results indicated that teachers who had attended training courses were

significantly more likely to make use of audio-visual materials as an authentic source of language input. This suggests that training seems to have a positive effect on teachers' attitudes consonant with the CA. The research findings also highlight that experienced teachers tend to hold the least favourable attitudes toward the newer, more communicative approach. Therefore, the authors called for a shift in in-service training to be targeted toward experienced teachers, rather than the newly-qualified teachers.

Through a study of an in-service teaching training program, Young and Lee (1987) examined whether teachers' attitudes toward EFL curriculum innovation, specifically their attitudes towards knowledge, evaluating learners' performance, and the role of the teacher and that of the learner could in fact be changed. They administered their survey in Hong Kong to 136 primary and secondary EFL teachers before the 90-hour training program, and again to 94 members of the same group upon completion of the program. The results indicated that teachers who attended the in-service training course showed a slight change in attitude by the end of the course, but that the change was too small to be statistically significant. "This disappointing result" (p. 93) reinforced their belief that attitudes are resistant to change. The two authors concluded that "teachers' attitudes are a product of values and attitudes within a particular culture, and thus, of all the factors in curriculum innovation, they are the least susceptible to change" (p. 84). They recommended two possible remedies: (1) teacher training programs should make a radical attempt towards changing teachers' attitudes; and (2) curriculum innovators should be aware of the stability of teachers' attitudinal norms within a given society, and devise an efficient curriculum around those norms instead of attempting to change them.

More examples of teachers' attitudes towards curriculum innovation can be seen in the English language teaching field in the EFL context, where language teachers extol the virtues of the Western innovative communicative teaching approach but feel either reluctant, or incapable of implementing it in their own classrooms. Their seemingly contradictory attitudes toward learner-centred communicative curricula have been discussed in a number of studies in China (Anderson, 1993; Burnaby & Sun, 1989; He, 1998; Penner, 1995; Sun & Cheng, 2002), Korea (Li, 1998), Singapore (Cheah, 1998), Hong Kong (Miller & Aldred, 2000), and Japan (Gorsuch, 2000; LoCastro, 1996).

### ***Teachers' Understanding and Ownership of Innovation***

Gross et al. (1971) claimed that the first major barrier to the implementation was that "teachers never obtained a clear understanding of the innovation" (p. 123). Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) called attention to the fact that people always misunderstand and misinterpret some aspects of educational change. Carless (1998) pointed out that teachers should have a thorough understanding of the principles and practices of the proposed change if a curriculum innovation is to be implemented successfully. He emphasized that teachers not only need to understand the theoretical underpinnings of the innovation, but more importantly, how the innovation is best applied in the classroom. Also, in an exploration of how a communicative teaching syllabus was adopted in Greek public secondary schools, Karavas-Doukas (1995) discovered that teachers failed to gain a complete understanding of the EFL innovation there and that their misconceptions resulted in their negative perceptions of the curriculum innovation.

Looking into factors that influence teachers' response to curricular innovations, Brown and McIntyre (1978) attempted to learn whether teachers ascribe the same



meanings as curriculum planners did. These two authors interviewed science staff from 50 comprehensive schools and asked what they meant by “guided-discovery” and “integration,” two examples of labels given to curricular innovation. The results indicated a mismatch between teachers’ interpretations and those of the planners. Teachers’ interpretations did not correspond to the planners’ interpretations as manifested in the curriculum documents. The consequences were: (1) teachers had no clear idea what was intended by curriculum planners and ignored some aspects of the innovation, and (2) teachers misunderstood the planners’ intentions and reacted with disfavour. These authors suggested that “the curriculum planner must further negotiate the meanings ensuring that the teachers both attend to and understand them” (p. 19).

Not only is teachers’ understanding of an innovation essential in curriculum policy and its implementation, teachers’ ownership of the innovation is also indispensable. Ownership, the extent to which an innovation belongs to the implementers, exerts a considerable impact on whether an innovation is actually implemented, rather than simply staying at the surface level (Kennedy, 1987, 1988; Palmer, 1993; White, 1987, 1988). Kennedy (1987) asserted that “it is necessary to establish a sense of ownership for change to take effect” (p. 168). Referring to teachers as implementers in innovation, he reinforced the notion that the greater the responsibility for decision-making passed on to the implementers, the better, as this encourages ownership (Kennedy, 1988). White (1987) concurred, saying, “it is also important that all participants feel that they have contributed towards the formulation of the innovation, that they are part of it and that it is part of them. People who are not informed of new developments will tend to lack responsibility toward the innovation” (p. 213).

Especially, “grass-roots” innovations, which are identified by members of an institution or by the users themselves, are said to stand greater chances of success and be more effectively implemented than those which are imposed or imported from outside (White, 1987, 1988). This bottom-up strategy is likely to increase teachers’ sense of ownership, because within isolated and insulated classrooms called “egg crate-like compartments” (Lortie, 1975), teachers are likely to resist imposed changes (Hargreaves, 1980). For teachers, these imposed changes can easily lead to teachers’ “low morale, dissatisfaction, and reduced commitment” (Sikes, 1992, p. 49).

Teachers’ ownership is also discussed in a number of empirical studies in the ESL/EFL innovation literature. From Palmer’s (1993) involvement in an in-service EFL teacher training program in a Norwegian university, it was found that the more experienced teachers are “more willing to experiment with an innovation when they were given the opportunity to make the idea ‘theirs’.” He also found that innovations are more easily “adapted by teachers in the way they think is appropriate for their circumstance” (p. 170). He further put forward four steps towards ownership: (a) *experiencing* the innovation; (b) *reflecting* upon the possible impact of the innovation on one’s own teaching; (c) *adapting* the innovation to one’s own particular circumstances and teaching style; and (d) *evaluating* the innovation in the light of actual experience (p. 170, original italics). These four steps are said to be likely to enable teachers to have a sense of ownership in the implementation of a curriculum innovation.

Beretta (1990) also touched upon ownership while discussing the Bangalore Communicational Teaching Project (CTP) in South India. Based on what Krashen and Terrell (1983) advocated as the Natural Approach in language acquisition, the project

was intended to prove that language form can be acquired in the classroom entirely through a focus on meaning, and that grammar can be learned by the learner in an unconscious manner. In a sharp contrast with the more favourable account given by Brumfit (1984), Beretta (1990) provided a much more critical assessment of the level of ownership achieved by teachers. From the accounts of 16 Bangalore teachers' experiences, regular teachers were found to fail to come to terms with the demands of the project as well as fail to express high levels of ownership. It also revealed that typical teachers' difficulties with the CTP lay in the excessive demands made on time, discipline, insufficient command of English, and a tendency to revert to structure-based teaching.

### *Summary and My Hypothesized Model*

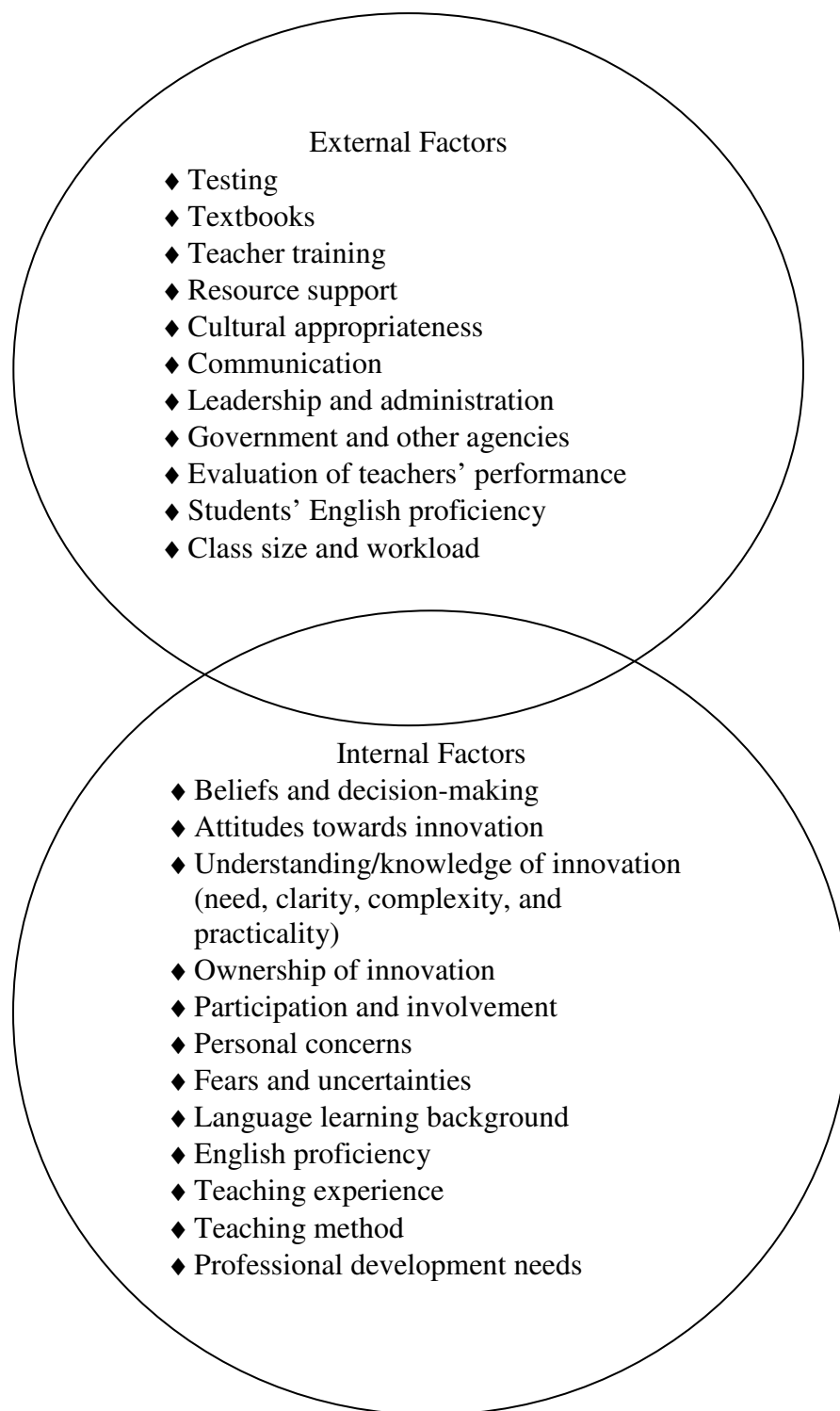
The literature review in this chapter on curriculum policy and its implementation has focused on three aspects: research concepts, the roles of major players in policy implementation, and factors affecting implementation. The research concepts explored the conceptions of curriculum, curriculum policy and its implementation, and the stakeholders engaging in the implementation process. Curriculum policy implementation discussed the roles of three major players, that is, policymakers, administrators, and teachers. Implementation models provided a point of entry to my research. Factors affecting implementation were found both to be external and internal.

To guide my exploration of factors that teachers would identify as influencing implementation in the EFL context of China, I summarized what has been discussed in the existing literature and created a hypothesized model to guide my survey study, especially with regard to the design of my questionnaire. For this model, I changed Fullan and Stiegelbauer's (1991) delineation of characteristics to factors, particularly,

incorporating the characteristics of change into internal factors in order to examine how teachers perceive the need for, as well as the clarity, complexity, and practicality of innovation, since teachers' understanding of innovation falls into this category. In addition, I used teacher-related, innovation-related, and change agent-related factors from Carless (1999a) and incorporated each subvariable from those factors into my model. For instance, based on my definitions of external and internal factors, I designated Carless' in-service training, resources, communication, and cultural appropriateness as external factors, and put teacher attitudes, understanding of the innovation, and ownership into internal factors. The overlap between external and internal factors indicates the interdependent relationship between these two sets of factors.

Figure 2 presents the hypothesized model that I needed to address the third research question (see Table 4 in Chapter Three) via the survey. Since one of the research aims was to uncover the factors that may have either aided or inhibited teachers in their implementation of the college English curriculum, I developed this model based on the literature which has discussed factors of various kinds. The model, therefore, serves as a point of entry where external and internal factors affecting teachers' implementation effort can be identified and confirmed. This model also provides the constructs upon which the questionnaire items in the initial instrument design are based. The model was tested in the focus group discussion and further used for the pilot and main study of teacher surveys.

The next chapter, Chapter Three, will discuss the research methodology used in this research.



*Figure 2.* Hypothesized model of factors affecting teachers' implementation.

## CHAPTER 3

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter delineates the research methodology employed in this study. I first describe the mixed methods approach, in which research questions, rationale for the choice of the approach, and an overview of the research design are presented. Then I discuss the strategies used in the selection of participants and describe the profiles of the participants. I continue on to explain the interview protocols and the instruments used in the questionnaire surveys and observations. To conclude this chapter, I will provide a detailed explanation of data collection procedures and offer a discussion of data analysis methods.

#### *The Mixed Methods Approach*

This section first describes the research questions addressed in the study. It then provides the rationale for the mixed methods approach used. An overview of the research design follows.

#### *Research Questions Addressed*

This study explores the implementation of the mandatory national college English curriculum in China by looking into both the intended and the actually enacted curriculum since the nationwide adoption of the functional-notional syllabus in 1986. A further objective of the study is to seek a better understanding of this curriculum development and uncover factors contributing to or impeding teachers' fidelity in implementing the proposed curriculum in the classroom. Specifically, the following four research questions are addressed.

***1. What has been proposed in terms of the intended curriculum to achieve the stated objectives in the official syllabus?***

The intended curriculum here refers to that proposed by the national language policymakers. To address this research question, I conducted interviews with policymakers in different administrative sectors at the national level (see Figure 1 in Chapter One). These individuals were from the five decision-making organizations: the Ministry of Education, the College English Syllabus Revision Team, the Material Development Team, the National College English Testing Committee, and the National and Provincial College English Teaching and Research Associations. From these individuals, I learned the rationale behind the language policies regarding college English education at the Chinese tertiary level. I also explored the following: why were these policies designed in the way that they were? How appropriate, clear, and practical were the policies for implementers? How were they communicated to the local universities? To what extent did the decision-makers expect local universities and EFL teachers to follow the policies?

***2. What perceptions do administrators have about the college English curriculum and its implementation?***

With reference to Figure 1 in Chapter One, “administrator” refers to university department heads in charge of college English teaching and learning in universities. Administrators play a dual role in the implementation of the national language policies. On the one hand, they are the implementers who execute national policies. On the other hand, they translate policy into departmental rules and regulations in their own universities. The expectation from the administrators is that teachers will implement these

rules. To address this research question, I conducted interviews with six administrators. I focused on the following: the specific regulations pertaining to the national language policies in each participating university; the rationale behind the regulations; the administrators' perceptions of the syllabi, textbooks, and tests; and the support that administrators provided to their teachers toward facilitating their implementation efforts in the classroom.

### ***3. What perceptions do teachers have about the college English curriculum and its implementation?***

As indicated in Figure 1 of Chapter One, teachers in the curriculum implementation process have the responsibility of carrying out the policies proposed by policymakers. Therefore, their roles are indispensable. Here, "teachers' perceptions" refers to teachers' understanding of and attitudes toward the various aspects of the college English curriculum, such as syllabi, textbooks, and tests. To address this research question, I conducted a survey using a questionnaire with EFL teachers who were teaching college English to non-English major students in Chinese universities (see Chapter One, College English Education). Specifically, I investigated their perceptions of external and internal factors as well as the extent to which these factors affected their curriculum implementation activities. External factors focused on testing, textbooks, evaluation of teachers' performance, resource support, class size, and workloads. Internal factors included knowledge and understanding of the syllabus, professional development needs, communicative language teaching, language learning background, teaching experience, and English proficiency. I wanted to find out the extent of teachers' fidelity



to the intended curriculum and those factors that had the most influence on their implementation activities in the classroom.

#### ***4. How is the intended curriculum interpreted by classroom teachers?***

To address this research question, I calculated teachers' implementation activity scores from the results of Section C of the questionnaire survey. Each score was a measurement of teachers' fidelity to curriculum implementation activities in the classroom, with a high score suggesting high fidelity and a low score low fidelity. I also conducted classroom observations of and follow-up interviews with two EFL teachers. From the classroom observations, I was able to examine how closely teachers might be adhering to the objectives of the 1999 College English Teaching Syllabus, to what degree their classroom teaching was in accordance with the textbook guidelines of the learner-centred approach, how much the target language, English, was used in their classroom teaching, and whether or not the nationwide College English Test exerted any impact on their classroom instruction. From the results of the interviews, I explored why teachers conducted their teaching in the ways that they did. In this way, I examined how the intended curriculum was interpreted by these two teachers in their classroom teaching.

To provide a clear picture of my overall research activities, I present a summary in Table 4, in which I display the four research questions to be answered. I also include relevant information such as who participated in the study, what instruments were used, when data were collected, and what the focus of the data collection was.

Table 4

*Summary of Research Questions, Participants, Instruments, Data Collection Schedule, and Research Focus*

Research Questions	Participants	Instruments	Data Collection Timeline	Research Focus
1. What has been proposed in terms of the intended curriculum to achieve the stated objectives in the official syllabus?	1 policymaker from the Syllabus Team	Interview	July 15, 2004	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Rationale of language policies;</li> <li>◆ Appropriateness, clarity, and practicality of the policies;</li> <li>◆ Policy communication;</li> <li>◆ Policymakers' expectation of curriculum implementation in local universities.</li> </ul>
	1 policymaker from the Textbook Team	Interview	July 15, 2004	
	1 policymaker from the Testing Team	Interview	July 30, 2004	
	1 policymaker from the NCETRA*	Interview	July 10, 2004	
2. What perceptions do administrators have about the college English curriculum and its implementation?	6 administrators (university department heads)	Interview	June 21, 2004	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Specific regulations of college English education in university;</li> <li>◆ Rationale of the regulations;</li> <li>◆ Administrators' perceptions of national language policies;</li> <li>◆ Support provided to teachers.</li> </ul>
		Interview	July 8, 2004	
		Interview	July 22, 2004	
		Interview	July 24, 2004	
		Interview	August 6, 2004	
Interview	August 10, 2004			
3. What perceptions do teachers have about the college English curriculum and its implementation?	248 EFL teachers	Survey	May, June, July, August, 2004	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ The extent of teachers' fidelity to the intended curriculum;</li> <li>◆ Teachers' perceptions of factors affecting their implementation activities in the classroom.</li> </ul>
4. How is the intended curriculum interpreted by classroom teachers?	248 EFL teachers 2 EFL teachers	Survey (Section C) Classroom observations & interviews	May, June, July, August, 2004 (Surveys) June, 2004 (Observations)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ How teachers actually conducted their teaching;</li> <li>◆ Why they conducted their teaching in those ways.</li> </ul>

*Note.* NCETRA stands for National College English Teaching and Research Association.

### ***Rationale for the Mixed Methods Approach***

Given the nature of the current study, I employed a “mixed methods” approach (Creswell, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003) to conduct the exploration. I employed interviews, surveys, and observations to address the four research questions. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) defined mixed methods research as “the class of research where the research mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study” (p. 17). These authors contended that this mixed methods research is also an attempt to legitimize the use of multiple approaches in answering research questions.

The justification for adopting such an approach is threefold. First, just as Creswell (2003) asserted, a research problem or an issue that needs to be addressed determines what kind of research method needs to be undertaken, not the other way around. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) pointed to the fundamental nature of the research question in the research design, saying that “research methods should *follow* research questions in a way that offers the best chance to obtain useful answers” (pp. 17-18, original italics). Therefore, the mixed methods design employing both quantitative and qualitative approaches is particularly appropriate for this study as this best helps me to answer my research questions. It allows me as a researcher to take a closer look into both the micro and macro pictures of the intended and the enacted curriculum of college English education within the unique tertiary context of China. For this reason, collecting both qualitative and quantitative data proved advantageous to best address the research problem. These data consisted of open-ended interviews with policymakers and administrators coupled with corresponding language documents to address the intended

curriculum and their perceptions of it. The data also included closed-ended teacher surveys and classroom observations of and interviews with EFL teachers to scrutinize the enacted curriculum.

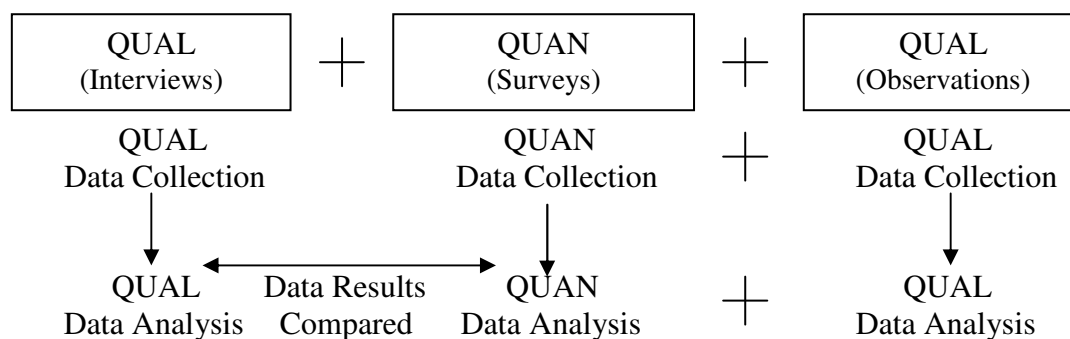
Second, Bekalo and Welford (2000) argued that a discrepancy exists between the theoretically intended curriculum perceived by policymakers and the practically enacted curriculum implemented by classroom teachers. The multiple measures to investigate the intended and the enacted curriculum and the examination of the gap between the two curricula help ensure the validity of both the qualitative and quantitative findings. In fact, the use of a variety of data sources in a study such as this is a means of data triangulation (Patton, 2002). This triangulation of data coupled with methodological triangulation—the use of multiple methods to study a single problem—was considered essential to verify and cross-check the research findings in this study (Creswell, 2003). That is to say, the interview data intended to reveal the rationale behind the makings of the language policies are cross-checked against the data gathered from teacher surveys, classroom observations, and interviews to note any discrepancies.

Third, from collecting and analyzing both quantitative and qualitative data, I was able to provide a strong case for my conclusions through convergence and corroboration of findings (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Moreover, the research findings add insights into the issue of the curriculum implementation of college English education at the Chinese tertiary level. Furthermore, they provide suggestions to all the stakeholders involved in the implementation.

### *Overview of the Mixed Methods Research Design*

The overall research design in this study employed a mixed methods approach based on an “equal-status concurrent triangulation” strategy, symbolized as “QUAL + QUAN” (Creswell, 2003; Johnson & Christensen, 2004). In this design, both a qualitative and a quantitative phase are incorporated into the overall research, and each of the methods is given equal status. In other words, I collected both quantitative and qualitative data, using both methods but at different phases of the study.

The rationale for using such a model lies in the fact that both methods need to be used in order to best answer the research questions raised in the study. Moreover, “the concurrent data collection results in a shorter data collection time period” (Creswell, 2003, p. 217). Taking into account the theoretical and practical concerns of the study, equal priority is given to each method in data collection and data analysis. Only when I interpret the data will the findings from the two methods be brought together. Then, I will note the convergence of the findings to strengthen the knowledge claims of the study or explain any lack of convergence that may result (Creswell, 2003). After using data of different forms in this design, I expect the findings of the study to be validated and well-substantiated. Figure 3 presents the research design of this study.



*Figure 3.* Equal-status concurrent triangulation strategy of the overall research design.

- Note.*
1. A plus sign “+” indicates a simultaneous or concurrent collection of data.
  2. An arrow sign “→” indicates a sequential collection of data.
  3. “Quan” and “Qual” stand for quantitative and qualitative research, respectively; they use the same number of letters to represent equality between the data forms.

Figure 3 demonstrates the “equal-status concurrent triangulation” strategy used in the study. This design has the following characteristics. First, there was no pre-determined sequence in either data collection or importance of each research phase. This means that I conducted interviews with policymakers and administrators as well as teacher surveys and classroom observations, based on the availability of the participants. Second, both quantitative and qualitative methods were equally important in the research design. There was no priority of one method over the other. Instead, the data from each method were collected at different phases of the study. Third, data analysis was undertaken only after all the data had been collected. At this stage, I brought the interview data from policymakers and administrators together with the teacher surveys and classroom observations, to explore both the intended and the enacted curricula. I interpreted the findings by comparing the different data to uncover the discrepancies, if any, between the two curricula. Finally, I attempted to confirm, cross-validate, and corroborate the research findings through the use of quantitative and qualitative methods as well as through the triangulation of data within the study.

### *Sampling*

The primary stakeholders in this study are the major players in college English education in China. They include curriculum policymakers, administrators, and EFL

teachers. More specifically, they constitute: (1) policymakers who draft, design, and revise the syllabus, its associate materials, and the nationwide college English test at the national level; (2) administrators who set out the rules and regulations in relation to college English teaching and learning at departmental levels; and (3) EFL teachers who deliver the curriculum in the classroom.

### ***Participants for Policymaker and Administrator Interviews***

The purpose of conducting interviews with the national policymakers was to explore the intended curriculum, and particularly the rationale behind the proposed language policies. The interviews with departmental administrators were aimed at understanding their perceptions of the college English curriculum and its implementation. To recruit these participants, I adopted a non-random sampling technique in the study to elicit information (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). This sampling technique is what Patton (2002) and Johnson and Christensen (2004) referred to as purposive sampling. In purposive sampling, the focus is to select “information-rich cases for study in depth” (Patton, 2002, p. 230), which are likely to illuminate the questions under study. According to this criterion, the samples chosen for this group to a great extent represented the hierarchical administrative structure in terms of college English education in China (see Figure 1 in Chapter One). Within such a highly centralized educational context, college English teaching and learning has been under the supervision and guidance of the Ministry of Education and has been significantly influenced by government language policies and strategies passed down to each university.

***Policymakers.*** Based on the belief that one needs to select a sample from which one can learn the most about the central issues with respect to the purpose of the inquiry

(Patton, 2002), I chose, in total, six policymakers at the national and provincial levels because they represented the various curricular aspects and were considered knowledgeable and informed about the intended curriculum (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). Of the six participants, all were available except for one official from the Ministry of Education. The information from this official was gathered from his speech published in research journals and corroborated in a speech by the vice-minister from the Ministry of Education publicized on the government website (<http://www.edu.cn>) as well as corresponding official written documents. The other individuals selected were from the College English Syllabus Revision Team, the Material Development Team, the National College English Testing Committee, the National College English Teaching and Research Association, and the Shaanxi Provincial College English Teaching and Research Association. Each represented a key policymaking organization.

Three male and one female national policymaker participated in the interviews. They were engaged in designing the 1999 College English Teaching Syllabus, developing the College English Test, and compiling textbooks for college English students. All of these policymakers were full professors in their early sixties and were very active researchers involved in the decision-making endeavours at the national level. To preserve their confidentiality, each of the policymakers was given a pseudonym, as either Professor An, Ban, Cen, or Ding. In addition, the policymaker from the Provincial College English Teaching and Research Association participated in the interview, but this association plays more of an academic role than a policymaking role.

*Administrators.* I selected, in total, six university department heads from the Foreign Languages Department, the College of Foreign Languages, or the School of



Foreign Languages as informants for the administrator interview group in Xi'an city, the field research site. I purposely selected these six universities so as to be representative of two of each of the top, average, and below average-ranked<sup>6</sup> Chinese universities in terms of teaching capacity, student population and background, resource support, research orientation, and administration structure. From this sample, I wanted to find out if there were any similarities or differences in the perceptions of these administrators due to the differences of university status in China.

To preserve the anonymity of the six participating universities as well as the identities of the six administrators, these six universities are referred to as either large, medium, or small universities. Each of the administrators was given a pseudonym, as administrator A, B, C, D, E, or F, in the extensive descriptions and quotations. Additionally, special efforts have been undertaken to omit or modify information related to either of the universities or the administrators when interview data are presented.

The administrators participating in the interviews were either the associate department heads or the directors of teaching and research groups. Of the six participants, there were three males and three females. All of them were in their early to late forties, with teaching experience ranging between 17 and 30 years. They all had either a bachelor's degree, an advanced teacher training certificate, or a master's degree, and in some cases a combination of these. Their academic titles were either associate professor or full professor.

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<sup>6</sup> The ranking of Chinese universities is considered to be semi-official based on the student population, enrolment, research, teaching capacity, etc.

Table 5 presents the demographic information of these participants. It details who they are with regard to their gender and age, years of teaching, educational qualifications, universities where they work, academic titles, and administrative titles held.

Table 5

*The Profiles of the Participants in the Administrator Interviews*

Department Heads	Gender	Age	Years of Teaching	Educational Qualifications	University Working	Academic Titles	Administrative Titles
A	M	44	26	M.A.	Large	Full Professor	Associate Head
B	F	42	19	M.A.	Large	Full Professor	Associate Head
C	M	45	26	M.A.	Medium	Full Professor	Associate Head
D	M	40	17	ATTC*	Medium	Associate Professor	Associate Head
E	F	48	28	B.A.	Small	Associate Professor	Associate Head
F	F	48	30	B.A.	Small	Associate Professor	Director

*Note.* ATTC means Advanced Teacher Training Certificate, which can be obtained after B.A.

*Participants for Teacher Surveys*

For the survey, I selected participants from the same six universities mentioned above in Xi'an city, the Northwestern part of China through purposive sampling. The rationale for the selection of these six participating universities is as follows. First, given that China has over 1,500 universities and colleges, it was neither realistic nor possible for me to approach universities in many different cities. Second, Xi'an is a city with over 50 universities and colleges scattered across its urban and suburban areas and it is ranked third among cities that have a large number of institutions of higher learning in China, after Beijing and Shanghai (<http://www.edu.cn>). Third, even in Xi'an city alone, I was able to include institutions of higher learning representing the top, average, and below average-ranked Chinese universities in order to solicit a much wider range of EFL

teachers' perceptions of the college English curriculum and its implementation. My assumption was that teachers might offer diverse ideas and insights due to the status of the university, students' English levels, teachers' language proficiency, teaching equipment and facilities provided, and technological support.

Once the participating universities were decided upon, the criterion for selecting the participants was set to include all the EFL teachers who were teaching college English for non-English major students at the time when the questionnaire was being administered, and who were willing to participate. To attract a larger pool of diverse informants who would be comparatively representative for the study in terms of age, gender, educational background, and teaching experience, I invited all the EFL teachers from the aforementioned six universities to participate. Based on an agreement with the universities' department heads, I was invited to deliver a research seminar before teachers filled out the questionnaires. Altogether 248 EFL teachers completed the questionnaires.

#### ***Participants for Classroom Observations and Interviews***

Using purposive sampling (Patton, 2002), I decided to choose both a veteran and a novice teacher for the classroom observations. The intention was to ensure that the selected two teachers could provide "information-rich" cases with respect to the purpose of the study. I expected them to have a sound knowledge and better understanding of college English education in China. In addition, the participants should be willing to be observed in their classrooms, to have their lessons tape-recorded, and to be interviewed afterwards. However, such a selection did not necessarily mean that these two EFL teachers were representatives of the teacher population under investigation. Rather, I

chose and studied them as detailed cases to illustrate what was happening in English-as-a-foreign-language classrooms at the tertiary level.

Although I started seeking participants right after I arrived in Xi'an in April 2004, the selection process proved to be somewhat difficult. The main reason was that in early May and June for about four to six weeks, teachers who were teaching second-year students were busy preparing their students for the nationwide College English Test Band 4 (CET-4) to be held on June 19, 2004. Under the university teaching schedule, these teachers had stopped their regular teaching (from the textbooks), and instead were instructing their students with simulated exercises for the approaching national CET. This meant that about half of the teachers from each participating university were unable to participate.

Upon my arrival in Xi'an, I contacted the department heads with whom I conducted interviews. Through contacts by phone I invited them to recommend teachers who might be interested in my study and request their contact information. In lieu of ethical consideration (of a power relationship between the administrators and their teachers), I asked the department heads or the directors of the teaching and research groups to provide a pool of potential subjects. From that list, I made phone calls or approached teachers directly, after I delivered my research seminar in their university.

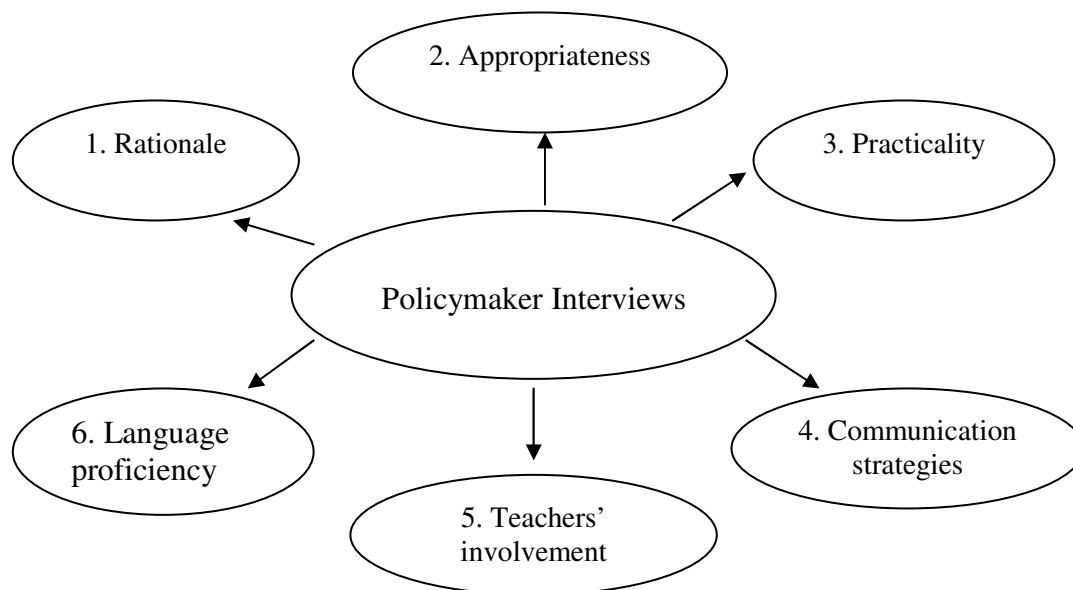
I encountered several rejections from teachers who were too busy with their teaching to participate. In the end, one experienced teacher from a small university, and another, less experienced teacher from a large university, agreed to allow me to observe their classroom teaching and to do follow-up interviews.

### *Instrumentation (1) – Interview Protocols*

This section first describes the interview protocol for policymakers and administrators and then presents the interview protocol that I used with the EFL teachers.

The instrument used in interviews with policymakers, administrators, and teachers followed what Patton (2002) referred to as the interview guide approach. In this approach, I listed the questions to be explored in an interview and used the list as a guide to “ensure that the same basic lines of inquiry are pursued with each person interviewed” (p. 343). I did not have to follow these questions in any particular order during the interview (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). Rather, this interview guide provided the topic dimensions associated with syllabi, textbooks, and tests within which I was “free to explore, probe, and ask questions that will elucidate and illuminate that particular subject” (Patton, 2002, p. 343). The advantage of this “formal, semi-structured, and in-depth interview” allowed me to come to the interview with guiding questions and meanwhile remain open to “following the leads of informants and probing into areas that arise during interview interactions” (Hatch, 2002, p. 94).

According to the different teams that each participant belonged to, which were the Syllabus Team, the Textbook Team, and the Testing Team (see Figure 1 in Chapter One), the interview protocols (see Appendix D) with the policymakers were divided into six dimensions as illustrated in Figure 4.

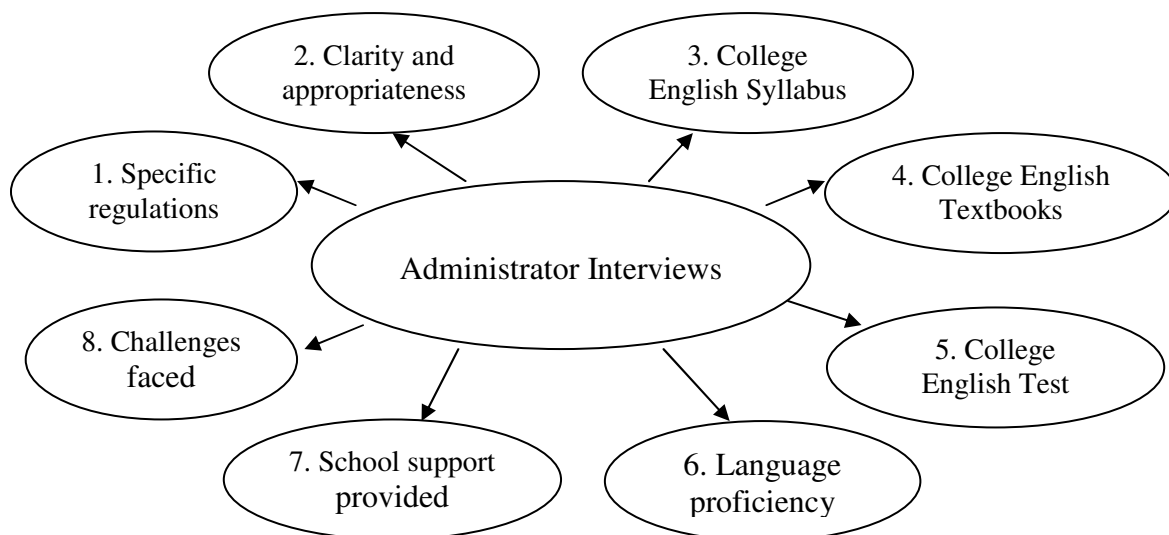


*Figure 4.* Six dimensions of the interview questions with the policymakers.

The first dimension included the rationale for the design of the syllabus, the compilation of the textbooks, the conducting of the nationwide test for college English education in China, and the changes made to the curriculum. The second dimension of the interview questions dealt with the appropriateness of the syllabus, textbooks, and tests, and the underlying principles of their design. The third dimension touched upon the practicality of the syllabus, textbooks, and tests. Also, I intended to look at the clarity of the syllabus, how the textbooks actually covered the syllabus, and for what purposes the college English test results were used. The fourth dimension of the interview questions was focused on the communication strategies of each decision-making organization in disseminating the syllabus and textbooks, and on the extent to which EFL teachers' fidelity to implementation was expected. In addition, I wanted to discover policymakers' perspectives regarding the impact of the college English test on teachers, students, and the university itself. The fifth dimension of the interview questions was geared to the

EFL teachers' involvement in the development of the syllabus and textbooks. The sixth dimension dealt with teachers' language proficiency in delivering the curriculum, and students' English proficiency and the consequences of their failure in the high-stakes standardized national college English test.

The interview protocol (see Appendix E) with the administrators was divided into eight dimensions as illustrated in Figure 5. The first dimension asked about the specific regulations stipulated in the university in relation to the national language policies for college English education and the rationale for laying down such regulations. The second dimension of the interview questions touched upon the clarity and appropriateness of those regulations in each university. The third dimension dealt with the College English Syllabus, its clarity and practicality for the tertiary classroom teaching and learning. The fourth dimension of the interview questions focused on textbooks, discussing how the textbooks actually represented the syllabus. The fifth dimension was devoted to the College English Test, particularly on the washback effect that this test exerted on universities, teachers, and students. The sixth dimension asked about teachers' language proficiency in delivering the curriculum. With this question, I intended to draw close attention to in-service teacher training, which is considered essential in China to teachers' professional development. The seventh dimension asked about what support the university has provided to its teachers to improve students' learning. The eighth dimension raised the issue of the challenges that department heads were facing in implementing the college English curriculum in their universities.



*Figure 5.* Eight dimensions of the interview questions with the administrators.

The interview protocol (see Appendix F) with the two EFL teachers was also divided into eight dimensions. Among them, five dimensions were the same as those in the administrator interview protocol. They were: (2) clarity and appropriateness of the syllabus; (3) the college English syllabus; (4) college English textbooks; (5) the college English test; and (8) challenges faced (see Figure 5 above for details). The other three dimensions included: (1) demographic information about teachers' language learning experience, educational background, and teaching experience; (6) teacher training support received from the department; and (7) rationale regarding English and Chinese use in teaching and the student-centred approach.

### ***Instrumentation (2) – Surveys***

This section describes the questionnaire development and its validation procedures. It discusses the rationale for utilizing a questionnaire survey in my study, a description of the focus group discussion to operationalize my hypothesized model, an



explanation of the content design (themes and items or variables) of the survey instrument, and a description of the pilot testing of the survey. To conclude, this section includes a discussion of reliability and validity in the survey instrumentation.

### *Why a Questionnaire Survey*

The survey, as a method of collecting information from people about their ideas, feelings, beliefs, attitudes, needs, motivations, and behaviour, has been widely employed in social science research (Fink, 2002; Gray & Guppy, 1999) as well as in the field of English as a second or foreign language education (Gorsuch, 2000; Stoller, 1994). Researchers choose to use surveys as a research method because it is an effective way to get the required information from a large number of individuals (Alreck & Settle, 1995). I chose a questionnaire survey as the research instrument primarily for the following reasons.

First, my study explores the implementation of the national college English curriculum in China by investigating both the intended and the enacted curriculum. Interviews with policymakers are meant to explore the intended curriculum. By using surveys, I can investigate the enacted curriculum by looking at EFL teachers' perceptions about the college English curriculum and its implementation. I also more easily through a survey format discover teachers' perceptions of factors contributing to or impeding their "fidelity" (Snyder et al., 1992) to implementation.

Second, empirical studies in general education have utilized the questionnaire technique to examine implementation issues as well as factors contributing to teachers' fidelity or resistance to curriculum implementation; for example, studies undertaken by Punch and McAtee (1979), and Morris (1988). In the field of English as a second or

foreign language, Stoller (1994), Karavas-Doukas (1996), Li (1998), and Gorsuch (2000), have also used questionnaires to explore ESL and EFL teachers' attitudes and perceptions of communicative approaches and innovation attributes. Because well-established or perfectly-matched survey instruments for my study were unavailable, some items in these researchers' questionnaires were adapted to measure Chinese EFL teachers' perceptions of the curriculum innovation and its implementation. These studies in fact facilitated my development of the questionnaire instrument used in both my pilot study and main study.

Third, the context of my study necessitates my use of surveys. China is a huge country with a population of 1.4 billion. In terms of language education, the current student population reached 19 million in 2004, whereas EFL teachers only numbered 50,000 (Wu, 2004). Each year, more than 3.1 million Chinese students are engaged in English language education in over 1,500 universities and colleges (<http://www.edu.cn>). Even the research site of Xi'an city where I conducted my study has over 50 universities and colleges (<http://www.edu.cn>). Given the demography of China, as well as Xi'an city, the most efficient way (in terms of time and money) to collect the information about EFL teachers' perceptions of the national college English curriculum was through surveys.

Moreover, surveys were hand-delivered and group-administered after I delivered a research seminar to teachers. The advantage of such group-administered surveys was the likelihood of high response rates (Gray & Guppy, 1999) and it guaranteed that the person to whom the questionnaire was addressed was the one who actually filled it out (Sheatsley, 1985).

### ***Focus Group Discussion to Operationalize My Hypothesized Model***

The hypothesized model presented in Figure 2 of Chapter Two is a summary of literature reviews derived primarily from studies conducted in North America. Although some studies have also touched upon the issue of curriculum implementation in English as a foreign language contexts such as those of Japan (Gorsuch, 2000), Korea (Li, 1998), Egypt (Gahin & Myhill, 2001), and Greece (Karavas-Doukas, 1996), the contexts of these studies are still different from my study of that which exists in China. My research context is that of Chinese higher education, where the educational system itself, philosophy of teaching, value system, cultural background, and language teaching and learning environments have their own characteristics (see Chapter One). This uniqueness, to a great extent, entails an in-depth examination of those interactive factors which impinge upon curriculum implementation at the tertiary level in China.

To develop my operationalized model for Chinese tertiary EFL education, I conducted a focus group discussion. The rationale for organizing such a discussion was twofold. First, I expected to examine the proposed external and internal factors in my model with the help of the focus group (Fowler, 1995). That is to say, I intended to draw on the discussion results to validate my hypothesized model so that an operationalized model could be created to guide the survey design. In this vein, this focus group functioned as a panel of experts who had experience in teaching English at the tertiary level in China, and who were expected to offer their perspectives to the constructs created for the questionnaire. Second, by organizing a focus group of five to eight people who represented a wide range of experiences and perceptions in relation to the issues being discussed (Fowler, 1995), I was able to learn how these participants responded to the

theoretical constructs and factors and to test whether the factors discussed in the literature review were perceived as affecting Chinese EFL teachers. This, in turn, facilitated the design of questionnaire items or variables under each theme within each corresponding construct.

The actual set-up of the focus group involved several steps. I first established the research agenda by asking a few specific questions, followed by discussion. I acknowledged that the purpose of such a discussion was to seek opinions on the theoretical constructs of the questionnaire, to confirm the themes delineated in the literature, and to identify those which were not discussed in the literature but were typical of Chinese EFL education at the tertiary level.

I formulated a discussion question for the focus group, which was: What are the potential external and internal factors affecting EFL teachers' curriculum implementation in the Chinese tertiary classrooms? I designed the question in an unstructured manner, in the hope that the respondents would not feel constrained in their response to any aspect or dimension of the issue. The chosen dimensions would indicate which were the most important to them (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). Also, by keeping the questions open-ended as Knodel (1993) suggested, I hoped to stimulate the participants into providing responses that I may not have anticipated.

I used a convenience sampling technique to recruit focus group participants. From among 20 Chinese students who were pursuing their graduate studies at the Faculty of Education, Queen's University, I finally selected six participants. These participants were former EFL teachers who had taught college English in different Chinese universities

before embarking on their graduate studies in Canada. Table 6 presents the participants' profiles.

Table 6

*The Profiles of the Focus Group Participants*

Participants	Gender	Age	Years of Teaching	Education Qualifications	University Worked
1	F	40	13	B.A., M.A., Ph.D. (Candidate)	Northwest China
2	F	33	9	B.A., M.A., M.Ed. (Candidate)	South China
3	F	32	6	B.A., M.A., M.Ed. (Candidate)	South China
4	F	31	4	B.A., M.A., M.Ed. (Candidate)	North China
5	M	31	4	B.A., M.A., M.Ed. (Candidate)	South China
6	F	25	2	B.A., M.Ed. (Candidate)	Northeast China

Five females and one male participated. All of them had obtained a master's degree either in China or Canada, except for one participant who had only a bachelor's degree from China. Their ages ranged from 25 to 40, and their teaching experience between 2 and 13 years. The institutions where they had taught English are in various geographical regions of China.

The focus group session took place on January 16, 2004. With the participants' permission, the whole process, which took 90 minutes, was tape-recorded. The discussion was conducted in Chinese (Mandarin) although all the participants were fluent speakers of English. The reason behind this was that I wanted to create an environment which was nonthreatening and nonevaluative; one in which all the participants would be able to express themselves as freely as possible, which meant speaking their native language.

However, I stated that they were free to use English whenever necessary to illustrate their points of view. All six participants described their experiences in their respective institutions by giving many examples. Sometimes participants added to or elaborated on another's statement. As the facilitator, I kept the conversation on track by focusing on the question.

Given the fact that the purpose of this focus group was simply to identify the theoretical constructs and themes in order to design the questionnaire, I did not either transcribe or translate the information recorded. Instead, I conducted the analysis of data by listening to the tape numerous times in order to examine the participants' statements within the context of the discussion. As a result of this focused discussion, the conceptual constructs for the questionnaire were confirmed and compared with the ones discussed in the literature. Specific themes were identified as being applicable to the Chinese tertiary context. These themes either overlapped with the theoretical model from the literature or compensated for what was missing. Collectively, the focus group produced six themes which fell under the external factors category: testing, textbooks, teachers' evaluation, resource support, students' English abilities and expectations, and class size and workloads. There were eight themes for internal factors: beliefs and attitudes towards language teaching, knowledge of the innovation, understanding of the innovation, language learning backgrounds, teachers' English proficiency, teaching experience, and professional development activities and needs. I later used these themes to help compose the instrument items (see Table 7).

### *The Content Design of the Questionnaire for the Pilot Study*

After the focus group discussion, I designed a content structure for the questionnaire based on the constructs and themes identified from the literature and confirmed through the focus group discussion. Given that the purpose of the questionnaire was to explore Chinese EFL teachers' perceptions of the college English curriculum and its implementation in the classroom, the questionnaire was designed to address the third research question (see Table 4). Since the participants would be teachers who were teaching English at the university level, the instrument was designed and written in English. However, to emphasize some key terms and also to avoid misunderstandings, the key terms were accompanied by Chinese translations that were placed into brackets after the corresponding terms.

The questionnaire used in the pilot study consisted of four sections. Section A was about the external factors on curriculum implementation, Section B about the internal factors on curriculum implementation, Section C about the curriculum implementation activities in the classroom, and Section D about the demographic information of the participants. Sections A and B included the external and internal factors which might impact teachers' curriculum implementation in the classroom. Section C was based on the content of the 1999 College English Syllabus and designed to uncover teachers' fidelity to curriculum implementation. Section D consisted of teachers' demographic information, to acquire more background information from the participants.

Since no perfectly-matched or ready-made questionnaire was available for me to use in the pilot testing, I derived the questionnaire items from a combination of designs. Three sources contributed to the write-up of the questionnaire items. Some items were

adapted from the two available questionnaires (Gorsuch, 2000; Karavas-Doukas, 1996), but most of the items in Sections B and C in particular, I designed myself. As well, some items were adaptations from Cheng and Wang's (2004) questionnaire investigating professional development for secondary teachers of English in China, from which I transformed the multiple choice items into a five-point Likert scale. After writing up the items and before piloting the instrument, I asked two colleagues as well as my three thesis committee members to look at the items to ensure that the items adapted or written measured what I intended to measure and that the items made sense. These two colleagues had formerly taught College English in Chinese universities and had enough training and experience to offer me their opinions. They read the items carefully and provided me with constructive feedback. I deleted unclear items, and added or revised certain items according to their suggestions.

Moreover, I designed the whole instrument as the close-ended format on a five-point Likert scale. This scale is one of the most commonly accepted and used rating scales in educational research (Alreck & Settle, 1995; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000), and in English as a second or foreign language research (Brown, 1988; Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). By giving participants the option of choosing a neutral of 3, I allowed them to choose to neither agree nor disagree and thus gave them more freedom to be "undecided" or "don't know" when responding to the statement. The whole questionnaire design is described in more detail below. Table 7 presents the structure and themes of the questionnaire instrument for the pilot study.



Table 7

*Structure and Themes of the Questionnaire for the Pilot Study*

<b>Structure</b>	<b>Themes</b>	<b>Items</b>
<b>Section A</b>	<b>External factors affecting implementation</b> 1. Testing 2. Textbooks 3. Teachers' evaluation 4. Resource support 5. Students' English abilities and expectations 6. Class size and workloads	<b>14</b> A1-A2 A3-A5 A6-A8 A9-A10 A11-A12 A13-A14
<b>Section B</b>	<b>Internal factors affecting implementation</b> 1. Beliefs towards language teaching 2. Knowledge of the syllabus 3. Understanding of the syllabus 4. Language learning background 5. Teachers' English proficiency 6. Teaching experience 7. Professional development activities 8. Professional development needs	<b>28</b> B1-B2 B3-B7 B8-B13 B14-B16 B17-B19 B20-B21 B22-B24 B25-B28
<b>Section C</b>	<b>Curriculum implementation activities in classrooms</b> 1. Reading activities 2. Listening, speaking, writing, and translating activities 3. Objectives in the syllabus 4. Active learning 5. Subject-based English	<b>14</b> C1, C11 C2, C4, C10, C14  C6, C13 C5, C7, C9, C12 C3, C8
<b>Section D</b>	<b>Demographic information</b> 1. Gender 2. Age 3. Educational qualification 4. Teaching experience 5. Teaching hours per week 6. Class size	<b>6</b> D1 D2 D3 D4 D5 D6

*Section A/B: The external/internal factors.* Sections A and B included statements about how the external and internal factors impacted on teachers' curriculum implementation. All the items were designed on a five-point Likert scale to obtain the respondents' degree of agreement or disagreement. The response scale was as follows: 5

= Strongly Agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Neutral (neither agree nor disagree), 2 = Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree.

In Section A, seven items were adapted from Gorsuch's (2000) questionnaire, and the rest were written by the researcher. Items A1 and A2 were adapted from one of Gorsuch's items, measuring the influence of textbooks on teachers' classroom practice. Items A3 and A4 were also adapted from one item measuring the impact of tests. Items A11 and A12 were revised versions of the original items, intended to measure the influence of students' English abilities and expectations. Item A13 was adapted from the original item, measuring the influence of class size on teaching. For the rest of the items, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9, A10, and A14, I devised them based on the focus group discussion and my own teaching experience in the Chinese tertiary context for 14 years.

In Section B of 28 items, only four items were designed and adapted based on Gorsuch's (2000) questionnaire. Item B16 was revised and adapted to measure the influence of language learning background on teachers' teaching. Item B19 was adapted from the original item intended to measure teachers' language proficiency. Both items A22 and A23 were adapted from the original two items intended to measure the in-service teacher training experience. As for the rest of the items, I devised them in accordance with the themes from the literature review and the focus group discussion.

***Section C: The curriculum implementation activities.*** Section C included statements about teachers' curriculum implementation activities in the classroom, and was intended to measure what teachers actually did in practice. Items C1 to C9 were designed on a five-point Likert scale to obtain the respondents' degree of agreement or

disagreement. Items C10 to C14 were designed on a five-point Likert scale of frequency, in which 5 = Always, 4 = Often, 3 = Sometimes, 2 = Seldom, and 1 = Never.

The curriculum implementation activities are intended to reflect the principles of the 1999 College English Syllabus under which the EFL teachers work. To accurately embody the content of this document, I made a careful examination of the Syllabus, both Chinese and English versions, in the designing phase. I found that the Syllabus touched upon five aspects of language teaching and learning in the Chinese tertiary classroom. These five aspects dealt with development of reading skills, development of listening, speaking, writing, and translating skills, ultimate objectives of the syllabus, development of active learners, and subject-based English study after Band 4. To explore these five aspects, I created both positive and negative items to investigate the extent to which EFL teachers actually conducted their classroom teaching. Among the 14 items, only two, C5 and C7, about active learning, were adapted from Karavas-Doukas' (1996) questionnaire to measure teachers' attitudes towards the communicative approach.

***Section D: The demographic information.*** Section D included demographic questions about the questionnaire participants. It consisted of: (1) demographic information including gender (D1), age (D2), educational qualifications (D3), and teaching experience (D4); and (2) current teaching situations, including the number of teaching periods per week (D5), and average class size (D6).

### ***The Pilot Testing***

The rationale for piloting of the questionnaire was threefold. First, as Seliger and Shohamy (1989) asserted, the aim of piloting is to assess the quality of the survey instrument in order to revise and improve it before it is used with the subjects in the main

study. Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) echoed this claim by saying that piloting is crucial in detecting any problems so that the instrument variables can be remedied before the main study is carried out. Second, by testing the instrument, the researcher can get a sense of the practical aspects of administering the data collection tool, such as the time required to complete the survey and the clarity of the instructions, down to the physical appearance of the instrument. Finally, a pilot study is directly related to the issues of reliability and validity (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). From the results of the pilot study, I could check internal consistency by computing the reliability coefficient of each construct and each theme. Piloting enabled me to identify potential problems, so that I could modify, delete, or add items in the instrument to increase its reliability. In addition, piloting helped me to establish the construct validity and content validity of the instrument (Creswell, 2003).

The participants in the pilot study were 43 EFL teachers who had taught College English to non-English major students in Chinese universities and who had similar backgrounds to the potential participants in the main study. In recruiting the participants, I adopted non-random sampling techniques, i.e., convenience sampling coupled with snowball sampling (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). That is, I included in my sample participants that were either already available or could be easily recruited. These participants were either former colleagues and classmates, or academic acquaintances whom I had met at conferences. To ensure a large, diverse pool of informants who would be comparatively representative of the potential participants in the main study, I chose participants from among EFL teachers who were pursuing graduate studies in universities in Canada, Britain, and Hong Kong. I also asked them to identify one or more additional

people who met my selection criteria and who would be willing to complete the questionnaire.

I collected the pilot data between February 26 and March 11, 2004. Since it was time-consuming to mail the questionnaire to the participants who were located far from the research site, I distributed and collected the survey data electronically. I sent information about the survey together with the survey itself as an attachment via e-mail to those participants described above. This invitation e-mail message explained the purpose of the study, requested assistance in completing it, and indicated detailed steps of how to fill out the questionnaire. I also asked them to forward my e-mail to any colleagues, classmates, or friends who might consider participating. In an attempt to obtain more responses, during the second week I sent a follow-up e-mail to participants who had failed to respond the first time, in order to further solicit their participation. Finally, I sent a thank-you message to all the participants upon the close of the data collection.

The EFL teachers spent 20 to 25 minutes in completing the questionnaire. After receiving the completed questionnaires, I coded the quantifiable data and entered the responses into a computer file employing SPSS 11.0 version. I calculated descriptive statistics (see Appendix G), calculated Cronbach's alpha, and conducted exploratory factor analysis and standard multiple regression, similar to the procedures to be conducted and described in the main study. Based on the pilot results, I revised the questionnaire for the main study. The following section describes the piloting results, with Table 8 first providing a summary of the five-factor solutions for Section A and B.

Table 8

*Summary of the Factor Analyses in the Pilot Study*

Sections	Factors	Items
A	1 – Testing	A3, A4, A5, A6
	2 – Evaluation of teachers	A7, A8
	3 – Textbooks	A1, A2
	4 – Teaching facilities	A9, A10, A11
	5 – Workloads	A13, A14
B	1 – Syllabus	B3, B4, B5, B9, B10, B11, B13
	2 – Professional development	B1, B16, B17, B22, B25, B26, B27, B28
	3 – Communicative language teaching	B2, B18
	4 – Language learning and teaching	B14, B15, B20, B21
	5 – Language proficiency	B7, B19

For Sections A and B of the external and internal factors, I conducted principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation on the 14 and 28 items. From analysis of the scree diagrams, it appeared that a five-factor solution demonstrated the most interpretable result, with eigenvalues greater than one in Section A and eigenvalues either close to or greater than two in Section B. The five factors accounted for 67.9% of the total variance in the variables for the external factors and 53.6% for the internal factors.

However, among the five-factor solutions, some items did not function as expected. In Section A, item A12, which was intended to measure if students' expectations influenced teachers' teaching, did not load onto any factors, but had low and cross loadings of less than .50. Consequently, item A12 was deleted from any factors. Item A6, initially designed as a variable to discover if students' test scores contribute to teachers' teaching performance evaluations by their department heads, did not load with items A7 and A8 that were intended to measure teachers' evaluation. It actually loaded instead onto Factor 1, test impact, indicating that tests exerted an impact on teachers' performance evaluations. Likewise, item A11, intended to measure students' English

abilities, did not load with item A12 as anticipated but loaded onto Factor 4, teaching facilities, suggesting that students' English proficiency was a kind of resource to teachers. In addition, from the comments and suggestions made by the participants, I added one item, A6 (see Appendix I), to the external factors in Section A. This item was "My colleagues in the department evaluate me" and belonged to the theme of teachers' evaluation, thus expanding this aspect of the dimension.

Moreover, a considerable number of respondents expressed their concern regarding the wording and appropriateness of three items, A5, A6, and A8. Item A5 was a general statement that "students do simulated tests to prepare for the College English Test," but failed to specify when students do so. I revised this item to the following version to make it more precise: "My students do simulated tests before the College English Test to prepare for it." I modified the wording of item A6 by making it simpler: "My students' test scores influence my teaching evaluation performance by the department." I also revised item A8 by making it more specific: "The teaching and research committee in my department evaluates me."

Section B produced some results which were difficult to interpret due to the fact that some items loading together did not belong to the initial themes derived from the literature review and the focus group discussion. After careful examination and discussion with my supervisor, committee members, and colleagues, I made revisions based on the theoretical framework, with some items deleted, added, or reworded. I deleted three items, B6, B8, and B12, because the orthogonal rotation revealed that they had low and cross loadings and failed to load onto any factors.

I added some statements to themes which had fewer items after the factor analysis to elaborate on those themes. For Factor 3, communicative language teaching, I added one item to explore teachers' usage of this method: "I use communicative language teaching in my classroom teaching." For Factor 4, language learning and teaching, the original fourth theme (language learning background) and the sixth theme (teaching experience) loaded onto this Factor with four items, but with a negative reliability coefficient. This implied that these four items falling under this factor in fact demonstrated different dimensions within a theme (Wiersima & Jurs, 1990). Therefore, I made the revision by dividing these four items into the originally designed two themes again based on the theoretical framework. I added one item under the theme of language learning background to reflect the reality of the situation in China: "I was taught by a combination of grammar-translation method and communicative language teaching method." Similarly, I added one item under the theme of teaching experience to explore the influence of teaching experience on teaching: "My teaching changes as I gain more experience from my classroom instruction." As well, I added one item to Factor 5 to uncover the influence of teachers' overall language proficiency on their classroom teaching performance: "My overall language proficiency influences my teaching."

Finally, two items B23 (unavailability of in-service training) and B24 (attending workshops) with low and cross loadings were maintained, because these items measuring EFL teachers' in-service teacher training have been considered in the literature as an indispensable theme of the internal factors, which impact teachers to a great extent in their curriculum implementation. These two items had a low reliability coefficient of .13, indicating a low level of internal consistency. Thus, I deleted item B23 but replaced it



with a more specific statement: “I am provided with a mentor from my department to help my teaching.” Also, I added one more item under this theme: “I observe my colleagues’ classroom teaching for my professional development” to provide another common form of in-service teacher training in China.

Section C results revealed that no outright inadequacy in the design of the construct and themes existed. Some concerns were raised about the wording or accuracy of certain items in this section, though. Based on the comments made by the participants in e-mails, I revised the wordings of items C1, C4, and C9 (see Appendix H and I).

### ***Final Validation of the Questionnaire***

After the pilot testing of the questionnaire, I came up with the revised version (see Appendix I). This revised questionnaire incorporated minor changes to the themes under each construct by deleting, adding, or modifying some items. Table 9 summarizes the structure and themes of the revised survey (Section A and B) eventually employed in the main study.

To test whether the revised items to be used in the main study were now working the way they were intended, I shuffled the questions in Section A and B in the questionnaire so that they were in random order. Then I invited two EFL teachers to validate the revised questionnaire by asking them to match questions with themes and constructs. I first requested them to identify the constructs and create themes within each construct. Then I asked them to connect each question to the themes that they had created. In so doing, I was able to confirm that what I was actually measuring was what I had intended to measure, and thereby ensure that the questionnaire items were being interpreted as intended.

Table 9

*Structure and Themes of the Revised Questionnaire for the Main Study*

<b>Structure</b>	<b>Themes</b>	<b>Items</b>
<b>Section A</b>	<b>External factors affecting implementation</b> 1. Testing 2. Teachers' evaluation 3. Textbooks 4. Resource support 5. Class size and workloads	<b>14</b> A1-A4 A5-A7 A8-A9 A10-A12 A13-A14
<b>Section B</b>	<b>Internal factors affecting implementation</b> 1. Knowledge and understanding of the syllabus 2. Professional development needs 3. Communicative language teaching 4. Language learning background 5. Teaching experience 6. Teachers' English proficiency 7. Professional development activities	<b>30</b> B1-B7 B8-B15 B16-B18 B19-B21 B22-B24 B25-B27 B28-B30

Both EFL teachers correctly identified the two constructs of the external and internal factors on curriculum implementation. In Section A, the external factors, both of the teachers clearly classified the themes along with the corresponding items of test impact, textbook impact, evaluation impact, and teaching facilities/resources impact. While one EFL teacher recognized the workload impact, the other failed to locate this theme, but designated it as a school factor. Also, for item A4, one respondent placed it under the theme of test impact and the other placed it in the category of evaluation.

In Section B, the internal factors, both of them categorized the themes along with the corresponding items into knowledge of the syllabus, communicative language teaching, teachers' language proficiency, language learning experience, and teaching experience. One EFL teacher named and grouped some items under professional development and added more themes, such as teaching methodology and future learning expectations, which did not match the originally designed themes. On the whole, the

results indicated that the revised survey measured what I had intended to measure and provided sound and reliable evidence of validity.

### ***Reliability and Validity in the Survey Instrumentation***

Reliability provides information on whether the instrument is collecting data in a consistent way (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). Pedhazur and Schmelkin (1991) asserted that Cronbach's alpha is considered to be an appropriate measure of internal consistency with which to estimate the level of reliability of the items within an instrument. These two authors further explained that Cronbach's alpha indicates "the degree to which the items on a measure are representative of the domain of the construct being measured" (p. 104). As well, using Cronbach's alpha, those who construct survey instruments or tests are able to evaluate relationships among items in an instrument and examine the internal consistency of the instrument.

Therefore, to ensure that the instrument for this study was a reliable measure of Chinese teachers' perceptions of curriculum implementation, I used Cronbach's alpha to uncover the reliability of each of the three sections that comprise the instrument in the pilot testing. By so doing, it provided an estimate of the internal consistency of items under each construct. After the data were collected and before any revisions were made, I calculated Cronbach's alpha. I found in the pilot survey an alpha coefficient of .56 for the external factors, .67 for the internal factors, and .56 for curriculum implementation activities in the classroom. While these reliability coefficients were relatively low, (that is, coefficients of .50 to .60), they were considered to be tolerable in early stages of research (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). In the course of exploratory factor analysis for the external and internal constructs, I also computed Cronbach's alpha for each factor

scale under respective constructs to perceive any potential problems with the items. I then decided to maintain, delete, or revise certain items to raise the level of internal consistency without losing the content themes or factors.

Validity refers to the extent to which the instrument in terms of a survey or test measures what it intends or claims to measure (Brown, 1988; Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). Therefore, validity is as important as reliability when evaluating new survey instruments or when applying established survey instruments to new populations (Litwin, 2002).

The most significant feature in validity evidence is construct validity. It is used “when the researcher needs to examine whether the data collection procedure is a good representation of and is consistent with current theories underlying the variable being measured” (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, p. 188). The survey instrument used for the pilot study was based on the theoretical frameworks of curriculum implementation (Carless, 1999a; Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991) under which themes or variables affecting implementation were identified and discussed. Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) advised that three steps are involved in obtaining construct-related evidence of validity: variables are defined, hypotheses are formed, and hypotheses are tested. The analysis of the instrument development and validation indicated that the items used in the pilot questionnaire were defined. Hypotheses that both external and internal factors were indicators of factors affecting curriculum implementation were formulated based on the literature reviewed and the focused discussion administered. These hypotheses were tested through the pilot study conducted on the EFL teachers who had taught at the tertiary level.

In addition, content validity is another source of validity evidence to find out “if the data collection procedure is a good representation of the content which needs to be

measured” (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, p. 188). Although it is a more subjective measure of the appropriateness of instrument items or scales, content-related evidence can be accumulated by distributing the instrument to reviewers who have a sound knowledge of the subject matter (Litwin, 2002). Following this guideline, I gave the survey instrument for the pilot study to two colleagues and three professors (the researcher’s committee members) at the Queen’s Faculty of Education and requested their judgment regarding the content and the format (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). I revised the content of the survey several times until they deemed all the items in the instrument ready for both the pilot testing and the main study.

### ***Instrumentation (3) – Classroom Observations***

This section discusses the research question explored through classroom observations and the rationale behind the research method of classroom observations and follow-up interviews. It also touches upon the design of the classroom observation instrument used in the current inquiry. I conclude by addressing issues of reliability and validity.

#### ***Research Question***

In this study, the use of classroom observations was intended to address the following research question: How is the intended curriculum interpreted by classroom teachers? The purpose of conducting classroom observations of and follow-up interviews with two EFL teachers was to find out how the curriculum was enacted in the classroom. From classroom observations, I saw how much teachers adhered to the objectives of the 1999 College English Syllabus in their classroom teaching; how teachers conducted their teaching; how much the target language, English, was used; and whether the nationwide

College English Test exerted any impact on teachers' classroom teaching. From interviews, I wanted to find out why the teachers conducted their teaching in the ways that they did.

### ***Rationale***

Observation refers to “the watching of behavioural patterns of people in certain situations to obtain information about the phenomenon of interest” (Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p. 186). Foster (1996) observed that classroom observational research in schools has been conducted for a variety of purposes. Since people do not always do what they say they do, observation becomes an important way of collecting information about people and is thereby “the only way to get direct information on classroom events, on the reality of program implementation” (Weir & Roberts, 1994, p. 164). In addition, Foster (1996) purported that observation can provide detailed information which can not be produced by other methods, that observational data are more likely to be accurate as they avoid relying on what participants tell us about their schools through questionnaires or interviews, and also that direct observation allows researchers to perceive what participants cannot. But he also warned that, since researchers inevitably select what they observe and record, observation by itself may give only a partial view of people's behaviour (Foster, 1996). This filtering through the interpretive lens of the observers involves the danger of introducing biases and inaccuracies into a researcher's work.

This study explored the implementation of the mandatory national college English curriculum in Chinese tertiary education. To find out the extent and nature of teachers' fidelity to implementing this curriculum, it is imperative to conduct classroom observations. Besides, the literature revealed a gap between what is theoretically intended

and what is practically implemented. If the findings of this study indicate such discrepancies, then what factors influence EFL teachers in their teaching practices in language classrooms? To uncover these factors and to answer the research question mentioned above, I observed teachers' teaching in classrooms.

While the survey study focuses on discovering attitudes that might contribute to or impede teachers' fidelity to the intended curriculum and on ascertaining the best indicators of curriculum implementation, observational study serves as a complement by observing these attitudes in action. The interaction between teachers and students and curriculum, according to Allwright (1984), is considered fundamental to classroom pedagogy, because "everything that happens in the classroom happens through a process of the live person-to-person interaction" (p. 156). Specifically, in Chinese EFL classrooms, I adopted this perspective to observe as well as to describe interactional events between language teachers and learners.

However, we cannot report everything that we observe during classroom observations. We need to be selective, and selection is determined by prior decisions as to what is relevant and significant to the research under study (Weir & Roberts, 1994). Observation needs to be focused on a chosen object, a definite task, an interest, a point of view, or a problem. The idea of non-selective observation and recording all that is observed is unrealistic.

### ***Observation Guide***

I designed an observation guide (see Appendix J) to facilitate my classroom observations. This guide referred to Fröhlich, Spada, and Allen's (1985) COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) category, comprised of three main

features: (1) participant organization, (2) activity type, and (3) use of target language. Participant organization describes who is conducting most of the talking in terms of teacher talk and student talk. Activity type focuses on what kind of teaching activities are conducted in the language classroom to promote students' language learning. Use of target language identifies how much the mother tongue and target language are used respectively in the language classroom in terms of teaching and learning.

I referred to the COLT observation model (Fröhlich et al., 1985) because it embraces more communicative orientation with regard to what teachers and students do in the language classroom as well as how they interact with each other. Drawing upon Part A of COLT, I described classroom activities. This was particularly essential in my investigation of the curriculum implementation because the 1999 College English Syllabus laid special emphasis on the features of communicative activities such as group work, pair work, and group discussions in the classroom teaching. Drawing upon Part B, I focused on the use of target language, that is to say, on the proportion of the use of the mother tongue (L1) to that of the target language (L2).

### ***Reliability and Validity in the Observations***

Reliability in classroom observations is concerned with the consistency between occasions or between informants (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Weir & Roberts, 1994). Seliger and Shohamy (1989) pointed out consistency as an essential criterion of reliability in data collection, analysis, and interpretation. Therefore, to enhance reliability, I employed two approaches in the data collection and data analysis: intra-rater reliability comparison and cross-checking of the yielded data.



Intra-rater or intra-observer reliability compares measures made by the same observer on different occasions of the same event. To explore this reliability, I randomly re-rated half of the audiotapes after a period of time had elapsed from the initial categorizations of the responses. This was conducted to compare the degree of agreement which existed between the first and second analyses. It revealed that over 90% agreement was obtained about the communicative orientation of classroom teaching activities (Fröhlich et al., 1985) between the EFL teachers whose classroom instruction was observed and audiotaped, which was an indication of the reliability of the analysis. Furthermore, by means of a methodological triangulation (Patton, 2002), I cross-checked the existing observation data and field notes with the yielded survey data about the curriculum implementation activities undertaken by the EFL teachers as a whole. My purpose was to seek corroboration of one source and method with another source and method (Mason, 1996).

Validity is concerned with the judgements about whether one is observing, measuring, or explaining what one claims to be measuring or explaining (Mason, 1996). To do so, the observational apparatus and the inferences drawn from it need to be meaningful, significant, and applicable to further studies (Chaudron, 1988). Beretta (1986) listed three criteria that observations should meet. They were: (1) that observations provide an accurate record of what took place; (2) that observational data be relevant to the characteristic features of the program; and (3) that observational data be complete, in that the whole program is fairly reflected.

To meet these validity criteria, I focused on what it was that should be searched for with regard to the college English curriculum implementation in the classroom in

terms of data generation method, data analysis, and data interpretation. By data generation, I asked what it was that I perceived my data sources and generation methods could potentially tell me and how well they could do this (Mason, 1996). Specifically, this involved close examination of how well the logic of the method was matched to the research question posed. In this case, I observed how the intended curriculum was interpreted by EFL teachers in their actual classroom teaching. This exploration of the enacted curriculum by means of classroom observations provided valid evidence in relation to the research problem under study.

Moreover, validity involves asking how valid the data analysis is and the interpretation on which it is based (Mason, 1996). According to Mason, validity of interpretation in any form of qualitative research is contingent upon the end product, including a demonstration of how that interpretation was reached. This meant that I needed to trace the route by which I came to my own interpretation of issues. To attain the aforementioned three validity criteria, I described the basis of the observation schema (COLT) from which I interpreted a set of observations within the unique Chinese setting. As well, I explained how I wove the data together to produce an interpretation of how specific occurrences in the observation data could be perceived as being demonstrative with regard to the actual curriculum implementation at the tertiary level. I continually and attentively justified the steps through which my interpretations were made in order to strengthen the validity.

### ***Data Collection Procedures***

This study involved collecting both quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative data consisted of EFL teacher surveys in six universities of Xi'an city. Qualitative data

consisted of interviews with policymakers and administrators, and classroom observations of and follow-up interviews with EFL teachers. As each source of data has its own strengths and weaknesses, Patton (2002) recommended that multiple sources of information be used in data collection “because no single source of information can be trusted to provide a comprehensive perspective” (p. 306). Therefore, triangulation in data collection for this study enabled me to compensate for the strengths and weaknesses of each data source and to validate and cross-check my research findings.

The data collection was conducted for a period of over three months, from May 7 to August 18, 2004. I collected the survey data first from the EFL teachers in the six universities in May and June. Classroom observations of and interviews with the two EFL teachers were conducted in June. Then the interviews with administrators followed from late June until early August. I conducted the interviews with policymakers in July.

The following section describes each data collection procedure. Quantitative data of teacher surveys is presented first. Qualitative data from interviews with policymakers, administrators, and teachers, and classroom observations then follows.

### ***Survey Data Collection Procedures***

I conducted the data collection for teacher surveys in the following steps. First, for the ethics review, I obtained signed approval letters from the department heads of each of the six participating universities. Second, upon my arrival in Xi’an, I made phone calls to the department heads to decide upon an appropriate time for the survey. To avoid conflicts in schedules, I arranged my visits one week before the actual survey. I suggested that an announcement be posted on the department bulletin boards to inform the teachers of the seminar times and locations.

Third, on the day of each survey I delivered a research seminar in the staff conference room of each university (except one university whose teachers were attending professional development courses that day) to the EFL teachers who had agreed to participate. The presentations lasted approximately one hour. To address the ethical issue that there might be a power relationship between department heads and their teachers, the department heads were asked to leave the conference room right after the research seminar, thereby leaving only the teachers in the room to fill out their questionnaires. Fourth, during the administration of the surveys to the teachers present, I explained the procedures in detail and provided them with adequate time to confirm whether or not each of them wished to participate. Through introductory letters, information about my research was provided, and consent forms were also issued to potential respondents (see Appendix K). Respondents who had agreed to take part were asked to sign their consent forms before completing the questionnaire and I instructed them to place the consent forms and questionnaires in separate envelopes to guarantee confidentiality. The participation was voluntary and anonymous. It took the EFL teachers 25 to 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

I left extra copies of questionnaires with the department heads of four universities because some teachers from those universities were unable to attend due to teaching or other commitments. I informed the department heads of the procedures required to complete the questionnaires, and invited them to distribute the questionnaires during their faculty meetings. I eventually collected the questionnaires in July and August after teachers had completed and submitted them to the department heads.

### ***Interview Data Collection Procedures***

Interview data collection was conducted between June 21 and August 11, 2004. Interviews with administrators and policymakers took place alternately. This meant that I interviewed some department heads in Xi'an and then travelled to other cities to interview national policymakers when they were available. After that I travelled back to Xi'an to resume the interviews with the department heads. I started the interviews with the department heads first. As they were busy, I had to make two or three phone calls to reconfirm their appointments. Despite my efforts, two department heads had to cancel the scheduled interview time repeatedly due to some urgent meetings in their department or their university. They felt embarrassed and apologized for changing their interview time. I had to rearrange my schedule five times before I was able to complete the interviews.

For policymakers, I intended to approach six who lived in five different cities of southern and northern China. These policymakers were representatives from the Higher Education Department of the Ministry of Education, the College English Syllabus Revision Team, the Material Development Team, the National College English Testing Committee, and the National College English Teaching and Research Association. The first four organizations were the key policymaking bodies for college English education at the national level. The last organization was a semi-official academic body chiefly engaged in academic activities nationwide. After much effort, I finally managed to interview five out of the six respondents. I conducted the interviews with them in three cities of Nanjing, Hangzhou, and Shanghai in July, in accordance with their research schedules at home and abroad. I failed to get in touch with the official from the Ministry

of Education, who was busy with commitments of curriculum reform and therefore unavailable during my visit.

Before interviewing the administrators and policymakers, I informed them of my research purpose and obtained their agreements (see Appendix L). All the interviews were conducted in a venue of their choice; for example, in a conference room, in the office on the university campus, or at their home. Interviews with administrators lasted 45 to 60 minutes and those with policymakers 50 to 90 minutes. With their permission, each interview was tape-recorded. Although these participants were all professors of English with fluent oral English proficiency, they unanimously opted for the usage of Chinese when left with the choice of conversation language. Therefore, the whole interview was conducted in Chinese with only occasional use of English words, phrases, or sentences whenever necessary to explain or elaborate key points.

To gain a better understanding of the rationale behind teachers' decision-making in language classrooms, I conducted two face-to-face interviews each with two EFL teachers. The initial one was a more informal, conversational interview, which revolved around demographic information regarding their education, learning experience, and teaching experience. It took place in a teachers' lounge and lasted 10 to 15 minutes.

The second interview was a formal one, more structured and in-depth. It centred on the teachers' experiences in following the 1999 Syllabus and their perceptions of various issues with regard to the curriculum implementation in their language classroom. Particularly, this interview focused on inquiring about teachers' rationale for employing various instructional strategies in their teaching. For example, I asked them questions as to why they conducted teaching in the ways that they did.

Each formal interview lasted 50 to 60 minutes and was conducted mainly in Chinese (Mandarin), with English words, phrases, or sentences only added when the interviewees felt a need for clarification or elaboration. The interviews were held in the staff meeting rooms on their university campuses. The two EFL teachers were given pseudonyms, coupled with an indication of whether they taught English at a large or small university. Again, with the permission of the two participants, the interviews were tape-recorded.

### ***Observation Data Collection Procedures***

I adopted what Patton (2002) referred to as “unobtrusive observations” (p. 291) or non-participant classroom observations in collecting observation data. Out of ethical considerations, I first informed the two EFL teachers of my research purpose and obtained their permission (see Appendix M) to enter their classroom to collect observation data. Then I worked out an observation schedule with each teacher. Final arrangements were confirmed about the location of each class period and the content of their instruction.

Classroom observations with the two EFL teachers lasted from June 7th to the 23rd, 2004, and the lessons observed with each teacher included ten teaching periods of 50 minutes each. Both teachers were teaching freshmen at the time when the observations took place. I chose them due to the fact that those teachers who were teaching sophomores were all preparing their students for the approaching national CET. They stopped regular textbook teaching for the whole month of June and devoted each class teaching period to simulated tests for the CET. Assuming that there was not much to be observed during these drill sessions (an obvious washback phenomenon), I focused my

attention on the normal teaching practice of the two teachers teaching freshmen, who were not allowed to take the national College English Test (Band 4) in their first year of language studies. I anticipated that I would be able to observe typical delivery of English teaching which was not affected by the pressures of CET.

Altogether, five classroom observations were carried out with each teacher, Lily and Sally (pseudonyms), within a span of two weeks. During each time slot, there were two class teaching periods, each lasting 50 minutes. My decision to observe 10 teaching periods from each teacher was based on the requirement of completing one unit of the “Reading and Writing” component in two weeks, consisting of eight teaching periods. I observed a whole unit of teaching, from the explanation of a text to the completion of the corresponding exercises. Both teachers were able to conduct two teaching periods for the “Listening and Speaking” component every week in the course of my observation. In the process, I was able to obtain a comprehensive overview of teachers’ classroom instruction.

During the observations, I followed my observation guide (see Appendix J), concentrating on the content in the syllabus to see how the intended curriculum was interpreted by these EFL teachers. For each classroom observation, the teacher was the focal point of interest, and her interactions with students were also observed. I particularly focused on the local teaching context to find out if contextual factors in terms of the physical features of the classrooms and the students themselves played any role for teachers in their classroom teaching. I taped the sessions using a Sony Mic’n Micro M-100MC cassette recorder in order to document the actual classroom interaction between teachers and students. To facilitate observations and remedy the limitations in audio



recording, such as teachers' gestures and facial expressions, I decided to take field notes to record what I heard, observed, or felt as each lesson progressed. I also took the time to write down any thoughts that occurred to me during the observations. Moreover, I recorded my reflections following each observation session, in order to minimize any disruptive influence that I might have on the classroom environment.

### *Data Analyses*

This section describes quantitative data analysis of teacher surveys first, followed by the qualitative data analyses of interviews with policymakers, administrators, and teachers, and finally analysis of classroom observations of EFL teachers.

#### *Survey Data Analysis*

The survey data consisted of a sample of 248 cases altogether. After receiving the completed questionnaires from the EFL teachers from each university, I coded the quantifiable data and entered the responses to the 64 questionnaire items into a computer file employing SPSS 12.0 version. To guarantee the accuracy of the data entry, I double-checked the SPSS file to identify any missing data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). I used dummy coding to show participants' genders, and entered ordinal scales in terms of participants' educational qualification. I also entered the continuous data requested from the participants in terms of age, years of teaching, teaching hours, and class sizes.

Norušis (2002) pointed out that a careful examination of descriptive statistics brings about a better understanding of the raw data. Therefore, I applied descriptive statistics (see Appendix N) for all questionnaire items, including mean, median, mode, standard deviation, range, minimum, maximum, skewness, and kurtosis to gain a sense of what teachers' response patterns looked like. This process enabled me to check for

mistakes in the data entry by identifying outliers from the display of data output. The survey data were also subjected to a number of statistical analyses intended to address the two research questions posed in this survey study.

To address the research question—How is the intended curriculum interpreted by classroom teachers?—I calculated the EFL teachers' implementation activity scores (Section C in the questionnaire) from their responses on a five-point Likert scale. There were 14 statements placed in random order on a five-point Likert scale of degree of agreement or frequency: "5 = strongly agree," "4 = agree," "3 = neutral," "2 = disagree," and "1 = strongly disagree," or "5 = always," "4 = often," "3 = sometimes," "2 = seldom," and "1 = never." This scale represented a particular value, namely, 5, 4, 3, 2, or 1, respectively. The responses to each statement from each participant were added and then each participant was given a score, namely, an implementation score, to indicate his or her fidelity to the implementation of the college English curriculum in the classroom. I anticipated that a high score on the scale would imply more fidelity to the curriculum implementation and that a low score would suggest low fidelity.

To make sure that the 14 statements were made understandable to the participants, I purposely devised both positive statements, i.e., statements consonant with the syllabus, and negative statements, i.e., statements inconsonant with the syllabus. Positive statements were scored 5 for "strongly agree" down to 1 for "strongly disagree." For negative statements, I would reverse the scoring. This meant that I would score negative items 1 for "strongly agree" up to 5 for "strongly disagree" when I computed the scores.

To understand the general tendency of the implementation activities, I calculated descriptive statistics for the total implementation scores of 14 items on the whole

samples, including mean, median, mode, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis (see Appendix N). I calculated the reliability coefficients to determine the internal consistency. Moreover, I summarized teachers' curriculum implementation scores through demonstrating three groups: the high implementers (the top 19%), the intermediate implementers (the middle 64%), and the low implementers (the bottom 17%).

To address the research question—What perceptions do teachers have about the college English curriculum and its implementation?—I carried out three steps in the analyses. First, I employed exploratory factor analysis to identify EFL teachers' perceptions about the external factors (Section A in the questionnaire) and the internal factors (Section B) which might exert some impact on their curriculum implementation. Kline (1994) argued that the aim of exploratory factor analysis is “to explore the field, to discover the main constructs or dimensions” (p. 7) that explain the intercorrelation matrix. Since my study did not intend to test any hypotheses and the number of factors and their loadings were unknown, this analysis was fundamentally exploratory in nature. In addition, the rationale for conducting such analysis is that previous studies have identified these factors as influencing curriculum implementation in the ESL or EFL context. However, this does not necessarily mean that these factors are the ones which would truly impact the EFL curriculum implementation in the Chinese tertiary context. Therefore, the purpose was: (1) to identify the external and internal factors discussed in the literature and confirmed in the focus group discussion, and (2) to reduce the number of variables to a smaller and more coherent set of derived factors for subsequent multiple regression analysis.

Stevens (2002) asserted that with a sample size of 200 a factor loading of .70 is deemed statistically significant. Hair et al. (1998) also contended that a minimum factor loading of  $\pm .30$  is considered practically significant and viewed as an initial acceptance of items into a Factor. Accordingly, the cut-off for meaningful loadings to be interpreted was set at .30. That is, loadings below .30 from the data were deleted without being displayed in the results table and were not counted towards any factors. Specifically, for both the external and the internal construct, principal components analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was conducted. Since there was no particular hypothesized number of factors, I set the criterion based upon the conventional principle of accepting eigenvalues of one or greater than one for retaining and interpreting factors (Borden & Abbott, 1988). Kline (1994) claimed that principal components analysis intends to explain all the variance in a matrix of the observed variables, both eigenvalues and percentage of total variance accounted for by each factor were computed and presented. Through the resultant factor solution from PCA, items that were loaded onto a factor were examined and each factor was subsequently labelled. Then, employing Cronbach's alpha, I calculated the reliability coefficient of the external and internal factors to assess the level of internal consistency.

Second, I calculated the mean, standard deviation, and internal consistency of each factor scale respectively under the external and internal construct through SPSS to demonstrate the pattern of the teachers' perceptions. I examined interscale zero-order correlations within each respective construct to reveal the intercorrelations among the dimensions as a result of the factor analysis. My examination was also to confirm that the choice of orthogonal rotation in principal components analysis made sense.

Third, to explore whether external or internal factors are the best indicators to predict teachers' curriculum implementation in the classroom, I conducted five multiple regression analyses using the "enter" method (Lewis-Beck, 1980; Rawlings, Pantula, & Dickey, 1998). Specifically, I conducted three multiple regression analyses on the whole sample of 248 teachers to explore the relationships between curriculum implementation and (1) external factors, (2) internal factors, and (3) combined external and internal factors. I then conducted two multiple regression analyses separately on high and low implementers to examine the relationships between external/internal factors and curriculum implementation. The exploration was intended to discover which factors as independent variables appeared to have a significant effect on the dependent variable—teachers' curriculum implementation activities in the classroom. In reporting regression results, the standard of  $p < .05$  is used to determine the significance level, and  $R$ ,  $R^2$ , unstandardized coefficients  $B$ , standardized coefficients Beta ( $\beta$ ),  $t$ -value, and significance level were reported.

In addition, to explore whether educational qualifications and teaching experiences had any effect on implementation, I performed two independent samples  $t$  tests. The first  $t$  test compared teachers with a bachelor's degree with those who held a master's degree. The second  $t$  test compared teachers with teaching experience below five years with those who had above ten years. The rationale for a 5-year and 10-year division lay in the fact that in China, tertiary teachers with five years of teaching experience are considered novice and young teachers while those with ten years are considered experienced. The purpose was to compare the means of the two groups of

teachers to see if they are significantly different from each other in terms of implementation fidelity.

### ***Interview Data Analysis***

Interview data analysis included the analysis of tape-recorded interviews with four policymakers, six administrators, and two EFL teachers. After I finished collecting all the data, I listened to the tapes once again and then translated each cassette of interviews while omitting unrelated information such as greetings or “small talk.” For those interview questions in which participants responded with English phrases, sentences, or even short paragraphs, I also transcribed them verbatim. To make sure that I translated as accurately and truthfully as possible, I invited a graduate student at the Queen’s Faculty of Education who was a fluent speaker of both Chinese and English to check ten percent of my interview data. The checking revealed that my translation had faithfully adhered to the participants’ intended meanings in the original articulations.

To organize the interview data in a meaningful way to facilitate subsequent data analysis, I highlighted each translated interview transcript with a different colour in word files. Then I jotted down themes or topics on the margins of these excerpts. Setting up several key categories of themes in a word document, I filled these different themes or topics with relevant data by cutting and pasting the excerpts from the original data set. The different colouring under each theme or topic indicated who said what about a given topic. As a result of such categorization, the data were sorted easily.

Specifically, I followed what Hatch (2002) delineated were the steps in the analysis of interview data. First, I read the data to gain overall impressions. Then I reviewed the various impressions, identified themes, and recorded them in memos. After

studying the memos for salient interpretations, I then read the data again, coding places where interpretations were supported or challenged. Finally, I identified the excerpts that supported the interpretations.

Interview data analysis in this study adopted the “interpretive model” (Hatch, 2002, p. 179) in the qualitative paradigms. By interpretive, Hatch (2002) referred to “a way to transform data that emphasizes interpretation” (p. 180). According to Hatch and other scholars (Denzin, 1994; Patton, 2002), interpretation is a defining element that permeates all qualitative research through making inferences, developing insights, attaching importance, refining understandings, drawing conclusions, and extrapolating lessons. Denzin (1994) also contended that interpretation is “a productive process that sets forth the multiple meanings of an event, object, experience, or text” (p. 504). Since researchers carry out interpretations in the research process, they make sense of the phenomenon under investigation. This interpretive analysis model was intended to link interpretation to the data in order to draw meaning from that data.

### ***Observation Data Analysis***

Analysis of the observation data in this study mainly involved combining readings of my field notes with listening to audio-taped sample lessons. Following the observation guide, I conducted the analysis as follows. In the first stage, I listened to all the lessons recorded from the two observed EFL teachers and examined my field notes. In the second stage, I reviewed my detailed field notes coupled with interviews and identified themes that emerged. I described and supported these themes with evidence from both field notes and interview transcripts. In the third stage, through analysis of lessons recorded and field

notes, I demonstrated how the curriculum policies were interpreted by the two EFL teachers.

### *Summary of Chapter Three*

This chapter has discussed the research methodology I used in the current study. First, I described the mixed methods approach employed in this study, in which research questions, rationale for the choice of the approach, and an overview of the research design are touched upon. I then discussed the sampling strategies in the selection of participants and described the profiles of the participants. I have also explained the interview protocols and the instruments used in the questionnaire surveys and the classroom observations. To conclude, I provided a detailed explanation of data collection procedures and a discussion of data analysis methods for interviews, surveys, and observations.

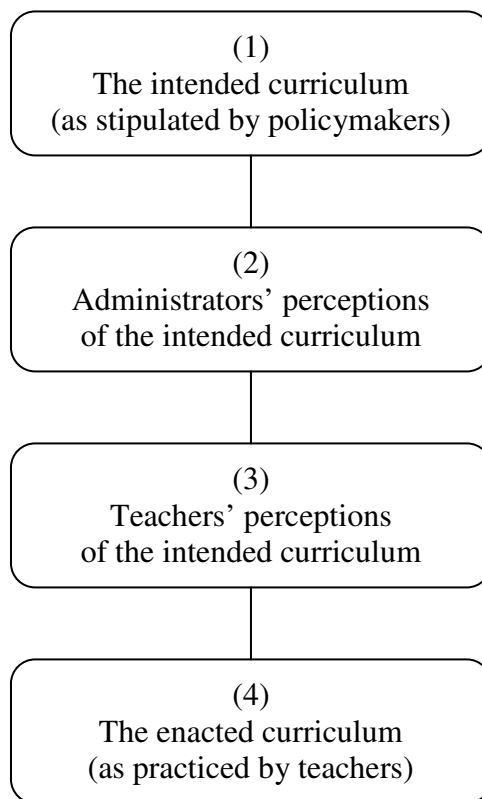
The next chapter, Chapter Four, will focus on the presentation of the research findings. It will include the results of interviews with policymakers which were conducted to ascertain the intended curriculum and results of administrator interviews which were conducted to discover their perceptions of the intended curriculum. It also includes teacher survey, classroom observation, and follow-up interview results to explore how closely the curriculum is enacted.



## CHAPTER 4

### RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter reports on the research findings and the interpretations of the study. It consists of four sections, with each section addressing one of the four research questions (see Table 4 on page 77 in Chapter Three) posed in this study. It first presents the findings of interviews with the policymakers, then the administrators, and lastly the implementers: teacher data for the implementation comprise teacher survey results, classroom observations, and interviews with two EFL teachers. Figure 6 presents a conceptual map of the findings to demonstrate how these four sections are interrelated.



*Figure 6.* Conceptual map of the research findings.

### *The Intended Curriculum*

This section presents the findings of the interviews with the national policymakers, which centre on the three most important curricular aspects of college English education at the Chinese tertiary level. These are: (1) the 1999 College English Syllabus—the blueprint guiding college English education; (2) the college English textbooks—the conduit guiding the teaching and learning of English; and (3) the national College English Test (CET) that millions of college English students take each year. Collectively, four themes emerged from the interview data: policy rationale; policy design; policy communication; and expected implementation with regard to syllabus design, textbook compilation, and CET undertaking. This section first presents a summary of the key data from the policymaker interviews, and then provides a detailed discussion on each of the emergent themes.

#### *Policymaking at the National Level*

Table 10 is a summary of the key data from the policymaker interviews. These include four themes, with each theme touching on the three aspects of the curriculum: syllabi, textbooks, and tests. One, the rationale of the policy, provides underlying justifications behind the policy documents. Two, policy design, reveals the salient characteristics unique to different dimensions of the policy. Three, policy communication, addresses what strategies are used to aid diffusion of the policy. Four, expected implementation, discusses policymakers' anticipation of the extent to which policies are executed in local universities. Each is described below.

Table 10  
*A Summary of the Key Data from the Policymaker Interviews*

Themes	Syllabi	Textbooks	Tests
Policy rationale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Needs from the higher education reform (INPM1)*</li> <li>Growing demand for English in Chinese society (INPM1)</li> <li>Improvement of students' English level (INPM4)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Increasing requirement in Chinese society for students' better English proficiency (INPM2)</li> <li>Awareness of the current problems in college English teaching and learning (INPM2)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Examination of how the syllabus is implemented (INPM3)</li> <li>Evaluation of English teaching and learning (INPM3)</li> <li>Collection of feedback from test results to improve teaching (INPM3)</li> </ul>
Policy design	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>More emphasis on cultivating students' communication skills (INPM1)</li> <li>Change from specialized reading to subject-based English (INPM1)</li> <li>Higher requirement beyond the CET (INPM1)</li> <li>Promoting learner autonomy (INPM1)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Learner-centred: Focus on students in classroom teaching (INPM2)</li> <li>Topic-based approach: Focus on topics in classroom teaching (INPM2)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The CET representing the syllabus (INPM3)</li> <li>Offering test results to individual universities as a guidance (INPM3)</li> </ul>
Policy communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Expert seminars in summer training programs (INPM1)</li> <li>Discussions among department heads and directors (INPM1)</li> <li>Teachers given a copy of the syllabus (INPM1)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Expert seminars in summer training programs (INPM2)</li> <li>Discussions among trainees (INPM2)</li> <li>Model teaching (INPM2)</li> <li>Microteaching among trainees (INPM2)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Publishing and distributing testing syllabus (INPM1)</li> <li>Circulating sample tests (INPM3)</li> <li>Internet exposure of authentic CET papers (INPM3)</li> </ul>
Expected implementation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Teachers' working knowledge of the syllabus (INPM1/4)</li> <li>Teachers' thorough understanding of the syllabus (INPM1/4)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Adopting learner-centred approach in teaching (INPM2)</li> <li>Following the topic-based teaching model (INPM2)</li> <li>100% use of English and little or no use of Chinese in classroom teaching (INPM2)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Voluntary participation of universities and students in taking the CET (INPM3)</li> <li>Bringing about positive washback effect on teaching (INPM1/3/4)</li> </ul>

*Note.* INPM stands for interviews with policymakers: 1 refers to policymakers from the Syllabus Team, 2 from the Textbook Team, 3 from the Testing Team, and 4 from National College English Teaching and Research Association. They indicate from where the data were collected.

The analysis gleaned from the policymaker interview data revealed that all four policymakers unanimously expressed positive perceptions of college English curriculum development: in particular, the 1999 Syllabus, the textbooks employed by considerable numbers of universities, and the college English test taken by millions of students each year. They deemed these policies “appropriate to the Chinese context” (PMIN01SY05)<sup>7</sup> and “reflecting the reality of college English teaching and learning” (PMIN03TE04). All of them saw the policies as “promoting Chinese language education” and “enhancing collaborative learning in students” (PMIN02TB07).

Moreover, they acknowledged that policymaking regarding college English education at the national level was, in 2004, still very centralized in the Ministry of Education. This centralization, to a large extent, determined what and how college English teaching and learning should be conducted and developed at the tertiary level. They uniformly said that the Chinese characteristic of exceedingly centralized and hierarchical government influence exerted a substantial impact on every dimension of college English education. Syllabus design and test reform were particularly affected in this respect. Material development seemed exempt from government manipulation in what and how textbooks should be compiled. Nevertheless, the direct operating organization, the Foreign Languages Section under the Higher Education Division of the Ministry of Education (for details about college English education administrative structure, see Figure 1 in Chapter One), affected language education through recommending textbooks to universities across the country. This recommendation from the government in fact signified administrative interference in the decision-making

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<sup>7</sup> This abbreviation and others in this chapter means: PM for policymaker; IN for interview; 01 for first participant; SY for syllabus; 05 for page number in interview transcripts; TB for textbooks; TE for tests; AS for the association.

regarding textbook selection. The four policymakers declared that, as policymakers, they were expected to reflect government ideology when making college English education policies. Otherwise, any specific language policies such as syllabus and assessment would not be approved by the government and further disseminated to the local institutions of higher learning. The following section discusses each emergent theme.

### ***Policy Rationale***

This theme pinpoints the underlying justifications behind the national policies on college English education in terms of syllabi, textbooks, and tests. Although each dimension seemed to have its own distinctive rationale for why a certain policy was specified, one common feature surfaced. That is, substantial influence from the Chinese government, the Ministry of Education in particular, directed college English education in accordance with national development needs and social demands.

***Syllabi.*** The syllabus as a guiding curricular document played an important role in formulating college English education at the tertiary level in China. Evidence of its value was apparent in the interview data with the policymakers. Professor An from the Syllabus Team listed two reasons in designing the 1999 Syllabus. The first was higher education reform, which forced the National College English Teaching Advisory Committee (i.e., the Syllabus Team) to revise the previous two syllabi, from 1985 (for students of sciences and engineering) and 1986 (for students of arts and sciences). She pointed out that the expansion and merging of many Chinese universities in the 1990s, which were then being transformed from simply including departments of sciences and engineering to more comprehensive institutions comprising departments of arts, sciences, engineering, management, commerce, and medicine (PMIN01SY01), lent support to such curricular

innovation. The second reason, Professor An emphasized, was the societal demands that set increasingly higher requirements for university graduates' English proficiency. The previous substantial concentration on cultivating students' reading skills at the expense of listening and speaking abilities appeared inadequate under the changing circumstances. This deficiency in students' actual command of English stood out prominently when employers sought potential employees.

Professor Ding from the Teaching and Research Association added a third reason; that is, students' English proficiency had improved since the first two syllabi were adopted in the 1980s. This improvement made it possible for the Syllabus Team to raise the standard of the syllabus objectives. However, while acknowledging the necessity of a gradual improvement in the college English education objectives, Professor Ding cautioned that this improvement should be based on the actual teaching and learning situations in China and should be carried out gradually. He stated,

From 1985 and 1986's syllabi, we have made tremendous progress in the past 15 years or so. We have seen the social progress in this aspect too, and we felt that we needed to put forward higher requirements concerning college English teaching. However, Chinese tertiary education has its limitations. This means that it was inappropriate for the syllabus to set requirements or objectives too high. (PMIN04AS04)

In fact, the underlying impetus for syllabus innovation implied that language education at the tertiary level closely followed the overall national needs, which demonstrated the government's political agenda. Internationally, China set goals for itself to be strong and advanced in the new millennium in terms of its economy and military force, and foreign language was deemed a means to attain those goals. Domestically, China needed advanced science and technology from foreign countries to help her accelerate the development. In this role, university students and graduates as the

country's backbone are expected to be proficient in the English language in order to increase international exchange. To this end, the syllabus objective embodied the political agenda.

***Textbooks.*** Professor Ban from the Textbook Team explained the rationale for compiling college English textbooks, for which she was the general editor. She ascribed the first reason to the need for students' increased English proficiency. This change necessitated that university graduates not only have better reading proficiency but also become more competent in listening, writing, speaking, and translating to and from English. Associated with this change, enhancing students' communication skills in English was emphasized to such an extent that students with a better oral ability in English would potentially be more competitive in the job market. The second reason, Professor Ban asserted, was the recognition of problems in college English teaching and learning in most universities. To her, the quandary resided specifically in teaching models and in the textbooks used. Professor Ban clearly acknowledged that the previous textbooks, coupled with their corresponding teaching models, inhibited rather than facilitated students' actual command of English in everyday communication. Furthermore, they undermined students' potential to be effectively involved in international academic exchanges.

### ***Policy Design***

This theme centres on the policy design of college English education at the tertiary level. Features unique to the characteristics of each policy, namely the 1999 Syllabus, the college English textbooks, and the CET, are identified and discussed.

*The 1999 Syllabus.* Professor An from the Syllabus Team revealed four salient features unique to the 1999 Syllabus. The first was that, in the objective statement, more emphasis had been put on cultivating students' reading, listening, writing, speaking, and translating skills. These communication skills, according to Professor An, were comprised of three elements. They were: (1) students' ability to communicate in English; (2) students' familiarity with the culture of the target language and ability to compare it to their own culture; and (3) students' ability to participate in diverse academic community activities such as international conferences.

The second feature was the change from the narrow concept of specialized reading to the wider concept of subject-based English. Professor An contended that subject-based English required college students not only to read materials in their own field of study, but to participate in international academic exchanges. This also included subject-based knowledge of English in terms of reading, listening, speaking, writing, and translating, the five language skills. The third feature was improvement of the basic requirements and higher requirements<sup>8</sup> for all college English students. The Syllabus required that students should improve their English proficiency from the basic requirements of College English Band 4 to the higher requirements of College English Band 6 during their four years of language studies in university.

The last, but not least, feature was the promotion of a new learning philosophy in the design of the 1999 Syllabus which strongly encouraged and developed students' autonomous learning. Professor An explained that learner autonomy was addressed in the syllabus design for those universities and teachers who chose to be more innovative in

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<sup>8</sup> The 1999 Syllabus states: college English students who have successfully completed the first four bands are considered to have met the basic requirements, whereas those who have passed Band 6 are considered to have met the higher requirements.



their college English teaching. Based on the passive learning habits that Chinese students possess, she stated that this autonomous learning perspective would encourage students to be more independent and proactive rather than exclusively dependent on teachers.

The syllabus was designed to advise teachers not only to focus on reading and listening, but also on writing and speaking. I perceive that from the course design, teaching requirements, instruction hours, specifications of each language skill, vocabulary inventory, and functional-notional category described in the syllabus document, the policymakers intended to provide a comprehensive guideline of what needed to be taught in order to achieve the syllabus objectives.

*Textbooks.* The data from the interview with the textbook designer, Professor Ban, demonstrated the innovative trend of the new teaching principles in the design of the current textbooks. These books had been published after 1999, the year the revised syllabus was released, by a prestigious publisher and used by hundreds of Chinese universities. Professor Ban described the learner-centred approach advocated in using these textbooks as the centring of language teaching and learning activities on students. Endorsing the learner-centred approach also diminished the conventional practice of English teachers lecturing during most of the class time, instead encouraging student participation. Teachers were intended to become facilitators, organizers, or moderators rather than absolute classroom instructors (PMIN02TB03). Meanwhile, a topic-based approach focused more on developing students' comprehensive skills and actual command of English by integrating all language skills into topics. Professor Ban elaborated,

When we designed a topic, listening, speaking, reading, and writing would all focus on this topic. In this way, we intended to enrich students' knowledge on a

certain topic. With this richness in language, students are able to express themselves with the obtained knowledge instead of taking a little bit here and a little bit there, which made it hard to piece things together. This topic-based model suggests that all the texts and all the language skills centred on a certain topic. Students listen to materials on this topic, read materials on this topic, speak and write on this topic, classroom activities, and exercises all centred on this topic. (PMIN02TB01)

Professor Ban from the Textbook Team maintained that through such an approach, students would become better language users in due course through practice and would therefore more easily become familiar with different topics.

As textbooks dictate what has been taught in the classroom, the policymaker from the textbook team appeared to target the syllabus objectives to a greater extent. This policymaker ardently advocated putting students in the centre of teaching activities in order to cultivate students' communicative skills. This learner-centredness was in fact a real challenge to traditional Chinese ways of instruction, where teaching had always taken the form of front-lecturing, with the students sitting and listening silently. This new approach broke with conventional practice; students were expected to be active players in classrooms with more student interaction.

*Tests.* The four policymakers praised the explicit link between tests and syllabi, “that the CET is the best measurement of the syllabus” (PMIN01SY04), and “that the CET truthfully reflects the reality of college English teaching” (PMIN03TE04). Accordingly, the design of the CET strictly embodied the objectives in the syllabus. Two policymakers, Professor Cen and Ding, informed me that, in keeping with these objectives, reading remained the most significant part of the test because it was deemed to be the most needed skill for graduates to use in the workplace in the Chinese context. They explained that in the CET reading took up 40% of the total 100 points, listening

20% and writing 15%. Other test items included vocabulary and structure with 15% and cloze test or error correction with 10% respectively in the CET-4 and the CET-6.

Moreover, Professor Cen from the Testing Team disclosed that a few supplementary test items had been added to both the CET-4 and the CET-6 since the 1990s. These new test items included dictation, translation from English to Chinese, and short answer questions (for details about the CET, see Chapter One). The rationale behind this modification was the policymakers' desire that more attention should be paid to subjective instead of objective items, which largely comprise multiple-choice questions. Even with the modification, the percentage distribution in the CET implied the relationship and tendency between the different language skills. The tendency signalled the importance of reading, just as Professor Cen from the Testing Team confirmed: "realistically, reading is still the main priority in our college English education" (PMIN03TE06).

From the interview data, I concluded that the test formats and content did measure what had been required in the syllabus. To be more exact, the syllabus objectives of "a relatively high level of competence in reading, and an intermediate level of competence in listening, speaking, writing, and translating" were fully interpreted and embodied in the distribution of language skills in the test format. These policymakers had faithfully designed the testing policy to be in line with the Chinese teaching and learning situation.

### ***Policy Communication***

This theme discusses the critical importance of the communication strategies that are used to facilitate the dissemination of the policy among the various stakeholder groups: the Ministry of Education, policymakers, administrators (university department

heads), teachers, and publishers. Syllabi and textbooks are discussed together below as they share common practices in communication effort in the Chinese context. The test is dealt with separately.

*Syllabi and textbooks.* The policymaker interviews revealed that both the syllabus and textbook teams adopted similar strategies when disseminating the policies. Both Professor An from the Syllabus Team and Professor Ban from the Textbook Team mentioned that the Higher Education Division of the Ministry of Education and publishers conducted expert seminars in official summer training programs. As far as syllabus dissemination was concerned, the Higher Education Division required university department heads or directors in charge of college English teaching to attend the training sessions. Experts such as syllabus designers were invited to lecture on the syllabus design which they also discussed with the audience. The administrators were also asked to provide teachers in their university with copies of the syllabus so that the latter could read them.

Likewise, for textbook dissemination, the publisher of Professor Ban's compiled textbooks organized similar functional seminars. Teachers who were intending to use, or who were already using, the textbooks were invited to participate. During the training, textbook compilers, for example, Professor Ban from the Textbook Team and other designers in this team lectured on the teaching principles and the recommended approaches when delivering the lessons. In addition, the textbook compilers provided model teaching and the trainees were invited to practice the techniques. Professor Ban commented on the indispensable role that teachers played in executing the teaching principles promoted, stating that "If teachers believe in the principle, students will

become more interested in such learning. If teachers truly understand the underpinnings of our teaching principles, students will have better performance in learning” (PMIN02TB04).

*Tests.* The interviews with the policymakers indicated that communication of the assessment policy was accomplished through publishing sample tests, which were circulated and purchased by individual colleges, universities, and students. Actual CET papers were also posted on the Internet. Professor An from the Syllabus Team and Professor Ding from the Teaching and Research Association spoke about the critical role that both national and provincial college English teaching and research associations had played in providing input resulting in the modifications of test formats, as well as the communication of test changes to the local institutions. They maintained that these associations offered a forum for the exchange of ideas and the discussion of language-related issues.

Policy communication in China, then, appeared to perform in a top-down manner, with each hierarchical section passing down the policies in terms of syllabi, textbooks, and tests to its subsequent subordinates. This strategy is characteristic of dissemination practice in the Chinese context, where the Educational Ministry disseminates the innovation to one tier after another. However, one problematic consequence embedded in this practice is the unlikelihood of generating any teacher ownership or commitments (Kennedy, 1987; White, 1988), as teachers may consider the innovation to be the business of policymakers rather than of themselves. The data from teacher surveys, observations, and interviews also confirmed that teachers tended to regard the innovation

as the government's responsibility and therefore failed to take an initiative in the process of implementation themselves.

### ***Expected Implementation***

This theme shows the policymakers' conceptualization of how national language policies in terms of syllabi, textbooks, and tests were expected to be implemented in universities as well as in classrooms.

***Syllabi.*** The interviews with Professor An from the Syllabus Team and Professor Ding from the Teaching and Research Association revealed that the Syllabus Team expected teachers to faithfully implement the syllabus. This expected fidelity also implied teachers' working knowledge and thorough understanding of the syllabus. Teachers were also expected to develop students' communication abilities as advocated in the syllabus. However, these two policymakers acknowledged that college English teachers appeared to lack a clear knowledge of the 1999 Syllabus. They explained that teachers' heavy workloads and limited time contributed to this deficiency. Also, despite the fact that the Syllabus was officially published in 1999, most teachers did not receive copies until 2000 or 2001. Teachers were attempting to engage in teaching under the revised syllabus but demonstrated a lack of sufficient preparation time for the innovation. Therefore, Professor An pointed out that teacher training was the biggest challenge in the implementation process. She added that college English teachers had heavier workloads and larger classes due to the expansion of undergraduate enrolment in universities since the late 1990s. As a result, teachers rarely had the opportunity to pursue their professional development, such as working on higher degrees, attending training programs, or going

abroad to complete graduate studies. This situation also contributed to the undermining of teachers' fidelity to syllabus implementation.

**Textbooks.** Professor Ban (from the Textbook Team), as the general editor of the nationally-employed textbooks, expected classroom teachers to follow the recommended learner-centred and topic-based approach in conducting their classroom teaching. What she meant by “learner-centred” was that students were to be more active in the classrooms and that teachers should talk less. “Topic-based learning” referred to the textbook design, in which each unit dealt with one topic, e.g., love, college life, learning skills, language, gender difference, etc. After learning each unit, students became familiar with each topic. From her own and other teachers' experiences in teaching with her set of textbooks, Professor Ban said,

If teachers can change their perceptions of language teaching and learning, they can teach the course well. If they fail to conduct the class according to the teaching principles recommended by the textbooks, their classroom teaching may not produce the desirable results. (PMIN02TB03)

She also spoke about the critical role of classroom teachers and considered it a daunting task to change the perceptions of teachers and students. She stated,

What is most salient about our textbooks is that teachers have to change their perceptions of teaching, and that students also have to change their perceptions of learning. Language learning is unique and different from learning math or physics. This perception must be changed. (PMIN02TB04)

Professor Ban firmly asserted that successful use of the textbooks relied more on teachers' faithful adoption of the learner-centred and topic-based approach than anything else. She emphasized that teachers who used her textbooks were encouraged to use English entirely and to use Chinese very little or not at all when conducting classroom teaching. This would help create a favourable language environment in which students

would have the fullest exposure to English and which would in turn help strengthen students' feel for the language and help develop their abilities to listen, speak, read, and write.

*Tests.* Professor Cen from the Testing Team claimed that the CET had been stipulated to be voluntarily taken. From his point of view, the non-compulsory nature of the test discouraged an exclusive focus on the CET passing rate. In addition, the Testing Team discouraged the ranking of universities nationally or provincially. More importantly, the Testing Team insisted that the improvement of college English teaching and learning be the ultimate goal. As a primary policymaker in designing the CET, Professor Cen sincerely expected that releasing the test results could bring about positive effects on college English education. He maintained,

We strongly oppose sheer seeking of the CET passing rate. To be against this practice, we have been using codes to publish CET results and have never released a certain university's CET passing rate to other universities. ... The testing results provided by the testing centres were sent to each individual university. We hope that these universities could compare and contrast their students' performance on different language skills such as listening, different years' of students' performance, etc. We gave a large amount of information about testing results to each individual university so that they could use the information to guide their teaching. (PMIN03TE06)

### *Summary*

This section has presented the key data from the four policymaker interviews. The results revealed four themes regarding college English education at the Chinese tertiary level: policy rationale; policy design; policy communication; and expected implementation in relation to syllabi, textbooks, and tests. To sum up, all the policymakers agreed that the intended curriculum had not been formulated for the purpose of being concrete and specific, but rather as a more general guideline functioning



purely as symbolic guidance to teachers' classroom instruction. Policymakers expected that administrators would follow the abstract guidelines and that teachers would conduct their instruction in accordance with these guidelines. The next section will present the findings of the administrator interviews.

### ***Administrators' Perceptions of the Intended Curriculum***

This section reports the research findings of the interviews with the six administrators. The data analysis revealed four themes regarding the administrators' perceptions of the intended curriculum: the syllabus as teaching guide, perspectives on textbooks, the washback effect of the CET, and the role of teacher training in implementation. The theme of the syllabus as teaching guide discussed the need for the syllabus and teachers' knowledge of the syllabus. The theme of perspectives on textbooks revealed some of the problematic effects arising from textbook use in classroom teaching. The theme of the washback effect of the CET detailed the impact that the college English test exerted on its main stakeholders—teachers and students. The final theme, the role of teacher training in implementation, described the efforts that the administrators made to facilitate their teachers' implementation of the proposed curriculum.

This section first presents a summary of the key data from the administrator interviews, and then expands on each emergent theme.

### ***Policy Administering at the Departmental Level***

Table 11 summarizes the major findings from the administrator interviews. It centres on the three most important aspects of the intended curriculum in college English education: syllabi, textbooks, and tests.

Table 11

*A Summary of the Key Data from the Administrator Interviews*

Themes	Perceptions
The syllabus as teaching guide	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A need for the syllabus at the national level</li> <li>• Most useful for textbook compilers and test designers</li> <li>• Less value for ordinary EFL teachers</li> <li>• Teachers' lack of adequate knowledge and clear understanding of the syllabus</li> <li>• Teachers' lack of interest in the syllabus</li> <li>• Syllabus being too ambiguous, general, and abstract</li> </ul>
Perspectives on textbooks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Textbooks embodied the syllabus;</li> <li>• Textbooks divorced from the syllabus requirement;</li> <li>• Huge mismatch between textbooks and the CET;</li> <li>• Gap between textbooks and mandatory teaching periods.</li> </ul>
Washback effects of the CET-4	<p>Positive washback effects of the CET:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Urged university to attach importance to college English teaching and learning;</li> <li>• Increased college English teachers' status;</li> <li>• helped teachers to be accurate in teaching English;</li> <li>• Pushed students to work hard on English learning.</li> </ul> <p>Negative washback effects of the CET:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High-stake impact on university: ranking of university;</li> <li>• High-stake impact on teachers: teaching to test; evaluation on teachers based on students' CET performance;</li> <li>• High-stake impact on students: failure to obtain diploma without the CET; difficulty to find jobs.</li> </ul>
The role of teacher training in implementation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Teacher training as essential in implementation process;</li> <li>• Limited training programs available to teachers;</li> <li>• In-university training programs: new teachers' short-term training, mentor system, collective lesson preparation, at-post training, domestic expert seminars, and foreign expert training class;</li> <li>• Out-of-university training program: going abroad, out-of-post training, publishing press training, and attending academic conferences.</li> </ul>

The overall findings revealed that the administrators interviewed had certain autonomy and flexibility in administrating the national language policies at the departmental level. This reflected the fact that local rules and regulations had been laid down in each respective university, some of which loosely followed the national policies

and others of which were more prescriptive. For instance, some university authorities and department heads listed specific CET passing rate requirements for their university and for each teacher, while others did not. The administrators asserted that local universities should design their own regulations, if not policies, within the national policy framework (ADIN02LU01; ADIN02MU01)<sup>9</sup>. They said that the regulations made in their universities were based on “the reality of the university” (ADIN02LU01) and were “clear and straightforward” (ADIN02LU01; ADIN01SU01). Among the various aspects of the intended curriculum goals, all six administrators strongly attributed the college English test as the most influential factor in their implementation of the national language policies.

Specifically, all six administrators indicated an implicit assumption of the necessity of having a national syllabus to guide college English teaching and learning. They saw the syllabus as more valuable for textbook compilers and test designers than for classroom teachers. Four administrators said that teachers lacked sound knowledge about the syllabus. They also denounced the syllabus as “too ambiguous” and “too general and too abstract” (ADIN02MU04; ADIN02SU03).

Although textbooks represented the syllabus to a great extent, the administrators said that discrepancies existed between textbooks and other curricular elements. They saw the textbooks as being divorced from the syllabus requirements, in terms of listening and speaking in particular. They criticized the disparity between the textbooks being used and the college English test. They also acknowledged the gap between the textbooks and the mandatory teaching periods for the college English course. With these discrepancies,

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<sup>9</sup> This abbreviation and others in this section means: AD for administrator; IN for interview; 01 for the first university and 02 for the second university; LU for large university; MU for medium university; SU for small university; 01 for page number in interview transcripts.

they acknowledged the difficulty for their teachers to teach the textbooks in the way that policymakers expected.

With regard to the impact of the college English test on teaching and learning, all administrators pointed to the advantages that the CET brought to universities, teachers, and students. However, they were outspoken about the more negative influence that this test exerted on its main stakeholders. The negative impacts included ranking of universities, teaching to the test, evaluation of teachers' performance based on students' CET results, and the close causal relationship between the CET and students' graduation diploma. Not supportive of this nationwide practice, they wished the CET to be anchored to a more explicit and functional regulation in local universities. They unanimously concurred that the most important endeavour was to strengthen teacher training, because the training would facilitate teachers in their professional development to better implement the intended curriculum. For this reason, all administrators had undertaken various measures such as engaging their teachers in in-university and out-of-university training and professional development programs.

### ***The Syllabus as Teaching Guide***

This theme discusses the administrators' perceptions of the 1999 College English Syllabus (referred to as the 1999 Syllabus in the following discussion). Within the theme, the points include need for the syllabus and teachers' knowledge of the syllabus.

***Need for the syllabus.*** All administrators said that they realized the need for a national syllabus. They identified the "indispensable role that the syllabus has played in college English education" (ADIN01LU02) and regarded it as "a guide" (ADIN02MU03)

that was “functional in leading college English teaching and learning in the right direction” (ADIN02LU04). Administrator B spoke of this nationwide necessity:

Nationally, we need such a syllabus at the macro level to guide our teaching. Without it, there would be no guidelines in directing college English education. Nor is there any measurement standard in teaching and learning. ... without the syllabus, our teaching will be aimless. (ADIN02LU04)

In addition to this need, Administrator B stated that “the syllabus is more useful for those who compile textbooks and those who design tests” because “these people need the syllabus to guide their work” (ADIN02LU04). She elaborated:

Textbook compilers, when they design the textbooks, need the syllabus to measure the difficulty of vocabulary. When they select texts for each band, they need to consider the degree of difficulty of each text or the length of each text to avoid being excessively easy or difficult for a certain band. In addition, in each unit, designers need the syllabus to decide on key words. ... If you [textbook designers] design a test but don’t have a syllabus, how would you [designers] judge whether the test meets the standard? I believe that there is definitely a need for a national syllabus. (ADIN02LU04)

According to her, the English textbooks and tests used were designed based on the syllabus; they linked teachers who used textbooks in their teaching and students who took the CET with the syllabus in an indirect way.

The administrators appeared to value highly the syllabus for its theoretical and practical usefulness at the national level. They said that the role of syllabi was of more significance to people at the policymaking level than at the user’s level. In terms of the syllabus use for teachers, divergent views were expressed by Administrators B, D, E, and F. They said that the syllabus had less value for ordinary classroom teachers, claiming that there was no need for teachers to possess a syllabus. Administrator F considered the syllabus “impractical” (ADIN02SU02). Both Administrator B and E acknowledged that for teachers “the only practical part is the requirements of vocabulary, reading speed, and

listening speed. These parts may direct our [teachers'] classroom teaching to a certain extent and are useful" (ADIN02LU04; ADIN01SU02). Four administrators admitted that lack of practical applications contributed to teachers' lack of interest in gaining knowledge of this curricular guideline.

*Teachers' knowledge of the syllabus.* Only two of the six administrators said that they thought that their teachers had an adequate knowledge and a clear understanding of the syllabus. Administrator C stated that "Teachers are pretty clear about the Syllabus [of 1999] because each teacher had a copy of it during the past years" (ADIN01MU02). Administrator A assumed that teachers in her department "*should be* [author's italics] clear about the 1999 Syllabus," because they had "organized meetings to talk about the changes in the Syllabus, and teachers *should be* [author's italics] clear about the change" (ADIN01LU02). These two administrators assumed that once the syllabus was distributed to teachers, and if it were often discussed at staff meetings, teachers should therefore become familiar with it.

However, the other four participating administrators acknowledged that their teachers were not familiar with the 1999 Syllabus. They said that, although the teachers all had the syllabus in hand, they actually did not know much about its content except for a few teachers who had conducted research on some aspect of it. Administrators were clear in their responses that teachers in their departments lacked working knowledge about the syllabus. Administrator B commented,

To be quite honest, more responsible teachers really read the syllabus carefully. ... Most teachers probably even didn't read the syllabus, except that there is a group meeting. However, how much they know clearly about the syllabus is hard to say. For example, they may read a few lines and quote what is written in the syllabus when they write papers. This is what they probably do. Many young teachers didn't even touch the syllabus. (ADIN02LU03)

Likewise, both Administrators E and F commented that their teachers, especially their young teachers, were “unclear about the syllabus.” Administrator F contended that “although each teacher is given a copy, some may only take a quick look at it after class, and the syllabus is actually put on the bookshelves after being distributed to them.” (ADIN02SU02).

Administrator D said that she thought that the teachers’ lack of knowledge about the syllabus was due to their lack of interest. She frankly admitted that, as an administrator, she herself was not interested in the syllabus although she knew that she should be. She contended that “the descriptions in the syllabus are ambiguous” (ADIN02MU04). For example, she questioned what “comparatively skilful in communicating with people” in the syllabus meant to those who read it. The ambiguity made it difficult for both administrators and teachers to accurately interpret the syllabus. In addition, she criticized the syllabus as being “too general and too abstract” (ADIN02MU04). She cited an example, “there is a vocabulary inventory in the syllabus, which indicates that a certain word belongs to Band 4 or Band 6. Who can understand clearly why a certain word belongs to Band 4 or Band 6?” (ADIN02MU04) Four administrators stated their dissatisfaction with the syllabus; hence the value of the syllabus as a teaching guide had been diminished.

### ***Perspectives on Textbooks***

This theme discusses the use of college English textbooks in relation to the syllabus, the CET, and the required teaching periods. The main points are: the embodiment of the syllabus in textbooks, the discrepancy between textbooks and the CET, and the gap between necessary textbook usage and limited teaching time.

*The embodiment of the syllabus in textbooks.* Five out of the six administrators said that the syllabus had been embodied to a great extent in the current textbooks, especially in terms of vocabulary requirements and micro-skills in reading.<sup>10</sup> They reported that the different sets of textbooks used in their universities covered most of the vocabulary inventory in the 1999 Syllabus; therefore, vocabulary was “best represented” in the textbooks (ADIN01SU02).

However, Administrators B and F commented that other aspects of language skills in the syllabus were not sufficiently embodied in textbooks. For example, in terms of writing, listening, and speaking, the current textbooks “failed to include sufficient content.” Administrator B found that no corresponding exercises in the textbooks addressed listening and speaking skills as advocated by the syllabus (ADIN02LU05). The consequence was that teachers would be likely to overlook the cultivation of students’ communicative proficiency. This suggested that, in this aspect, textbooks had not attained the syllabus objectives.

*The discrepancy between textbooks and the CET.* Half of the administrators articulated that a large discrepancy existed between textbooks and the CET. Teachers taught with “good textbooks that were not suitable for the CET” (ADIN02LU05), and said that, as a consequence, students lost interest in learning from them. This gap “dwarfs the textbooks” (ADIN02LU05) and resulted in “the difficulty for teachers to teach and for students to study the textbooks” (ADIN02SU03). Administrator B mentioned one set of listening and speaking textbooks that they were using; she considered it well-compiled

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<sup>10</sup> Micro-skills in reading refer to the following reading skills set out in the 1999 Syllabus: recognizing important facts, determining the main idea, drawing logical conclusions, making sound judgments, making accurate inferences, and making generalizations. They also include reading attack skills such as scanning, skimming, guessing unknown words, looking for the common reference in word chains, using language signals to predict while reading, etc.



in terms of cultivating students' communicative abilities. However, since these textbooks were not appropriate for preparing students for the CET, they were not highly valued by either teachers or students. She commented,

Sometimes a set of textbooks is very well compiled based on the syllabus and is very helpful to enhance students' actual command of English and to promote quality education. However, the CET, this "magic rod" dwarfs these textbooks. Students don't like to learn such textbooks at all, saying, "What's the use of learning these textbooks? What is learned is not what is tested." So I tell you, sometimes completely compiled textbooks based on the syllabus may not be suitable for our students. (ADIN02LU05)

Administrator F pointed out one specific disparity between the exercises in the college English textbooks and the test formats in the CET, as a result of which, students were unprepared when confronted with different CET formats. Administrator F declared, "When students sit for the CET, there is no relationship between what they have learned from the textbooks and what is tested on the CET. They fail to gain the testing skills from studying textbooks" (ADIN02SU03). She also criticized the speaking content in these textbooks, saying that there was a mismatch between the content in the textbooks and the CET Spoken English Test. She stated:

There are many speaking exercises in "Listening and Speaking." But the requirement that students with 80 points in the CET-4 can only take the CET Spoken English Test has made most of our students inaccessible to this test. The textbooks entail speaking from students, but how many of our students are able to take the oral test? Our university has only less than 10 percent of students who can get over 80 points in the CET-4. (ADIN02SU03)

Obviously, the mismatch resulted in most students losing interest in studying the textbooks and being reluctant in participating in classroom speaking activities.

*The gap between textbook usage and limited teaching time.* Of the five or six teaching periods in the college English course each week, four teaching periods (each teaching period is 50 minutes) were devoted to "Reading and Writing" in all six

universities (see Chapter One, College English textbooks). In contrast, listening and speaking only took up one or two teaching periods per week. This meant that for a whole term of the 17-week college English course, listening and speaking took up only 17 teaching periods in total, even though the textbooks contained much more listening and speaking content to be completed within the term. All administrators said that the mandatory teaching periods made it impossible for teachers to finish the assigned instructional tasks. Administrator F commented:

The “Listening and Speaking” textbooks that we are using are very good, especially the speaking part. But for university students, there is only one period of listening class each week, and there is way too much content to cover in so limited time. There are altogether 16 units in listening and speaking. We have 17 weeks in each term, which means that we have to finish one unit within 50 minutes. This is a very difficult task, as teachers have to teach both listening and speaking. Speaking alone has to take up 30 class periods to get the whole content covered. ... So, in each listening unit with Part A, B, C, D, and home listening, we only can finish Part A in one class period of 50 minutes, and there is no time for us to do more listening. That’s why the textbooks are not very practical [in terms of matching teaching periods]. (ADIN02SU03)

Administrator F said that this gap between textbooks and the mandatory teaching time forced teachers to ignore the improvement of students’ communicative competence. Hence, what teachers did was to instruct students on testing skills, such as how to improve listening skills in order to pass the CET listening comprehension test.

### ***Washback Effects of the CET***

This theme centres on the various impacts of the College English Test on curriculum implementation. Based on the administrators’ perceptions, the findings cover mainly two aspects: positive and negative washback effects of the CET.

***Positive washback effects of the CET.*** All six administrators unanimously endorsed the CET. Some claimed “There are definitely benefits in the college English

test” (ADIN02LU05), and they considered the benefits “obvious and clear” (ADIN01MU03) and “unquestionable” (ADIN02MU02). They stated that the complaints about the CET as being “not objective” lacked validity. They said that the CET had played a very important role in college English education and its reforms. They concurred that the values of the CET were threefold with regard to language teaching and learning at the tertiary level: (1) the CET forced universities to pay special attention to college English teaching; hence the school authority attached more importance to the college English course; (2) the CET facilitated the increase in the status of EFL teachers; and (3) the CET motivated students to work harder on their English proficiency.

The administrators welcomed the nationwide practice of the CET; without it, they argued, college English teaching would not have been on the universities’ administrative agenda. Administrator C stated, “If there is no such test, who cares about college English teaching?” (ADIN01MU03). Compared with other public courses such as College Mathematics and College Physics, because of the CET the College English course had attracted extensive attention from university authorities since 1985 in all institutions of higher learning. Administrator E added, “[our] school authority has paid so much attention to college English teaching. With better CET results, the reputation of a university will improve, and teachers’ reputation will improve as well” (ADIN01SU02).

According to all administrators, the biggest contribution of the CET was that the status of college English teachers was notably improved. Compared with the teaching for English major students, college English teaching for non-English majors was deemed “secondary” for many years and so, accordingly, were college English teachers. This “secondary” status of college English courses and their teachers also had an impact on the

calculation of their workloads and salaries. In some universities, when calculating teachers' workloads, college English courses were only counted as 0.8/period rather than as a full period. This meant that a ten-class teaching period a week was computed as eight class periods, thus devaluing college English teachers' instruction in comparison to their counterparts who taught English majors. However, the college English test changed the conception that college English was easy, and that to teach college English required less competence. Hence, the CET had contributed to the improvement of the status of college English teachers, and college English teachers' workloads are no longer computed as before.

Administrator D emphasized that the CET forced college English teachers to be more accurate when speaking English in the classroom. She explained,

It [the CET] helps teachers to speak standardized English. Some teachers speak English with grammatical mistakes, but after analyzing sentence structures or something, teachers obviously master standardized English and know why English is expressed in this way. In your [teachers'] regular teaching, you [teachers] can't go to such details. You [teachers] simply talk about it [text] generally. ... When teachers explain the text, even if they know 50% of the content, they still can explain the text. But when teachers explain the test, teachers must know 100% in order to explain clearly to their students. I feel that the test is a higher requirement for teachers' teaching. If you [teachers] can tell why the answer is A instead of B, then it is obvious that teachers have improved their comprehensive ability. (ADIN02MU05)

Administrator D cautioned that many EFL teachers failed to realize the significant role the CET had played in their teaching. She personally believed that "the contribution of the test is indispensable no matter who is against it" (ADIN02MU05).

As far as students are concerned, all administrators interviewed reported similarly, that "the CET is a kind of motivation for students and this motivation has pushed students to learn English" as "it is a standard measure on students' learning." They mentioned that

for Chinese students, who tended to be passive learners, the CET was pivotal.

Administrator C emphasized that “students have to work very hard to pass it, which is not a bad thing at all” (ADIN01MU04).

*Negative washback effects of the CET.* While recognizing the benefits that the CET brought to its main stakeholders: universities, teachers, and students, all administrators acknowledged the negative impact arising from this test. They found that the merit of the CET was often overshadowed by its negative consequences. These negative consequences were that the high-stakes CET resulted in: (1) the ranking of universities nationally and provincially; (2) forcing teachers to teach to the test; and (3) pushing students to focus primarily on the test.

All administrators said that the mandatory nature of the CET in their universities was a negative thing. The national language policies clearly stipulated that the CET was voluntary for both universities and students, and that the purpose of the CET was to assess whether college English teaching was being conducted in accordance with the requirements of the College English Syllabus. However, the administrators noted, “There is still ranking going on in private” (ADIN01LU04; ADIN02MU02). Administrator A reported, “Each year, our province has released a document to each university with clear ranking results of our provincial universities” (ADIN01LU04). This ranking had brought immense pressure to every university in the province. She expressed her dissatisfaction with this practice, saying “There shouldn’t be such a thing as ranking universities whatsoever nationally and provincially” (ADIN01LU04).

Administrator D admitted that the ranking of universities in the province based on the CET results had made the low passing rate of her university salient, which was

“embarrassing and losing face” and “incompatible to the status of our university in the province” (ADIN02MU03). Therefore, to be better ranked provincially, all administrators organized large-scale simulated test practice before the CET although they were reluctant to do so. They unanimously reported that they had adopted the practice of providing mock examination papers in their departments for students who were taking the CET that year. For about six or seven weeks before the CET, teachers started to help students prepare by administering simulated tests in each university. Administrator C disclosed that her university had “stopped teaching the textbook [Book Four] and administered ten tests altogether after covering about half of the content required to teach” (ADIN01MU03).

Administrators A, B, E, and F pointed to the negative impact of the CET on college English teachers. The impact, they listed, included “teaching to the test” (ADIN02LU06; ADIN01SU03; ADIN02SU04), “making classroom teaching difficult” (ADIN01LU03), and “weakening teachers’ language proficiency” (ADIN02SU04).

The above four administrators stated that as long as the testing went on, teachers would teach to the test. Administrator F reiterated her opinion that “teaching to the test is unavoidable as long as tests exist” (ADIN02SU04). She also said that the high-stakes college English test forced teachers to commit too much instructional time to what appeared on tests because students’ CET performance was one of the important factors in teachers’ evaluation. Administrator B said that because of the CET, teachers were found to focus, not on students’ actual command of English, but on testing skills. Administrator E echoed her standpoint on this phenomenon of “teaching to the test” in her university, stating,

Teachers' classroom teaching centres on the goal of helping their students pass the CET. So classroom activities that teachers organize are closely connected with this goal. Teachers focus their teaching on what will be tested in the CET, for example, how to guess the unknown word. Without such a test, teachers would not teach that test content. (ADIN01SU03)

In addition to "teaching to the test," the administrators interviewed revealed their belief that the CET prevented teachers from following the intended curriculum closely.

This caused frustration and confusion in many teachers about what they should or should not teach in the classroom. Administrator A emphasized,

In fact, many people think that the CET makes the classroom teaching difficult, because if you [teachers] don't teach CET content in the classroom, students may not want to attend your [teachers'] class attentively as they want to practice the CET. If you teach CET content, there is really nothing more to teach in the class. The CET pushes students to do simulated tests. If you [teachers] tell them [students] answer keys, students already have those answers. As a result, students skip the English classes and work on their own. ... At the end of the second term, many students apply for sitting in the CET-4 held in June. They may not come to class attending to their teacher's instruction. They are not very much motivated to study the textbooks and may not pay attention to the textbooks. In the third and fourth term, more students take part in the CET-4, which results in more students skipping English classes. This greatly interferes with the regular teaching schedule. (ADIN01LU03)

Not only did the focus on the high-stakes CET make classroom teaching difficult, but classroom teaching was also constrained by the CET. Administrator F said that college English teachers had to complete the mandatory teaching task within the limited five or six teaching periods each week for college English students. To do so, college English teachers felt that they had no alternative but to make sacrifices in certain areas in order to prepare their students for the CET. Administrator F stated,

It's very likely that teachers can't display their own personal styles in teaching [because of the CET]. For example, some teachers are interested in literature or English poetry, in which some students might be interested too. However, these teachers can't add more content in addition to the textbooks. They must teach according to the content of the textbooks. In this way, they can't demonstrate their own teaching styles. Their teaching is restricted within the boundaries of the

textbooks to the extent that teachers have to finish their teaching task. (ADIN02SU04)

Furthermore, Administrator F argued, “the CET does not provide much benefit for college English teachers” (ADIN02SU04). She contemplated that teachers’ language proficiency weakened due to many years of teaching CET content. She provided her opinion as to why such a decrease occurred.

After a few years of teaching the CET-4, teachers’ spoken English has decreased and their overall English proficiency has decreased. ... There is no atmosphere to speak English [in the college English classroom]. If you speak more English, students will not understand you. You have to write every word that you have said on the blackboard. If you don’t write, students can’t understand you. ... So, if teachers teach like this for a long time and meanwhile they do not have the opportunity to further their studies, their language proficiency will be decreased without doubt. (ADIN02SU04)

All administrators recognized that the most direct impact of the CET was unquestionably on students. These administrators were outspoken with regard to the consequences that the CET brought to its main stakeholder—students. They said that students’ failure in the CET resulted in their failure of obtaining a bachelor’s degree, although students could get a graduation certificate. The connection between the CET and diploma jeopardized students’ career prospects. The administrators claimed that the CET was too closely linked with the job market. If students failed to pass the CET, many employers would not consider recruiting them. Moreover, employers had put special emphasis on the CET certificates. Administrator E added, “For many *danwei* [i.e., employers], the CET-4 certificate is the minimum requirement for students to sign a contract. Without the CET-4 certificate, students are not able to get a job. Students are under great pressure, and so are teachers” (ADIN01SU03).



Due to the value of the CET certificate in the job market, students saw this test as of prime importance and tried every means to pass it. Administrator A contended, “There is some negative effect if students target this test as the goal. If they pass, they don’t work hard on this [college English] course. They come to class only focusing on passing the CET-4 through doing simulated tests” (ADIN01BU04). Administrator B also acknowledged the negative impact of the CET on student learning, stating, “Generally speaking, the CET is not good for our students because it weakens students’ quality education but strengthens test teaching. Students learn English for the sake of tests. They don’t learn English for the sake of learning English well” (ADIN02LU07).

### ***The Role of Teacher Training in Implementation***

This theme discusses the administrators’ perceptions of the various in-service teacher training programs being offered to help facilitate teachers’ implementation of the intended curriculum. The interview data revealed the most commonly adopted forms of teacher training at the tertiary level: in-university training and out-of-university training. In-university training referred to the training programs organized inside the university. They included new teachers’ short-term training, mentoring, collective lesson preparing, at-post training, domestic expert seminars, and foreign expert training classes. Out-of-university training referred to the training programs that teachers attended in other universities, provinces, or countries. This included going abroad, out-of-post training, publishers’ training sessions, and attending academic conferences.

Table 12 presents a summary of the in-service training programs offered in the departments of the universities where the six administrators worked. Among the 10 programs discussed by the administrators, the first six are about in-university training

while the last four are out-of-university training. The texts in the boxes showing “yes” or “no” refer to the availability of the program, with “yes” indicating “available” and “no” “unavailable.” During the interviews, the administrators simply mentioned these programs without offering further explanations, and neither did I ask the nature of these training programs.

Table 12

*A Summary of the Teacher Training Programs in the Administrators’ Universities*

Universities Content	Large University A	Large University B	Medium University A	Medium University B	Small University A	Small University B
1. New teachers’ short-term training	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
2. Mentor system	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
3. Collective lesson preparation	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
4. At-post training	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
5. Domestic expert seminars	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
6. Foreign expert training class	Yes	No	No	No	No	No
7. Sending teachers abroad	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No
8. Out-of-post Training	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes
9. Publishers’ training sessions	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
10. Attending academic conferences	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

***In-university training.*** All administrators said that teacher training was crucial in facilitating teachers’ implementation of the curriculum proposed by the national policymakers. They reported that EFL teachers’ quality and degree of professionalism should be improved (ADIN02LU10; ADIN02MU08). The quality training included language proficiency, classroom management, teaching methodology, assessment

practice, computer-assisted teaching, and more importantly, their sense of responsibility and devotion to education.

Specifically, they said that mentoring, at-post training, and domestic expert seminars were very effective in assisting teachers to implement the curriculum. They endorsed the mentoring and regarded it as an exceptionally effective and successful measure for novice teachers. They found it “phenomenal” to “help young teachers in particular get into their workplace with more confidence” (ADIN02SU05). The primary responsibilities of the mentors entailed: observing classes, supervising lesson planning, and guiding research.

Each associate professor or teacher with a master’s degree is a mentor for two or three young teachers. Their [mentors’] tasks are to observe young teachers’ classroom teaching, supervise their teaching, etc. Also, mentors are requested [by the department] to supervise the young teachers on writing research papers. If a paper is published in a journal, these mentors will be rewarded [in monetary value]. (ADIN01SU01)

All administrators reported that they strongly encouraged novice or young teachers in their department to “learn at post.” This “at-post training” meant that young teachers with an undergraduate degree undertook formal graduate studies in their department while working full-time. This also referred to part-time graduate students. The two large and two medium universities had their own graduate programs so that their college English teachers were able to “learn at post,” i.e., teaching full-time and doing a degree part-time. Since college English teachers had heavy workloads in terms of teaching periods and class sizes, working on a graduate degree could be challenging for many teachers. Teachers have to pass the national unified graduate student entrance examination, which is extremely competitive and includes tests of three major courses in addition to political studies and a foreign language. Administrator A said, “We have more

than 10 teachers who have graduated from such a program and still have more than 10 who are now studying in this program” (ADIN01LU06). The two small universities did not have their own graduate programs; their programs were in collaboration with other universities in the city.

All administrators indicated that their departments regularly invited experts from all over the country to offer EFL teachers seminars on topics related to language teaching and learning and with issues of how to conduct research. While Administrator D reported that this kind of lecture broadened teachers’ vision, Administrator A and B expressed their reservations as to its usefulness. Administrator B contended that such lectures seemed not to be very helpful to their teachers, asking, “How much help does a one-shot lecture give to our teachers?” (ADIN02LU08). Administrator A had invited foreign experts to her university and arranged for all English teachers to be in the training classes. But Administrator A also noted negative responses from staff in her university: “teachers are not very motivated to attend. Teachers don’t feel the urgent pressure to improve, or they may feel these lectures are not practical, or not very useful to them now” (ADIN01LU06).

Moreover, five administrators reported that the main academic activity with regard to textbook implementation was collective lesson preparation organized in the teaching and research groups in a department. This meant that each teacher in a group prepared a certain lesson and demonstrated it to the whole group, showing background information, teaching method, the key language points, discourse analysis of the text, and so on. Administrator E said that this collective lesson preparation expanded in content when the national CET was approaching. Teachers would get together in each

department; analyzing students' learning and discussing strategies to help students pass the test. While some administrators deemed it as a useful group activity, Administrator A said that this group lesson preparation produced unsatisfactory results in her department although it had been conducted for quite some time. Therefore, they changed this model to more de-centralized teamwork. He said, "Now within the teaching and research group, we have divided teachers into six teams with an associate professor or a senior lecturer as a team leader. They are responsible for the activities held in the team, for example, teaching preparation, arrangement, coordination, and so on" (ADIN01LU06).

*Out-of-university training.* The interviews with the administrators revealed that it was extremely difficult to send EFL teachers either abroad or to other Chinese universities for graduate degrees or for professional development. One reason was the shortage of funds in the department; the other reason was teachers' heavy workloads. According to the six administrators, the most popular out-of-university training programs were the summer workshops sponsored by publishers. The workshops were usually five-day training sessions held every summer for EFL teachers who were using the textbooks published by a specific publishing company. Typically, six or seven experts in the language field lectured on language teaching and learning theory, and discussed the design principles of their textbooks and the structure of the textbooks. Model teaching and micro-teaching were also included in the training. While recognizing the "symbolic" feature of this short-term workshop, Administrator C asserted that "for new teachers, this training is helpful. At least, the lectures from the experts broadened new teachers' vision" (ADIN01MU05).

However, Administrator B, E, and F suggested that this kind of summer workshop was in fact too “commercially-oriented,” (ADIN02LU08; ADIN01SU04), because “if you use their textbooks, the publishers will train your teachers each year” (ADIN02SU05). Otherwise, they would not spend money to send teachers to scenic cities such as Hangzhou, Shanghai, or Chengdu to conduct the training. These administrators said that the publishers were more intent on having universities use their textbooks than on actually training teachers.

### *Summary*

This section has presented the administrator interview findings. The results illustrated the four themes regarding college English education at the Chinese tertiary level: the syllabus as teaching guide, perspectives on textbooks, washback effects of the CET, and the role of teacher training in implementation.

From the data, the administrators differently interpreted the curriculum policies proposed by the national policymakers and formed their own understandings. They perceived a mismatch in each of the three important curricular aspects: syllabi, textbooks, and tests. First of all, the administrators complained that the syllabus as teaching guide was designed in an unfavourably ambiguous, general, and abstract way. This ambiguity created confusion for them as the conduit between policymakers and teachers to accurately interpret and faithfully implement the intended curriculum. Because of this vagueness and ambiguity, these administrators showed a lack of interest in the syllabus. They also informed me that their teachers demonstrated an inadequate knowledge and understanding of the syllabus.

Second, the administrators felt that discrepancies existed between textbooks and the syllabus, the test, and the mandatory teaching periods. They claimed that these gaps inhibited their understanding of the intended curriculum and eventually affected its implementation. Some of what was included in the textbooks such as communicative skills in the form of listening and speaking exercises was not incorporated into the college English test. The worst consequence was that “good textbooks” were not highly valued and welcomed by teachers and students, because they were divorced from the test. As well, too much content had to be covered in their limited teaching periods, which resulted in teachers focusing more on imparting testing strategies to their students than on developing students’ good command of language.

Third, the administrators expressed disapproval of the college English test. In their unanimous opinion, the negative washback effects of this test outweighed the positive ones. They blamed the use of the test for the secret ranking of universities, which put them under immense pressure, as leaders in charge of college English education. Between universities, there was much competition for higher passing rates, in order to attract better students. Within the universities, they observed teachers teaching to the test and students seeing the test as the sole purpose for learning English. From their perspective, a more self-regulated assessment mechanism in each individual university should be established to offset the disadvantage that the test has brought to its main stakeholders.

Finally, all administrators pinpointed the role of teacher training as indispensable in facilitating teachers’ fidelity to curriculum implementation. They postulated that if policymakers intended to lead teachers to follow the proposed policies, the most

beneficial way was by virtue of in-service training. However, they acknowledged that such training programs were unfortunately unavailable to most teachers due to the fact that support mechanisms in terms of material, financial, and human resources were not in place in all six universities. To sum up, the perceptions of the administrators towards the college English curriculum and its implementation seemed to diverge from the intentions of the policymakers. The next section will present the findings of the teacher surveys.

### *Teachers' Perceptions of the Intended Curriculum*

This section presents the research findings of the teacher surveys. It first describes the treatment of missing data, and then it discusses descriptive statistics and reliability of the three constructs of the survey instrument. This is followed by the presentation of the factor analysis results for both external and internal factors influencing teachers' curriculum implementation. Finally it describes the relationships between the curriculum implementation and the external and internal factors, based on standard multiple regression analysis.

#### *Missing Data*

There were 251 responses in total, out of which three cases were deleted before any data analyses were conducted. One participant chose answer number five (strongly agree) in all answers to the 58 items while leaving Section D, the demographic information, blank. This carelessness and obvious lack of seriousness made this participant an ineligible respondent. Another participant did not fill in page two on the survey, resulting in having four missing items in Section A and 19 missing items in Section B. The third participant had four missing values in Section B, accounting for 13.3% of the total number of the variables for this section. Since factor analysis was



conducted separately for each measure of the two constructs, the responses that were provided from these three participants were not entered into the SPSS file of the data sets. In the end, the total valid number of respondents was 248 cases for this study.

A careful preliminary examination of the 248 entered cases demonstrated that there were few missing data cells. Out of the total number of responses to the 64 items in the questionnaire (amounting to 15,872 responses in total), there were only 45 missing items. This suggests that the missing values represented only 0.28%, which is comparatively low based on the 0.7% criterion in accepting missing data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The data entry also revealed that the missing data were randomly located and that there was no apparent pattern of missing responses. According to Gorsuch (1974), the existence of missing data is not a concern in conducting simple data analyses such as descriptive statistics. However, to conduct more complicated data analyses such as factor analysis and multiple regression analysis, missing data can lead to misleading results if individual items or a certain entire section of a survey have not been filled out by the participants. Therefore, in order for quantitative analyses to be conducted, before factor analysis and multiple regression analysis were performed I replaced all the missing data cells with the mean score of the corresponding variables to make full use of the available data. The advantage of such mean substitution is that the normal distribution is not changed or distorted in statistical analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

### ***Descriptive Statistics and Reliability***

To assess the extent to which scale scores were normally distributed, descriptive statistics of all the variables including mean, median, mode, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis were run to better understand the raw data of the 248 cases in the

study. Since missing data were not anticipated to affect the results when simple statistics analysis was conducted (Gorsuch, 1974), this analysis consisted of the original data entered from the eligible respondents. The results of the descriptive statistics data are presented in Appendix N.

Reliability coefficients were calculated separately for each section, employing Cronbach's alpha. It turned out that an alpha coefficient of 0.64 was found for the external factors, 0.79 for the internal factors, and 0.59 for curriculum implementation activities in the classroom. Compared with the reliability coefficients from the pilot study of 0.56, 0.67, and 0.56 respectively, the internal consistency of each construct in this main study was increased to an acceptable level of reliability (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). Table 13 presents the results.

Table 13

*Reliability Results of the Three Sections in the Survey*

Sections	Reliability Coefficients	Items
The External Factors	.64	14
The Internal Factors	.79	30
The Implementation Activities	.59	14

***Demographic Information***

Demographic information in the survey study consisted of the following teacher characteristics: gender, age, educational qualifications, number of years teaching, number of teaching periods per week, and average class size. Among the 50 universities and colleges in urban and suburban areas of Xi'an city, I chose six universities to survey: two large, two medium, and two small, representing the top, average, and below average-ranked Chinese universities. The participants for the survey were drawn from the EFL

teachers from these six universities, representing a teacher population of approximately 60 to over 100 in each respective institution. The six participating universities comprised about 10% of the university teacher population in Xi'an, and the universities' student populations ranged from 6,000 to 9,000. The teacher-student ratio approached 1:100 in all the participating universities.

From a total number of about 450 EFL teachers from these six universities, 248 surveys were returned, representing over 55% of the teacher population. Table 14 presents a summary of the profiles of the survey participants.

As seen from the table, of the total number of 248 respondents 193 were females (78%) and 55 were males (22%). This ratio is comparable to that of the college English teaching workforce in China as a whole. Female EFL teachers constitute over 80% of the language teachers' workforce in the foreign language departments in most of the Chinese universities and colleges. Their ages ranged from 22 to 59, with 121 respondents (49%) between 21 and 29, 84 respondents (34%) between 30 and 39, 33 respondents (13%) between 40 and 49, and 8 respondents (3%) between 50 and 59. Of the group, 83% of the survey participants were teachers under 40 years old.

Table 14

*Demographic Descriptions of the Survey Participants*

Variables	N = 248	%
Gender	N = 248	
Female	193	77.8
Male	55	22.2
Age	N=246	
21-29	121	49.2
30-39	84	34.1
40-49	33	13.4
Over 50	8	3.3
Educational Qualifications	N=246	
B.A.	137	55.7
Advanced Teacher Training Certificate	20	8.1
M.A.	84	34.1
M.Ed.	5	2.0
Teaching Experience	N=246	
1-4 years	98	39.8
5-9 years	52	21.2
10-14 years	52	21.1
15-19 years	23	9.4
Over 20 years	21	8.5
Required Teaching Hours Per Week	N = 248	
7-8 hours	93	37.5
9-10 hours	65	26.2
11-12 hours	53	21.4
13-14 hours	6	2.4
Over 15 hours	31	12.5
Average Students Per Class	N = 248	
21-29 students	5	2.0
30-39 students	33	13.3
40-49 students	70	28.2
50-59 students	62	25.0
Over 60 students	78	31.5

Their educational qualifications were as follows: 137 participants (56%) with B.A.s, 20 (8%) with Advanced/Assistant Teacher Training Certificates, and 84 (34%) with an M.A., and 5 (2%) with an M.Ed. None of the participants had a Ph.D. degree. Due to the heterogeneous nature of this group of participants, more than half of the EFL teachers in the study only had a bachelor's degree. As is reported from studies conducted

by Y. Wang (1999), college English teachers are under greater pressure compared with their counterparts of English-major teachers because they are required to teach more hours each week and have larger class sizes. The educational qualifications in this study confirmed the findings of Y. Wang (1999) and other Chinese scholars (Cai, 2003; Chen, 2003; Xia, 2002).

As far as their teaching experience was concerned, 98 participants (40%) had taught for one to four years, 52 participants (21%) for five to nine years, another 52 for 10 to 14 years, 23 participants (9%) for 15 to 19 years, and 21 (9%) for over 20 years. In essence, 61% of the participating EFL teachers in the study had taught for less than 10 years, again comparable to the current teaching workforce in college English education in Chinese universities.

The teaching hours required for these EFL teachers each week indicated a diverse pattern: 93 participants (38%) for seven to eight hours, 65 participants (26%) for nine to 10 hours, 53 participants (21%) for 11 to 12 hours, 6 participants (2%) for 13 to 14 hours, and 31 participants (13%) for over 15 hours per week. At first glance it appears that the required teaching hours were not extremely heavy, with 64% of the participants teaching less than 10 hours a week, until the numbers of students on average in a class is presented. Fifteen percent of teachers had average class sizes ranging from 21 to 39 students, 28% had 40 to 49 students, 25% had 50 to 59 students, and 32% had over 60 students in one class. From this we can see that more than half of the participants had large classes of over 50 students.

All in all, since the participants were from six universities in the North-western part of China, the demographic information was revealing. These results not only

indicated differences in teachers' educational backgrounds, language proficiency, and teaching experience, but also suggested differences in resource support and students' language abilities; all of which can be crucial in teachers' implementation efforts.

### ***The External/Internal Factors***

This section presents the factor analysis results of the external and internal factors and the zero-order correlations of the factor scales. Principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted, respectively, on the external (14 items) and the internal factors (30 items) affecting teachers' curriculum implementation. Before the analysis was conducted, I replaced all the missing values with the mean scores of the corresponding variables to make full use of the data collected. The cut-off point was decided on a criterion of a minimum .30 factor loading (Kline, 1994) for both solutions. This means that factor loadings below .30 were deleted and not counted towards any factors.

***Factor analysis of the external factors.*** Table 15 presents the results of the factor analysis for Section A—the external factors with a five-factor solution. This solution was decided upon based on the scree diagram and the eigenvalues greater than one (see Appendix O). These five factors accounted for 60.63% of the total variance in the variables.

Table 15

*Results of Factor Analysis for the External Factors*

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
A4. Students' test scores on teaching performance evaluations	<b>.657</b>				
A5. Students' evaluations	<b>.685</b>				
A6. Colleagues' evaluations	<b>.716</b>				
A7. Departmental evaluations	<b>.715</b>				
A12. Students' English abilities		<b>.676</b>			
A13. Class sizes		<b>.806</b>			
A14. Workloads		<b>.757</b>			
A1. Test affects teaching			<b>.741</b>		
A2. Test affects learning			<b>.837</b>		
A3. Doing simulated tests			<b>.548</b>		
A8. Textbooks affect what to teach				<b>.837</b>	
A9. Textbooks affect how to teach				<b>.822</b>	
A10. Access to teaching resources					<b>.831</b>
A11. Access to audio-visual resources					<b>.802</b>
Eigenvalues	<b>2.839</b>	<b>1.865</b>	<b>1.445</b>	<b>1.278</b>	<b>1.061</b>
Percentage of the total variance accounted for	<b>20.276</b>	<b>13.320</b>	<b>10.321</b>	<b>9.131</b>	<b>7.578</b>

The orthogonal rotation (varimax) provided a clear structure. Four items, A4 (students' test scores on teaching performance evaluations), A5 (students' evaluations of teachers), A6 (colleagues' evaluations), and A7 (departmental evaluations) loaded onto Factor 1. Items A5, A6, and A7 were originally designed to measure evaluations on teachers from different aspects. Item A4 was initially designed as a variable to discover if students' test scores contribute to teachers' teaching performance evaluations by their department heads. The loading of 0.657 onto Factor 1 suggested that item A4 was more correlated with Factor 1, evaluation, than with Factor 3, test influence. This means that teachers' teaching performance evaluations included the element of students' test scores. Thus, Factor 1 was labelled *teachers' evaluations*.

Three items loaded onto Factor 2: A12 (students' English abilities), A13 (class sizes), and A14 (workloads). Items A13 and A14 were originally designed to examine whether teachers' class sizes and workloads exerted any influence on their classroom teaching. Item A12, students' language proficiency, was initially considered in the pilot study to be a kind of resource for teachers. If teachers have students with adequate language proficiency, then it was likely that these students influenced what and how their teachers taught. It loaded onto Factor 2 here to indicate that these three items were actually conditions under which teachers teach in the classroom. The extent of these conditions might affect teaching to a certain degree. Therefore, Factor 2 was labelled *teaching conditions*.

Three items, A1 (test affects teaching), A2 (test affects learning), and A3 (doing simulated tests) loaded onto Factor 3. These three items were originally intended to measure the impact of testing, as the literature has demonstrated that tests do have washback impact on teachers' teaching and students' learning (Cheng, 1999). Thus, Factor 3 was labelled *testing*.

Two items loaded onto Factor 4, A8 (textbooks affect what to teach) and A9 (textbooks affect how to teach). These two variables were originally intended to measure whether textbooks had any impact on what and how teachers taught in the classroom. Thus, Factor 4 was labelled *textbooks*.

Finally, two items loaded onto Factor 5: A10 (access to teaching resources) and A11 (access to audio-visual resources). These two items were originally intended to discover whether resource support was provided to EFL teachers to facilitate their classroom instruction. Therefore, Factor 5 was labelled *resource support*.



**Reliability and interscale zero-order correlations.** To understand the predisposition of teachers' perceptions on each dimension of the external factors and the relationships among the five dimensions, the mean, standard deviation, internal consistency for each dimension, and zero-order correlations between the five dimensions were computed. Before presenting the descriptive statistics, I added each variable score under each factor using "compute" in SPSS and obtained a scale score. Table 16 presents the results of each scale and the interscale correlations.

Table 16

*Scale Means, Standard Deviations, Internal Consistency, and Zero-order Correlations for the External Factors*

Factors	No. of Items	Scale Mean	Scale SD	Internal Consistency	Zero-order Correlations				
					F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
F1	4	14.96	2.69	.68					
F2	3	12.77	1.79	.63	.162*				
F3	3	13.52	1.51	.57	.120	.170*			
F4	2	7.75	1.68	.68	.400*	.150*	.078		
F5	2	6.86	1.81	.52	-.070	.097	.106	-.048	

*Note.* F1 = teachers' evaluations, F2 = teaching conditions, F3 = testing, F4 = textbooks, and F5 = resource support.

\*  $p < .05$ .

This revealed that Factor 1, *teachers' evaluations*, Factor 2, *teaching conditions*, and Factor 4, *textbooks* had a moderate level of internal consistency, with the reliability coefficients, Cronbach's alpha equalling 0.68, 0.63, and 0.68 respectively. Factor 3, *testing*, and Factor 5, *resource support*, had relatively low levels of internal consistency, with the reliability coefficients being 0.57 and 0.52 respectively.

Under the assumptions of orthogonal rotation, the five factors under the external construct are assumed to be statistically independent. This suggests that the analysis

would theoretically produce non-correlated factors. However, despite the assumptions, one zero-order correlation turned out to be significant. *Teachers' evaluations* was positively correlated with *textbooks* with a correlation coefficient equalling .400 ( $p < .05$ , 2-tailed) while the rest of the factors were not highly correlated with each other.

***Factor analysis of the internal factors.*** Table 17 presents the results of the factor analysis for the internal factors with the eight-factor solution. Based upon analysis of the scree diagram (see Appendix P) and the conventional practice to accept eigenvalues of one or greater as constituting the baseline criterion for interpretation of a factor, an eight-solution was decided upon. This solution demonstrated the most interpretable and meaningful solution after two, three, four, five, six, and then seven solutions were administered separately. The total variance accounted for by the eight-solution was 59.76%.

Table 17

*Results of Factor Analysis for the Internal Factors*

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8
B22. Experience helps teaching	<b>.798</b>							
B23. Teaching improves with more experience	<b>.840</b>							
B24. Teaching exchanges with more experience	<b>.784</b>							
B1. Syllabus is based on F/N concept		<b>.416</b>						
B2. Skill requirements in the Syllabus		<b>.322</b>						
B3. Objectives of the Syllabus		<b>.674</b>						
B4. Clarity of the Syllabus		<b>.596</b>						
B5. Practicality of the Syllabus		<b>.725</b>						
B6. Understanding what to teach in the Syllabus		<b>.588</b>						
B7. Understanding how to teach in the Syllabus		<b>.683</b>						
B11. Teacher training improves teaching			<b>.314</b>					
B12. Improving language teaching			<b>.790</b>					
B13. Working on a graduate degree			<b>.774</b>					
B14. Learning communicative language teaching			<b>.749</b>					
B15. Learning computer-assisted teaching			<b>.570</b>					
B16. Communicative language teaching is useful				<b>.768</b>				
B17. Comfortable with CLT method				<b>.789</b>				
B18. Using CLT method in teaching				<b>.641</b>				
B28. Provided with a mentor					<b>.755</b>			
B29. Observing colleagues' teaching for PD					<b>.773</b>			
B30. Attending workshops for PD					<b>.706</b>			
B8. Grammar-translation is useful						<b>.829</b>		
B9. Language learning influence on teaching						<b>.626</b>		
B10. Comfortable with GT method						<b>.773</b>		
B26. Speaking ability influences teaching							<b>.803</b>	
B27. Language proficiency influences teaching							<b>.806</b>	
B19. Taught by grammar-translation method								<b>.608</b>
B20. Taught by communicative language teaching								<b>.711</b>
B21. Taught by GT and CLT								<b>.686</b>
Eigenvalues	<b>5.082</b>	<b>2.530</b>	<b>2.273</b>	<b>2.106</b>	<b>1.680</b>	<b>1.537</b>	<b>1.375</b>	<b>1.344</b>
Percentage of the total variance accounted for	<b>16.940</b>	<b>8.432</b>	<b>7.578</b>	<b>7.022</b>	<b>5.602</b>	<b>5.122</b>	<b>4.582</b>	<b>4.482</b>

The orthogonal rotation provided a clear structure. Three items loaded onto Factor 1: B22 (experience helps teaching), B23 (teaching improves with more experience), and B24 (teaching changes with more experience). These three items were originally intended to measure teaching experience; therefore, Factor 1 was labelled *teaching experience*.

Seven items loaded onto Factor 2: B1 (Syllabus is based on F/N concept), B2 (skill requirements in the Syllabus), B3 (objectives of the Syllabus), B4 (clarity of the Syllabus), B5 (practicality of the Syllabus), B6 (understanding what to teach in the Syllabus), and B7 (understanding how to teach in the Syllabus). These seven items were originally intended to measure the EFL teachers' knowledge and understanding of the College English Syllabus; therefore, Factor 2 was labelled *knowledge and understanding of the syllabus*.

Five items loaded onto Factor 3: B11 (teacher training improves teaching), B12 (improving language teaching), B13 (working on a graduate degree), B14 (learning communicative language teaching), and B15 (learning computer-assisted teaching). These five items, along with another three items (B8 to B10), were initially intended to measure the teachers' professional development needs, with the first three referring to the teachers' previous professional development capacity and the latter five referring to their current needs. The factor analysis divided this theme into two factors; therefore, Factor 3 was labelled *professional development needs*.

Three items loaded onto Factor 4: B16 (communicative language teaching is useful), B17 (comfortable with CLT method), and B18 (using CLT method in teaching). These three items were originally intended to measure communicative language teaching; therefore, Factor 4 was labelled *communicative language teaching*.

Three items loaded onto Factor 5: B28 (provided with a mentor), B29 (observing colleagues' teaching for PD), and B30 (attending workshops for PD). These three items were originally intended to measure the content of teachers' in-service training; therefore, Factor 5 was labelled *professional development activities*.

Three items loaded onto Factor 6: B8 (grammar-translation is useful), B9 (language learning influence on teaching), and B10 (comfortable with GT method). These three items together with B11 to B15 were initially intended to measure teachers' professional development needs with B8, B9, and B10 specifically referring to the previous development capacity. Therefore, Factor 6 was labelled *grammar-translation method*.

Two items loaded onto Factor 7: B26 (speaking ability influences teaching) and B27 (language proficiency influences teaching). These two items were intended to measure the EFL teachers' language proficiency; therefore, Factor 7 was labelled *English proficiency*.

Three items loaded onto Factor 8: B19 (taught by grammar-translation method), B20 (taught by communicative language teaching), and B21 (taught by GT and CLT). These three items were intended to measure the language learning background of the Chinese EFL teachers. Therefore, Factor 8 was labelled *language learning background*.

Item B2 had double loadings of .444 onto Factor 1 and of .322 onto Factor 2. However, this variable examines teachers' knowledge of the syllabus and therefore was retained with Factor 2, *knowledge and understanding of the syllabus*, instead of Factor 1, *teaching experience*. In addition, item B25 had cross loadings of .383 onto Factor 1, *teaching experience*, of .303 onto Factor 2, *knowledge and understanding of the syllabus*,

and of .435 onto Factor 4, *communicative language teaching*. Since this variable produced equal weight on these three factors, item B25 was deleted.

To sum up, the factor analysis revealed that the theoretical constructs drawn from the literature review and emerging from the focus group discussion to validate the survey instrument made sense. Under the internal construct, the variables loaded onto the presumed factors, embodying the construct, although one theme (professional development) produced two factors.

***Reliability and interscale zero-order correlations.*** For the internal factors, teachers' perceptions on each dimension and the relationships among these eight dimensions were investigated. Mean, standard deviation, internal consistency for each dimension, and zero-order correlations within the eight dimensions were computed. Table 18 presents these results.

It showed that Factor 1, *teaching experience*, Factor 2, *knowledge and understanding of the syllabus*, Factor 3, *professional development needs*, Factor 4, *communicative language teaching*, and Factor 7, *English proficiency* all had a high level of internal consistency, with reliability coefficients, Cronbach's alpha equalling 0.825, 0.736, 0.700, 0.749, and 0.754 respectively. Factor 5, *professional development activities*, and Factor 6, *grammar-translation method*, had a moderate level of internal consistency, with reliability coefficients equalling 0.681 and 0.677 respectively. Factor 8, *language learning background*, had a relatively low level of internal consistency, with its reliability coefficient being 0.498.

Table 18

*Scale Means, Standard Deviations, Internal Consistency, and Zero-order Correlations for the Internal Factors*

Factors	No. of Variables	Scale Mean	Scale SD	Internal Consistency	Zero-order Correlations								
					F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	
F1	3	12.59	1.95	.825									
F2	7	24.43	4.01	.736	.345*								
F3	5	20.95	2.81	.700	.235*	.228*							
F4	3	11.61	2.18	.749	.240*	.174*	.283*						
F5	3	9.65	2.87	.681	-.004	.084	.254*	.221*					
F6	3	10.21	2.29	.677	.083	.091	.195*	-.077	.077				
F7	2	8.62	1.29	.754	.201*	.158*	.223*	.276*	.042	.073			
F8	3	9.14	2.20	.498	.086	.135*	.070	.131*	.148*	-.096	-.005		

*Note.* F1 = teaching experience, F2 = knowledge and understanding of the syllabus, F3 = professional development needs, F4 = communicative language teaching, F5 = professional development activities, F6 = grammar-translation method, F7 = English proficiency, and F8 = language learning background.

\*  $p < .05$ .

This table revealed that these eight factors were not highly correlated. The highest correlations were as follows. Teaching experience was positively linked to knowledge and understanding of the syllabus ( $r = .345, p < .05$ , 2-tailed). Professional development needs was positively correlated with communicative language teaching ( $r = .283, p < .05$ , 2-tailed); communicative language teaching was positively correlated with teachers' English proficiency ( $r = .276, p < .05$ , two-tailed). The zero-order correlation results confirmed the assumption that the eight scales of the internal factors were not highly correlated with each other.

### ***Curriculum Implementation Activities***

To understand the general tendency of the implementation activities, I identified descriptive statistics for the 14 items in Section C, including mean, median, mode, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis (see Appendix N). The reliability coefficient for teachers' curriculum activities in the classroom turned out to have a moderate level of internal consistency, with an alpha coefficient equalling 0.59. In terms of implementation score, by scoring 5, the highest mark on all 14 items is 70, indicating the highest fidelity of curriculum implementation. By scoring 1, the lowest mark is 14, indicating the lowest fidelity of implementation. Therefore, the scores fall within a continuum from 70 to 14. To reveal the EFL teachers' fidelity to the implementation, descriptive statistics for the implementation scores are also displayed (see Table 19). The mean score is 41.41, and the standard deviation is 4.74, showing quite a broad range of teachers' curriculum implementation.



Table 19

*Descriptive Statistics for the Implementation Scores*

Items	N	Missing	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
14	248	0	41.41	41	40	4.739	.170	.620

Table 20 presents a summary of teachers' curriculum implementation scores. As shown, the highest implementation score was 59 and the lowest was 28. The top 19% (47 participants as high implementers) obtained scores higher than 46 points. The bottom 17% (42 participants as low implementers) obtained scores lower than 36 points. The majority of the participants (159 participants, comprising 64%) obtained scores between 45 and 38. This suggests that those who showed both the highest and lowest fidelity to curriculum implementation were few, and that most college English teachers in this sample showed a moderate level of fidelity to curriculum implementation. This also means that a great majority of teachers (over 80%) failed to adhere to the language policies formulated by the policymakers, and that the faithful implementation expected by the policymakers was in fact not realized.

Table 20

*Summary of Teachers' Curriculum Implementation Scores*

Implementation Scores	Numbers	Percentage (%)
46-59 points	47	19
45-38 points	159	64
37-28 points	42	17

***Multiple Regression Analyses and Independent Samples T Tests***

To address the third research question (see Table 4 in Chapter Three), I further formulated four sub research questions in order to better understand which factors affect

teachers' implementation efforts. Table 21 presents the research activities related to these questions.

Table 21

*Sub Research Questions to Examine Teachers' Implementation*

Questions	Research Inquiry	Participants
1. What external factors and internal factors predict teachers' implementation?	2 regression analyses	All 248 EFL teachers
2. Which factor, external or internal, predicts teachers' implementation?	1 regression analysis	All 248 EFL teachers
3. Which factor, external or internal, predicts the implementation of high implementers and low implementers?	2 regression analyses	47 high implementers (19%) 42 low implementers (17%)
4. Do teachers' educational qualifications or teaching experiences contribute to implementation?	2 independent samples <i>t</i> tests	Teachers with B.A. (159) & Teachers with M.A. (89) Teachers with teaching experience below 5 years (120) & above 10 years (96)

To discover the most significant factors in predicting teachers' curriculum implementation, multiple regression analyses using the "enter" method were performed. The rationale was that all the yielded factors from factor analysis were exploratory. This standard regression analysis allows each independent variable to enter into the regression equation simultaneously and be evaluated in terms of what it adds to prediction of the dependent variable.

Overall, three multiple regression analyses were conducted on the sample of 248 teachers to examine the relationship between curriculum implementation and (1) five external factors alone, (2) eight internal factors alone, and (3) external and internal factors together. Two more regression analyses were also conducted separately on high and low implementers to examine the relationships between the external and internal factors and curriculum implementation. In reporting regression results, the standard of *p*

< .05 is used to determine the significance level, and  $R$ ,  $R^2$ , unstandardized coefficients  $B$ , standardized coefficients Beta ( $\beta$ ),  $t$ -value, and significance level were reported.

To examine teachers' implementation fidelity in relation to their educational qualifications and teaching experience, I performed two independent samples  $t$  tests to compare the two means of the groups to see if they are significantly different from each other. Specifically, I intended to find out if teachers' implementation scores might be related to whether they held a bachelor's or a master's degree, as well as to whether their teaching experience was below five years (considered novice in China) or above 10 years (considered experienced).

***External factors and curriculum implementation.*** Regression analysis was performed between teachers' classroom curriculum implementation scores as the dependent variable and the five external factors as the independent variables to examine which factors had more effect on teachers' fidelity to curriculum implementation. Table 22 and 23 display the results.

Table 22

*Model Summary for the External Factors*

Model	R	R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R Square
1	.269	.072	.053

Table 23

*Regression Analysis for the External Factors Predicting Curriculum Implementation*

Independent Variables	B	Beta	t	Sig.
f1a (teachers' evaluations)	-.221	-.125	-1.835	.068
f2a (teaching conditions)	-.253	-.095	-1.489	.138
f3a (testing)	-.271	-.086	-1.362	.174
f4a (textbooks)	.004	.001	.020	.984
f5a (resource support)	.487	.186	2.966	.003*

Note. \*  $p < .05$ .

The results indicated that only one of the five independent variables, *resource support* in the external factors, was the significant predictor ( $\beta = .186, p = .003$ ), which contributed more to teachers' curriculum implementation activities in the classroom. However, the  $R^2$  value was very low, only .072, which means that *resource support* explained 7.2% of the total variance in teachers' curriculum implementation ( $F = 3.783, p < .05$ ). In other words, 92.8% of the variance in curriculum implementation was left unaccounted for. This result did not reveal a strong relationship and, therefore, did not predict much in terms of teachers' curriculum implementation. In addition, the unstandardized coefficient B indicated that a unit change in the independent variable (X) was associated with a predicted change in the dependent variable (Y) while controlling for the other predictor variables. In this case, *resource support* positively predicted teachers' curriculum implementation. One unit increase in *resource support* resulted in an increase of curriculum implementation score by 0.487 points.

***Internal factors and curriculum implementation.*** Regression analysis was performed between teachers' classroom curriculum implementation scores as the dependent variable and the eight internal factors as the independent variables. Table 24 and 25 display the results.

Table 24

*Model Summary for the Internal Factors*

Model	R	R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R Square
1	.396	.157	.129

Table 25

*Regression Analysis for the Internal Factors Predicting Curriculum Implementation*

Independent Variables	B	Beta	t	Sig.
f1b (teaching experience)	.451	.186	2.817	.005*
f2b (knowledge/understanding of syllabus)	.055	.046	.716	.475
f3b (professional development needs)	-.260	-.154	-2.311	.022*
f4b (communicative language teaching)	.486	.223	3.351	.001*
f5b (professional development activities )	.143	.087	1.372	.171
f6b (grammar-translation method)	-.369	-.179	-2.888	.004*
f7b (English proficiency)	-.600	-.163	-2.576	.011*
f8b (language learning background)	-.037	-.017	-.279	.780

Note. \*  $p < .05$ .

The results indicated that five of the eight independent variables in the internal factors contributed to significant prediction of teachers' curriculum implementation activities in the classroom. *Communicative language teaching* ( $\beta = .223, p = .001$ ), *grammar-translation method* ( $\beta = -.179, p = .004$ ), *teaching experience* ( $\beta = .186, p = .005$ ), *English proficiency* ( $\beta = -.163, p = .011$ ), and *professional development needs* ( $\beta = -.154, p = .022$ ) were the most significant predictors. As well, 15.7% of the total variance in teachers' classroom curriculum implementation ( $F = 5.566, p < .05$ ) was accounted for by these five predictors. Among them, *communicative language teaching* and *teaching experience* positively predicted teachers' curriculum implementation. One unit increase in *communicative language teaching* and *teaching experience* resulted in an increase of curriculum implementation score by 0.486 and 0.451 points, respectively. *Grammar-translation method*, *English proficiency*, and *professional development needs* negatively predicted teachers' curriculum implementation. One unit increase in *grammar-translation method*, *English proficiency*, and *professional development needs* resulted in a decrease of curriculum implementation score by 0.369, 0.600, and 0.260 points, respectively.

***External/ internal factors and curriculum implementation.*** After I added five external factors and eight internal factors separately, I came up with an external factor scale and an internal factor scale. Regression analysis was performed on the whole sample of 248 cases between teachers' curriculum implementation scores as the dependent variable and the external and internal factor scales as two independent variables to examine which factor had more effect on teachers' curriculum implementation. However, the result revealed that neither external nor internal factors predicted teachers' implementation activities. This suggested that for the whole group of teachers, external factors such as testing, textbooks, evaluations, and resource support as well as internal factors such as teaching method, teaching experience, language proficiency, and professional development would not exert any impact on what and how teachers implement the curriculum.

***External/ internal factors and high and low implementers.*** Regression analysis was then performed on the highest implementers, the top 19% of teachers, with implementation scores equal to or above 46 as the dependent variable and external and internal factors as two independent variables. The same analysis was also performed on the lowest implementers, the bottom 17% of teachers, with implementation scores equal to or below 37. The purpose was to examine which factor(s) had more effect on these two groups of teachers' fidelity to curriculum implementation.

The results showed that for low implementers, neither external nor internal factors contributed to the prediction of teachers' implementation activities. However, for high implementers, both external and internal factor predicted teachers' curriculum implementation. Table 26 and 27 present the results.

Table 26

*Model Summary for the High Implementers*

Model	R	R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R Square
1	.441	.195	.158

Table 27

*Regression Analysis for the High Implementers*

Independent Variables	B	Beta	t	Sig.
External	-.181	-.348	-2.389	.021*
Internal	.096	.429	2.945	.005*

Note. \*  $p < .05$ .

As shown, 19.5% of the total variance in teachers' classroom curriculum implementation ( $F = 5.312, p < .05$ ) was accounted for by these two predictors. In addition, the *internal factor* ( $\beta = .429, p = .005$ ) and the *external factor* ( $\beta = -.348, p = .021$ ) were both significant predictors. Among them, the *internal factor* positively and the *external factor* negatively predicted teachers' curriculum implementation. This suggests that for this group of teachers, their fidelity to implementation depended on internal factors such as their beliefs, attitudes, understanding of innovation, teaching methods, language proficiency, and professional development. The more improvement and support they have in these aspects, the more faithful they will be towards implementation. Alternately, external factors such as testing, textbooks, evaluations of teachers' performance, and lack of support inhibit teachers' implementation. The more impact the teachers receive from these aspects, the less faithful they will be towards implementing the curriculum.

***Independent samples t tests.*** To address the sub-research question 4 (see Table 21 on page 189), I performed two independent samples *t* tests to compare the mean scores of

two groups: (1) teachers with a bachelor's or master's degree; and (2) teachers with teaching experience below five years and above 10 years. Table 28 and 29 present the results.

Table 28

*Descriptive Statistics for Educational Qualifications and Teaching Experiences*

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Education Qualifications	B.A.	159	41.006	4.646	.369
	M.A.	89	42.124	4.845	.514
Teaching Experiences	Below 5	120	41.025	4.834	.441
	Above 10	96	41.875	4.725	.482

Table 29

*T Tests for Education Qualifications and Teaching Experiences*

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Education qualification	Equal variances assumed	.018	.893	-1.789	246	.075	-1.117	.625
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.768	175.956	.079	-1.117	.632
Teaching experience	Equal variances assumed	.039	.844	-1.297	214	.196	-.850	.655
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.300	205.625	.195	-.850	.654

As shown, in terms of educational qualification, since the Levene's Test is not significant ( $p > .05$ ), the two variances are not significantly different, that is, the two variances are approximately equal. There was no significant difference between the two groups—teachers with a bachelor's degree and those with a master's degree ( $t = -1.789$ ,  $p$



> .05). Likewise, there was no significant difference between teachers with less than five years of teaching experience and those with more than 10 years of teaching experience ( $t = -1.297, p > .05$ ). This suggests that the teachers' educational qualifications and their teaching experiences failed to exert any influence on teachers' fidelity to curriculum implementation in the classroom.

### ***Summary***

To sum up, the survey results revealed that, for EFL teachers as a whole, *resource support* as an external factor positively predicated teachers' curriculum implementation activities in the classroom. With regard to internal factors, *communicative language teaching* and *teaching experience* positively contributed to teachers' curriculum implementation activities. However, *grammar-translation method*, *English proficiency*, and *professional development needs* negatively predicated teachers' implementation.

For the teachers as a whole and for the low implementers as well, neither external nor internal factors turned out to predict teachers' implementation activities. However, for high implementers, both external and internal factors contributed to prediction of teachers' implementation with external negative and internal positive. With regard to influence of educational qualifications and teaching experience on teachers' curriculum activities in the classroom, there appeared to be no significant difference between teachers with a bachelor's degree and those with a master's degree or between teachers with less than five years' teaching experience and those with more than 10 years.

### *The Enacted Curriculum*

This section reports on the findings from the classroom observations of and follow-up interviews with the two EFL teachers to address the fourth research question (see Table 4 in Chapter Three). It first gives a brief description of the two EFL teachers and their teaching context, which serves to show how these two EFL teachers teach within the college English teaching setting. It then provides a summary of the key data with the two teachers. Finally, it reports the observation and interview results in relation to the emergent themes. The findings together demonstrate why these two teachers conducted their English language teaching in the ways that they did. Both aspects of the findings demonstrate teachers' implementation of the intended curriculum towards college English education.

#### *Profile of the Two EFL Teachers*

This section provides a brief description of the two EFL teachers, Lily and Sally (pseudonyms), whose classroom teachings were observed and their teaching contexts described.

Lily was in her late twenties. She grew up in the capital city of a central province in the north-western part of China, where she completed her formative education in a foreign language institute and graduated with a bachelor's degree in English Language and Literature in 1995. Upon her graduation, she was offered a teaching position in a big university in her home province and taught college English there for about nine years. In 2000, she entered the national graduate student entrance examinations and became a formal M.A. student in the university where she was teaching full-time. She was writing

her thesis when I observed her classroom teaching. In total, she had nine years of teaching experience.

Sally was in her early fifties, and before university had only studied English for three years in junior high school, due to the ten-year “cultural revolution” (1966-1976). Upon graduation from high school, she returned to her home, a rural area, and stayed there for about 10 years. In 1977 when the national university entrance examinations were resumed, she sat in this competition but failed to be admitted. Fortunately, after she attended a teacher training program in the city, she was asked to teach English in the high school where she had graduated. At the same time, she attended Television University<sup>11</sup> where she eventually earned an associate degree in English. In 1984, she went to Beijing Foreign Languages Institute to attend further training classes and obtained a bachelor’s degree in English after two years’ studies; she moved to Xi’an in January 1988 and had taught college English in a small university since then. In total, she had 25 years of teaching experience.

Both Lily and Sally taught two classes each term, with each class having six teaching periods per week. Among the six teaching periods, four were on the component of “Reading and Writing” and two on “Listening and Speaking.” Each teaching period was 50 minutes long and both teachers had to teach two periods consecutively with a ten-minute break in between. Lily had 62 students in one class and 50 in another; she taught in a multimedia classroom where computers were available for her to present courseware on a big screen. Sally, on the other hand, had 60 students in one class and 55 in another; she taught in a traditional classroom, with a blackboard and chalk as the main equipment.

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<sup>11</sup> Television University: A form of distance learning in China during the 1980s when students learned English or other subjects by watching TV.

Both of their “Listening and Speaking” classes were conducted in the language lab, where students listened to tapes through headphones. On the whole I observed eight teaching periods of “Reading and Writing” and two teaching periods of “Listening and Speaking” in each of Lily and Sally’s classes.

### ***Summary of the Enacted Curriculum***

Table 30 summarizes the key data from the observation and interviews with the two teachers. The findings touch upon the three most important curricular aspects which teachers were required by policymakers and administrators to implement: syllabi, textbooks, and tests.

Data analysis yielded four emergent themes: adherence to and knowledge and understanding of the syllabus, student-centred approach in teaching, use of the target language, and impact of tests on curriculum implementation. Specifically, “adherence to and knowledge and understanding of the syllabus” discusses teachers’ classroom behaviour in developing students’ language skills as promoted in the syllabus, as well as exploring their knowledge and understanding of the 1999 Syllabus. “Student-centred approach in teaching” deals with how classroom teachers implement the model and what difficulties confront them. “Use of the target language” discusses the use of English as well as Chinese in classroom instruction. “Impact of tests on curriculum implementation” details what kind of impact the college English test exerts on classroom teaching, and what factors may facilitate or inhibit teachers’ faithful implementation of the intended curriculum.

Table 30

*Summary of the Observation and Interview Results with Lily and Sally*

Themes	Lily (Large University)	Sally (Small University)
Knowledge/ understanding of the syllabus	Classroom observations: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Failure to adhere to the syllabus requirements</li> </ul> Interviews: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of knowledge about the syllabus</li> <li>• Limited understanding of the syllabus</li> </ul>	Classroom observations: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Failure to adhere to the syllabus requirements</li> </ul> Interviews: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of interest in the syllabus</li> <li>• Ignoring the syllabus while teaching</li> </ul>
Student-centred approach in teaching	Classroom observations: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Teacher-centred approach in teaching</li> <li>• More teacher talk and less student talk</li> </ul> Interviews: Difficulty in adopting this model <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Large class size</li> <li>• Students' poor language proficiency</li> <li>• Limited teaching periods</li> <li>• Heavy teaching load</li> <li>• Chinese students' study habits</li> </ul>	Classroom observations: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Teacher-centred approach in teaching</li> <li>• More teacher talk and less student talk</li> </ul> Interview: Difficulty in adopting this model <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Large class size</li> <li>• Students' poor language proficiency</li> <li>• Limited teaching periods</li> <li>• Heavy teaching load</li> </ul>
Use of English in classroom teaching	Classroom observations: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Frequent use of English in teaching</li> <li>• A lot of Chinese used in teaching</li> </ul> Why use Chinese: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Saving time</li> <li>• For the sake of clarity</li> <li>• Checking if students understand or not</li> </ul>	Classroom observations: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Frequent use of English in teaching</li> <li>• A lot of Chinese used in teaching</li> </ul> Why use Chinese: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Saving time</li> <li>• For the sake of clarity</li> <li>• Checking if students understand or not</li> </ul>
Impact of tests on curriculum implementation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Teaching to the test</li> <li>• Narrowing the intended curriculum to improve students' test scores</li> <li>• Scant attention on cultivating students' communication skills</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Teaching to the test</li> <li>• Narrowing the intended curriculum</li> </ul>

Overall, the classroom observations of the two EFL teachers, Lily and Sally, revealed that these two teachers failed to adhere to the syllabus objectives. In both teachers' classrooms, I observed little cultivation of students' communicative skills. These teachers failed to follow the recommended "student-centred approach" in their classroom instruction. There was much more teacher talk and less student talk, and more Chinese was used than what was suggested. From the classroom observations, teaching to the test was apparent.

From the interviews, the two EFL teachers recognized their own lack of knowledge and understanding of the syllabus. They also expressed their lack of interest in this curricular document. In terms of the student-centred approach, both teachers attributed large class sizes, students' poor language proficiency, limited teaching periods, heavy teaching loads, and Chinese students' study habits as obstacles to their implementation of this approach. Regarding the use of the mother tongue in the classroom, these two teachers emphasized that they used Chinese to save time, to be clear in instruction, and to check whether students understood what was being taught to them. Although they were teaching freshmen who would not take the CET until the next year, the two teachers acknowledged the impact of this test on their curriculum implementation. The effects included teaching to the test, a narrowing of the intended curriculum by focusing on improving students' test scores, and paying scant attention to the cultivation of students' communicative skills. Indeed, both classroom observations and interviews demonstrated a discrepancy between what was intended by the policymakers and what was enacted by the two teachers. The following section describes the four emergent themes in more detail.

### ***Classroom Observation and Interview Results***

This section reports the findings of classroom observations of and follow-up interviews with the two teachers, Lily and Sally. The purpose was to explore how and why these two teachers conducted their teaching with regard to the intended curriculum. The findings resulted in a number of themes which I have summarized and grouped into the following four emergent themes: adherence to and knowledge/understanding of the syllabus, learner-centred approach, use of the target language, and impact of the CET on teaching. Below is the presentation of each of these themes.

***Adherence to and knowledge/understanding of the syllabus.*** It was set out in the 1999 Syllabus that “College English aims to develop in students a relatively high level of competence in reading, and an intermediate level of competence in listening, speaking, writing, and translating so that students can communicate in English” (College English Syllabus Revision Team, 1999, p. 1). With the syllabus objectives as a reference, both Lily and Sally’s teachings are reported through activity types in the classroom. According to Fröhlich et al. (1985), the activity type describes what kind of teaching activities are conducted in the language classroom to promote students’ language learning. Both Lily and Sally’s classroom teaching activities consisted of translation, discussion, checking answers, and the like. Through these activities, I studied whether or not the two teachers followed the syllabus to cultivate students’ five language skills. Table 31 presents the two teachers’ teaching activities in developing their students’ language skills. The purpose is not to compare these two teachers. Rather, the focus is on the precise description of what is occurring in each of their classrooms.

On the whole, the classroom observations revealed that both Lily and Sally’s teaching focused more on developing their students’ receptive skills of reading and listening than on promoting the productive skills of speaking and writing. These two teachers conducted classroom teaching exclusively in accordance with the textbooks assigned to them, instead of adhering to the objectives set out in the syllabus. Cultivation of students’ reading skills was fully covered in their teaching activities. This was reflected in both teachers’ detailed explanations of texts and of reading skills. For example, Sally instructed on a reading skill—read for the main idea—and she involved her students in doing related exercises to strengthen this skill.

Table 31

*Teaching Activities in Developing Students’ Language Skills in Lily and Sally’s Classes*

Language Skills	Lily’s Activity Types	Sally’s Activity Types
Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reading new words and paragraphs aloud</li> <li>• Read the text</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reading new words and paragraphs aloud</li> <li>• Read the text</li> </ul>
Listening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Listening to taped materials</li> <li>• Listening to teacher’s lectures on the text</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Listening to taped materials</li> <li>• Listening to teacher’s lectures on the text</li> </ul>
Speaking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Oral report</li> <li>• Short presentation</li> <li>• Pair work on preparing short presentations</li> <li>• Summarizing main ideas of the text</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Choral repetition of sentences and of listening passages</li> </ul>
Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Explanation of application letter writing</li> </ul>	N/A
Translating	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• English to Chinese translation exercises</li> <li>• Chinese to English translation exercises</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• English to Chinese translation exercises</li> </ul>

In terms of listening skills, both Lily and Sally’s students received sufficient practice, either from the “Listening and Speaking” component, or from teachers’



lecturing in English in the “Reading and Writing” component. In addition, translation practice was common in both Lily and Sally’s teaching activities. While Sally involved her students in English to Chinese translation exercises, Lily conducted both English to Chinese and Chinese to English to engage her students in pattern drill practice and to check whether students understood the text or not.

However, compared with the time spent on cultivation of students’ reading and listening skills, writing and speaking skills were underrepresented in Lily and Sally’s classroom teaching, particularly speaking skills. Lily conducted a few activities in which she encouraged her students to practice oral English. For example, Lily organized one speaking activity “asking about people’s opinions and giving opinions” in “Listening and Speaking” class. She asked students to listen to a dialogue first and pay attention to the communicative function. Then she assigned students in pairs working on “opinion giving” about two social problems. Three pairs of students were asked to present their pair-work to the whole class. However, during my observations of her 10 teaching periods, Sally did not organize any speaking activity at all other than engaging her students in choral repetition of sentences and passages in both “Reading and Writing” and “Listening and Speaking” components.

The representation of the receptive skills of reading and listening in Lily and Sally’s instruction seemed to be in line with the requirements of the syllabus, thus being faithful to the intended curriculum proposed by policymakers. However, the underrepresentation of productive skills of writing and speaking prevented them from adhering to the policymakers’ intentions. In my opinion, speaking in particular was least

emphasized in classroom activities in both Lily and Sally's teaching. In sum, these two teachers only partially implemented the proposed curriculum.

Although the national policymakers expected teachers to adhere to the objectives and specifications of the syllabus in their classroom teaching and to be knowledgeable and clear about the syllabus (see policymaker interview results in this chapter), interviews with Lily and Sally revealed that these two teachers failed to meet the expectations. They claimed that they did not have a sound working knowledge of the 1999 Syllabus, nor did they have a deep understanding of it, although each of them had been given a copy by their department head. Both teachers said that they only had a very vague idea about the language skill requirements in the syllabus. Lily told me that her whole impression of the 1999 Syllabus was that it was focused mainly on reading, and placed a higher emphasis on input (i.e., reading and listening) than on output (i.e., writing and speaking).

Sally expressed her lack of interest in this curricular document. She said, "Although there are several versions of syllabus, I'm not interested in it and I don't read much either. ... every time I was assigned to teach new textbooks, I would teach in the same way as before" (TEIN01SU04)<sup>12</sup>. For her, there was no change in her teaching when the syllabus changed. Similarly, Lily expressed her lack of knowledge of the syllabus:

I really don't understand much of that syllabus. So if you ask me, I really feel, I don't know much of the syllabus, so I don't have much to say. Many years ago, we were given this syllabus. I remember we had teachers talking about it. But to tell you the truth, I never read it. ... I should say, I don't think I have a good understanding of that syllabus; I don't think I have a good understanding of it, because seldom did I study it or read it. It's a waste of my time. ... I don't take it

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<sup>12</sup> This abbreviation and others in this section means: TE for teacher; IN for interview; 01SU for first small university; 04 for page number in interview transcripts; 02LU for second large university.

seriously, and maybe, ok, for personal reasons, I don't like such kind of thing. I want to get in touch with something really concrete and specific, that kind of thing. (TEIN02LU01)

Both Sally and Lily expressed doubts about the clarity and practicality of the syllabus. Sally said that the 1999 Syllabus was not clearly stated. She questioned the objectives, saying “What does it mean ‘to develop in students a relatively high level of competence in reading’?” (TEIN01SU03). Sally averred that teachers made decisions based on the classroom reality and not on the syllabus. Furthermore, Sally pointed out the policymakers’ failure to acknowledge how the 1999 Syllabus should apply to each individual university. She argued that it was unrealistic and unfair to require all universities across the country to follow the same syllabus when students’ English proficiency, teachers’ professional capacity, resource support, and other factors were not equivalent.

***Student-centred approach.*** The national policymaker in terms of textbook implementation who was interviewed clearly stated that language teaching and learning in the classroom should centre on students, should reduce teachers’ speaking time, and should encourage student participation (see policymaker interviews in this chapter). The observations from Lily and Sally’s classes revealed that both teachers adopted a teacher-centred approach. To see how their classroom teaching was conducted, I described their teacher-centred approach by reporting both Lily and Sally’s lessons through participant organization, a parameter to describe basic patterns of classroom interactions between teachers and students (Fröhlich et al., 1985, p. 53). The rationale was to find out who was speaking the most in the classroom, particularly by comparing teacher talk (indicating teacher-centred teaching) versus student talk (indicating a student-centred approach). I

mainly studied two patterns: (1) teacher work: is the teacher lecturing to the class? and (2) student work: are students working chorally, in groups, or individually? (Fröhlich et al., 1985).

In Lily and Sally's classes, I observed 10 lessons (each lesson lasted 50 minutes), with eight lessons from the "Reading and Writing" component and two lessons from the "Listening and Speaking" component. Since eight lessons were the required time allotment to complete one unit in "Reading and Writing" (see a sample text in Appendix B) and two lessons in "Listening and Speaking," I report on a typical lesson in each component from both teachers.

In the "Reading and Writing" component, the teachers' speaking consisted of mainly lecturing to the class. Teacher talk took up 70% of the class time and student talk 30% in Lily's class. Teacher talk took up 85% and student talk 15% in Sally's class. Students' work in both teachers' classes covered choral work such as answering teachers' questions or checking multiple-choice exercises together, oral presentation, and individual seat work such as reading vocabulary and paragraphs aloud.

In the "Listening and Speaking" component, both Lily and Sally spoke less than they did during their "Reading and Writing" component. Both of them spent most of their class time engaging their students in listening practice, with Lily taking up 80% of the class time with this and Sally 85%. Teacher talk only took up 8% in Lily's class time and 3% in Sally's, when they explained new words in the listening passages in either English or Chinese. Although this course was designated as "Listening and Speaking," students' speaking seemed scant. Lily conducted a speaking activity of "giving opinions" and asked students to give oral presentations to the whole class. Her students' pair work

preparation and oral presentations took up 10% of the class time. Sally, on the other hand, did not organize speaking activities in the class. Instead, she asked the whole class to repeat the listening passages chorally. She explained that the remaining 12% of class time had to be devoted to choral work, in order for the students to have some chance of practicing oral English.

Although the textbooks that Lily and Sally used advocated the “student-centred” approach, observations of their instruction revealed lack of these teachers’ fidelity to this practice. When asked why the model from the policymakers was not being implemented in their classrooms, both Lily and Sally expressed helplessness, and listed reasons for not being able to do so. According to these two teachers, large class sizes and students’ low language proficiency were the biggest obstacles, preventing them from adopting the student-centred approach. Sally explained, “I have two classes each with over 60 students. It’s very hard to be student-centred” (TEIN01SU08). Lily described her teaching practice of attempting to centre on students when she taught small classes. However, Sally found it impossible to do this even when she was teaching small classes.

She noted:

Even in small classes, however, students fail to understand the text. ... although I have explained certain paragraphs many times, many students still can’t follow my explanation. How can you expect them to speak? If you want students to speak and they don’t understand the text, they can’t open their mouths and speak. It’s very very difficult to be student-centred [in the classes that I teach].  
(TEIN01SU08)

Another challenge, both Lily and Sally asserted, was the limited teaching periods each week associated with the heavy workloads of completing the required teaching tasks each term, i.e., completing the mandatory eight units a term within six teaching periods a week. These two challenges made the wishes of these two teachers, especially Lily’s,

unrealizable; i.e., turning a language class into a training arena in which students were the main players and the teachers simply being facilitators. Although she yearned for her students to practice what they had learned in the classroom environment, heavy workloads for college English teaching rendered Lily's ideal teaching model unfeasible. She commented,

But in fact with such heavy workloads, it's impossible for me to do so [focusing on students]. If you teach like this [student-centred approach], you can't finish the assigned texts. I want to create a classroom in which my students can practice the English language or communicate or discuss in the language, rather than one in which I teach all the time. However, it's really time-consuming, really impractical in classrooms. (TEIN02LU05)

Moreover, Lily considered Chinese students' study habits as another challenge in following the expected model. She emphasized that, although the textbooks strongly recommended task-based work, cooperative learning, group discussions, and the like, these activities required students to have comparatively equal language proficiency and be willing to cooperate. However, she stated her belief that Chinese students depended too much on their teachers in their language learning. She convinced me that she found it very hard to change students' study habits. She said that she had tried many times but had become frustrated because students' expectations of her were too high. She explained, "Our students are from different parts of the countries: rural, suburban areas, or big cities. They have very different and uneven language proficiency. They do not have the habit of being cooperative in class. It needs time to develop this habit [cooperative learning]" (TEIN02LU09).

The above results illustrated both teachers' non-implementation of the intended curriculum in their actual classroom teaching. Instead of following what was expected by policymakers, namely the learner-centred approach, both teachers primarily adopted a

teacher-centred approach, with teacher talk taking up most of their class time. The interviews also indicated that it was not that these teachers did not want to change their focus to student-centred learning, but that the teaching reality constrained them from carrying out activities centring on learners. Teachers' implementation efforts were in fact unfeasible in practice.

*Use of English in classroom teaching.* Both policymakers and administrators expected teachers to use English—the target language—as much as possible in classroom teaching. The rationale was the advocacy in the syllabus of creating a favourable language environment so that students would be immersed in an English-speaking context (College English Syllabus Revision Team, 1986, 1999). Some administrators stated that over 80% of classroom teaching should be conducted in English, and that teachers should use Chinese, the mother tongue, as little as possible. One policymaker even suggested using English entirely and using no Chinese at all in classroom teaching.

The classroom observations revealed that both Lily and Sally used the target language of English (i.e., foreign language or L2) and mother tongue of Chinese (i.e., first language or L1) in every teaching period of 50 minutes in “Reading and Writing” as well as in “Listening and Speaking.” Both teachers used English over 80% of the time when explaining text in “Reading and Writing” classes and over 90% of the time in “Listening and Speaking” classes. Both teachers used Chinese when checking multiple answers in students' workbooks, explaining students' assignments, and translating some difficult sentences.

However, who (whether Lily and Sally, or their students) used L1 or L2, and in what activities varied to a certain extent in the classroom. Table 32 presents the

observation results of these two teachers and their students in the use of L1 and L2 in the “Reading and Writing” class and in the “Listening and Speaking” class. Again, the focus is not comparison, but simply a more detailed description of the two teachers’ work.

Table 32

*A Matrix of L1 and L2 Use of the Two EFL Teachers and Their Students*

		<b>Lily</b>		<b>Sally</b>	
		Lily	Students	Sally	Students
<b>Reading /Writing</b>	<b>L1 (C)</b>	translate English sentences, analyze grammatical sentences, check multiple choice exercises, explain students’ writing assignment	do translation exercises	translate English sentences, analyze grammatical sentences, check multiple choice exercises	do translation exercises
	<b>L2 (E)</b>	lecture and explain the text, describe the organization, paraphrase some difficult sentences, ask comprehension questions	answer teachers’ questions, check multiple choice exercises, do sentence pattern practice, give short oral reports	lecture and explain the text, describe the organization, paraphrase some difficult sentences, ask comprehension questions	answer teachers’ questions, check multiple choice exercises, read new words and paragraphs
<b>Listening/ Speaking</b>	<b>L1 (C)</b>	explain new words and sentences	N/A	explain new words and sentences	N/A
	<b>L2 (E)</b>	explain new words, conduct classroom organization	check multiple choice exercises, pair work exercise, short oral presentations	explain new words, conduct classroom organization	check multiple choice exercises, repeat passages, answer questions chorally, do gap-filling exercises

*Note.* L1 (C) refers to Chinese; L2 (E) refers to English.



The observations revealed that both Lily and Sally had a lot in common in their use of L1 and L2. In the “Reading and Writing” class, both Lily and Sally used English (L2) when lecturing on the whole text, explaining the text structure, describing the organization of one unit, paraphrasing difficult sentences, and asking students comprehension questions. Both of them used Chinese (L1) when translating English sentences, analyzing grammatical sentences, and checking answers to multiple-choice exercises. Likewise, their students used English when answering teachers’ questions and checking answers to multiple-choice exercises. Their students only used Chinese when they were asked to do translation exercises. In the “Listening and Speaking” class, both Lily and Sally used English to explain new words and conduct classroom teaching. They used Chinese when they felt a need to explain some words or sentences. Their students only used English when checking answers of true or false or multiple-choice exercises in addition to passage listening.

Nevertheless, there were some slight differences between Lily and Sally in what and how L1 and L2 were used. Lily’s students were more engaged in pair work activity, short oral presentations, and sentence pattern exercises in English, whereas Sally’s students used English in repeating listening passages, answering questions chorally, doing gap-filling exercises, and reading aloud new words and paragraphs.

Although English was encouraged by policymakers and administrators to be maximally exposed to language learners, the observations revealed that Lily and Sally still used a large amount of Chinese in teaching EFL learners. In the interviews, both of them indicated that language teachers should use more English in their teaching. However, they admitted that they had to use a lot of Chinese.

When asked why so much Chinese was used in their classroom teaching, the two teachers listed three reasons for their choice. One reason was the time issue. Lily claimed that there was a need to use Chinese in order to get the required texts in the “Reading and Writing” class completed on time. She said, “If you speak English in the class, you have to wait for students to respond. This waiting time more often results in teachers’ lagging behind the required teaching schedule” (TEIN02LU07).

The second reason was for the sake of clarity in text explanation. Lily said that it was much clearer to use Chinese for grammar explanation and doing exercises. Sally felt that “Chinese should be used when teachers feel difficult to express in English and when students fail to understand, especially when teachers explain some English words” (TEIN01SU07). She said that, if teachers’ paraphrasing in English was more difficult than original English words or sentences, then there was definitely a need to use Chinese. She elaborated,

I feel that in our reference books, the explanation of some words or sentences are even more difficult than the original English words or sentences. Even I don’t understand them [let alone my students]. Since you are paraphrasing these difficult sentences, you should use simple words to explain. At this time, you need to use Chinese, I feel. (TEIN01SU07)

The third reason was for teachers to check whether students understood the text or not. Both Lily and Sally asked their students to do English to Chinese translation. Sally explained, “Some of our texts are too difficult to explain in English. After your English explanation, students still can’t understand you. This means that your English doesn’t work, and you have to ask students to translate to check whether they understand the texts or not” (TEIN01SU07). Lily echoed Sally’s position, saying:

Sometimes I don’t know whether my students understand certain sentences, and it is hard for them to explain in English. After their translation to Chinese, I

immediately know whether my students understand it or not. Especially, for some long English sentences, it is easier for them to translate than to explain in English. From their translation, I get to know how well they understand the sentences. (TEIN02LU07)

*Impact of tests on curriculum implementation.* Although Lily and Sally were instructing freshmen who would not attend the nationwide CET-4 until the next year, the observations revealed that testing impact was still apparent in both teachers' classroom teaching. The textbooks that Lily and Sally used in "Reading and Writing" and "Listening and Speaking," particularly students' practice books, contained a large proportion of multiple-choice exercises. Therefore, both Lily and Sally spent considerable classroom time checking comprehension questions about the reading, and doing grammar and vocabulary exercises and cloze tests.

The intended curriculum perceived by the policymakers had high expectations that the CET would be voluntary for universities and students, that college English teachers would follow the syllabus, and that tests should bring forth positive effects on classroom teaching. However, in the interview, both Lily and Sally expressed strongly that classroom reality forced them to not implement what was intended by the policymakers and administrators.

Because the CET-4 was mandatory for Lily and Sally's universities and students, these two teachers concurred that the most powerful influence of the CET on their implementation endeavour was on their teaching to the test. Rather than just following the syllabus, both Lily and Sally stated that they were teaching what was tested in the CET in their daily teaching commitment. Sally claimed, "There is no impact on my teaching whether there is a syllabus or not. My teaching is primarily influenced by the CET, this 'magic rod.' So testing is our magic rod" (TEIN01SU06). She further admitted,

What we are teaching is following the “magic rod” of the CET. It is definitely true. No matter what is required in the syllabus, and if there is no requirement in testing, nobody pays attention to it [the syllabus]. ... If there is a gap between the syllabus and the test, we definitely follow the test. (TEIN01SU04)

They illustrated how they taught what was tested in the CET. One salient example, Lily cited, was that she paid special attention to students’ writing, because the CET-4 set the minimum requirement in writing. This meant that students would not pass the test if they failed to get six points out of 15 points on a writing assignment. As a result, she assigned students paragraph or passage writing as homework, which was consonant to the writing format in the CET-4. Another example was that Sally put stress on her students’ spelling. This resulted from the reformed test format in the CET-4 which added more non-multiple-choice assessment, such as dictation, translation, or short answer questions. After the original multiple-choice questions in listening comprehension were changed into dictation, Sally modified her teaching accordingly by adding dictation practice in helping her students to spell English words correctly. During the classroom teaching I observed, both Lily and Sally kept reminding their students of what was tested in the CET. They would tell their students which language points were tested in a certain year. Sally explained,

Unconsciously, I am doing this all the time, which means that I’m attaching really great importance to this test. I’m telling you the truth. I’ve never told my students that our syllabus requires you to do this or that. I’ve never said that. I would tell my students, “name after,” this verbal phrase was tested in a certain year. I also tell my students that “available” is an important word because it was tested twice in the CET-4. (TEIN01SU05)

The interviews with Lily and Sally also revealed that the high stakes associated with the CET undermined their effort in cultivating students’ communicative abilities, for the reason that speaking skill was not tested for most students, although advocated in the

intended curriculum. These two teachers saw this inadequacy as “problematic” and “the worst thing of the test impact,” because “even when students can get high scores and good grades in the examinations, seldom do they write fluently or speak fluently” (TEIN02LU04). They criticized the short-sighted practice of teachers’ disregarding students’ communication skill but felt vulnerable at the same time. Lily explained, “while there is some conflict, I should say, I will place more emphasis on the language points which are associated with the examination [i.e., the CET]. It has something to do with the test for sure” (TEIN02LU03). She added,

They [students] think that speaking practice is just a waste of time, because there is no such requirement in the CET-4. Although there is the CET Spoken English Test, yet for most students, it is just not realistic since only students who have passed the CET-4 with a score of over 80 or passed the CET-6 with a score of over 75 are allowed to take this test. So most students simply want to pass the CET-4. (TEIN02LU06)

Lily conveyed that the CET exerted an indirect impact on her teaching through students’ evaluations. She said that she had received a considerable number of complaints from her students because, according to the students, she organized too many speaking activities in class. Her belief regarding language teaching was “to create a classroom in which my students can practice the English language, or communicate or discuss in the language” (TEIN02LU05). However, this belief seemed impossible for her to realize. She said that each term students evaluated their teachers based on how teachers helped them pass the CET. Her department and university attached greater importance to such evaluations. In fact, everything, including promotions to a higher academic title and practical aspects such as monetary rewards was associated with those students’ evaluations. Lily admitted that because of such pressure, she had to yield to students’

preferences. Her compromise was to stop or lessen speaking activities in the “Listening and Speaking” class. She stated,

I used not to pay attention to it [evaluation], but I have to change my strategies to accommodate my students’ needs. In fact, students want you to focus on the examination [i.e., the CET] only. Communication in English is their [students’] second choice. They take priority in the CET-4. (TEIN02LU06)

#### *Summary of Chapter Four*

This chapter has reported the research findings in this study, which included interviews, surveys, and classroom observations. The interviews with the policymakers explored the intended curriculum at the national level in terms of syllabi, textbooks, and tests. The interviews with the administrators examined the administration of policy at the departmental level and administrators’ perceptions of the intended curriculum. The teacher surveys addressed teachers’ perceptions, whereas the classroom observations and the follow-up interviews with the two teachers explored how the intended curriculum was interpreted by the classroom teachers. Both teacher surveys and observations investigated the enacted curriculum at the classroom level. The findings indicated a discrepancy between policymakers’ and administrators’ viewpoints, and also a discrepancy between policymakers’ and teachers’ viewpoints.

The next chapter, Chapter Five, will focus on discussion of the research findings.

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter discusses the research findings of the study in the light of the literature reviewed on curriculum policy and its implementation, which was covered in Chapter Two. The discussion focuses on two aspects. I first discuss the roles of the three major stakeholders—policymakers, administrators, and teachers—in the policy implementation of the college English curriculum, and examine their roles to uncover the challenges facing these key curriculum players. Then from teacher surveys coupled with observations and interviews, I discuss factors which may have contributed to either facilitating or hindering teachers' curriculum implementation. These data together help probe why and how certain factors had more effect on predicting the teachers' implementation of the curricular innovation within the Chinese EFL context.

#### *Guiding Roles of Policymakers*

From the current study, I learned that the Chinese policymakers purposely designed the statements in the college English syllabus to be open-ended. They commented that the syllabus objectives were deliberately designed to be open-ended and abstract in order to provide more flexibility and freedom to the intended users/implementers, i.e., administrators and teachers. The policymakers strongly emphasized that the syllabus should not be too explicitly articulated in the curricular document. Rigid and concrete guidelines would tightly restrict administrators and teachers, who, they believed, would as a result have little flexibility in executing the curriculum. In terms of textbooks, policymakers said that textbooks as a reservoir of

language materials, particularly in the EFL context, were intended to supply different genres of authentic readings which would be both intellectually stimulating and academically interesting to adult language learners. However, these materials may not necessarily cover all the syllabus content or mirror the formats of the college English test (CET). In other words, matching test formats with the syllabus content was not the priority of textbook designers. With regard to the nationwide CET, the policymakers said that this test was voluntary, both for local universities and students.

These wide-ranging policy guidelines conjure up discussions of what Berman (1978) delineated as the conflict of interests in macro- and micro-implementation of policies in the general education field for the past three decades. He mentioned factors associated with the uncertainty and difficulty of macro-implementation. One of them was an ambiguity in intention, which was “reflected by multiple goals, often conflicting, and in lack of specificity about means” (p. 168). Such ambiguity caused chaotic circumstances when local administrators translated presumed objectives and attempted to carry out policymakers’ intentions. Kritek (1976) pointed out the obvious tendency that policymakers and program planners had, to “write vague and abstract statements of a program’s goals and of the means towards those goals” (p. 88). This vagueness, he asserted, accounted for the failure of innovations.

Moreover, Everard and Morris (1985) maintained that “all who are affected by the change need a clear picture of what it will mean for them: what will they be doing differently, after the change has been implemented? They want to know specifically what it means *in practice* for them” (p. 188, original italics). These two researchers argued that without clear conceptualizations of the goals, the transition from theoretical guidelines to



practical operations tended to be difficult. Huang (2004) pointed out that one of the most serious problems facing education in China was its unclear aims and confused objectives. Morris and Scott (2003) added that many policies failed to be implemented because they were ambiguous or insufficiently specific. Other researchers (Desimone, 2002; Spillane et al., 2002) concurred that policymakers need to formulate clear, specific, and consistent directives with helpful procedures so that the policy would be more likely to be executed as intended.

Despite the above warnings regarding vague or abstract statements in prescribing curricular objectives, the open-ended features of curricular policymaking in the Chinese tertiary context reflected the direction of the third generation of policy analysis in the twenty-first century (Pal, 2006). Policymakers leave things deliberately vague so that there can be adaptations and modifications by the middle-level managers and street-level bureaucrats; in this case, the teachers/doers. As for the policy itself, the question may not be whether the policy is clear enough but whether the policy permits grass-roots groups some latitude and autonomy in implementation. From the perspective of the Chinese policymakers, implementers can and should adapt the policy to local circumstances as well as for local needs.

The interview data revealed that when designing language policies with regard to syllabi, textbooks, and tests, policymakers demonstrated high expectations of growth in both teachers' and students' performance. For instance, policymakers advocated the learner-centred approach and 100% English instruction in classroom teaching with a view to developing students to speak more and better English. While they promoted and strongly encouraged such practice, they did not insist on faithful implementation. They

had recognized that due to the uneven development of different regions, universities in some of the under-developed regions had lower teaching capacity, lower language proficiency in students, and fewer resources. What could be realized in “elite universities” in terms of students’ group work, presentations, and discussions may prove to be difficult in some of the under-developed universities, such as the participating universities in my study, where students come from rural areas with inadequate English language skills.

In fact, policymakers indicated “good intentions,” offering the intended users freedom in their teaching practices. If policymakers were to insist that only one “route” leads to implementation, they would run the risk of arousing dissatisfaction and resentment among administrators and teachers. In other words, policymakers need to be cognisant that any policy can generate multiple practices, and that, as yet, there is no single best practice. The ideal practice would be one that is both appropriate to the actual teaching situation and feasible to each individual university. Although policymakers did not expect administrators and teachers to demonstrate complete fidelity in implementing the proposed curriculum, a missing component was that policymakers failed to help administrators interpret the policies in such a way that the latter could facilitate the implementation in a way that would be in alignment with the policymakers’ intentions. More importantly, policymakers need to realize that, in parallel with the expected policy implementation, support mechanisms must be in place which will facilitate local universities in achieving smooth and successful adapted implementations.

### *Mediating Roles of Administrators*

Middle managers, that is, administrators performing as intermediaries between policymakers and implementers, always face unpredictable difficulties in translating the prescribed policy into practice in the local institutions (Gross et al., 1971; Spillane, 2004). Morris and Scott (2003) concurred, saying that middle managers were compelled to resolve conflicting and complex problems once the new initiative went into effect. This is due to the complexity of implementation. When middle managers translate the national policies, they very often get involved in local policies, which may conflict with the overarching policies. The administrators in the current study were confronted with many challenges, which will be discussed below.

### *Helplessness in Implementation Endeavour*

Just as implementers at the grass-roots level must have the capacity and will to carry out the policy, middle managers must also be equipped with such qualities (McLaughlin, 1987). Motivation, attitudes, and beliefs all underlie implementers' responses to the policy's goals and strategies. The findings, however, revealed that the administrators seemed weak in their efforts to execute the intended curriculum policy. Four out of the six administrators interviewed showed a lack of interest in the curricular documents. Some had not studied the syllabus and some did not know what was exactly in the syllabus. Therefore, at the departmental level, they failed to enact the intended curriculum. Instead, what they focused on was only the desired outcome—good scores on the test. Although policymakers reiterated the voluntary nature of the college English test for local universities and students, all six administrators confirmed that their students were required by their university authorities to take the CET-4. This mandate was passed

down from each university authority as an administrative order to be carried out by department heads without negotiation. Some universities even set a certain passing rate for students' CET performance for the administrators to meet. As a result, administrators had no alternative but to try every means to attain the set goal. Most of the administrators questioned such a directive but meanwhile felt helpless in not complying with it.

The most surprising findings indicate that students' test performances in the national CET were closely connected with teachers' instructional performance evaluations, their academic promotions, and even the departmental award systems (i.e., students' CET passing rate was used as a criterion to measure how well teachers taught and how much monetary reward they would receive). In two of the six universities, administrators stated that their departmental administration assigned each teacher a particular passing rate requirement. If teachers failed to meet the requirement, there would be negative consequences. Although two administrators admitted that such a connection was not reasonable and had caused frustration and confusion among teachers in their departments, the practice continued year after year. Furthermore, these two administrators argued that students' test results appeared to demonstrate the most tangible teaching outcomes, which are more easily evaluated than intangibles, such as teachers' devotion, responsibility, professionalism, excellence in teaching, participation in academic exchanges, and professional growth.

Honig (2004) contended that middle managers were expected to first understand and then interpret the national policy in the context of the implementers' beliefs and circumstances. But sometimes, ambiguous policies can lead to multiple interpretations and thus create much confusion within the organization (Madsen, 1994). In fact, more

often than not, what local administrators relayed to their teachers was a simplified, revised, or inaccurate version of the policies imparted to them from the policymakers. The policy messages may also be distorted as they filter down to the implementers (Lefstein, 2004), which Spillane (2004) vividly described as telephone tag: the player at the start of the line unexpectedly hears a totally different message from the last person who retells it. Spillane (2004) elaborated that such a phenomenon emerged not because the players were intentionally trying to change the story but because it was the nature of human sense-making. In the current study, the local administrators had interpreted the curriculum policies through their own, independently constructed understandings. They did not seem to buy into the flexibility and versatility proposed by the national policymakers, and criticized the open-ended statements contained in the syllabus.

Such interpretation suggests that there is a disconnect between policymakers and administrators on the importance of administrators' involvement in curriculum development. Although policymakers revealed the administrators' participation in the process of policy formulation and dissemination, the perceptions of administrators indicated the peripheral role that they actually performed in policymaking. Hope and Pigford (2001) emphasized the significance of collaboration and cooperation between policymakers and implementers during both policy development and implementation. They reinforced the point that middle managers who shoulder responsibility for policy implementation must be involved in policy development. Ideally, administrators themselves would take initiatives to create a platform where their opinions can be expressed and the national language policies can be debated, so that their impetus for change can be increased. This dialogue should be ongoing and constructive.

From the data, administrators seemed to have been left unsupported or even abandoned by the policymakers during the implementation process. On the one hand, they felt strongly accountable for their own departmental implementation of the national policies, but on the other hand, these administrators were not sure of how to handle this change, not only in terms of themselves, but also with and for the teachers. There was nothing proposed in the syllabus that would enable them to know how their teachers were actually implementing the intended curriculum. Not surprisingly, they unilaterally reverted to targeting the test scores, which, from their perspectives, indicated how their own accountability would be judged. The administrators seemed to expect that external motivation—the students' CET performance—could coerce teachers to teach in a certain way.

### ***Facilitating or Impeding Teachers' Implementation***

In addition to the will to change, McLaughlin (1987) asserted that local capacity, a thorny issue, was the other factor on which successful policy implementation depended. The administrators can have a great deal of good will towards carrying out the intended policy, but do they have the ability and knowledge to aid the implementers? In the current study, it appeared that the administrators lacked such capacity.

McLaughlin (1987) suggested that at the institutional level, teacher training should be offered, and human, financial, and material support should be provided to teachers to facilitate their implementation. However, my findings confirmed what Yu (2001), Cheng, Ren, and Wang (2003), Huang (2004), and Hu (2005) found in their studies; that the professional development programs for English teachers in China suffered from being inadequately supplied at all levels, primary, secondary, and tertiary.

What is unique in my study is the finding that, while all six universities did offer teacher training programs to their teachers (see Chapter Four: Administrators' perceptions of the intended curriculum), these offered programs did not appear to be particularly useful in potentially assisting teachers in putting the intended curriculum into classroom practice.

The interviews showed that all six universities provided their teachers with in-university and out-of-university training programs such as expert seminars, mentoring systems, and graduate degree courses. The administrators tended to focus on teachers' professional development, which, from their [the administrators'] point of view, meant young teachers obtaining higher degrees. However, the difference between professional development and graduate education is that the latter attaches significant importance to extensive reading of English and American literature and to improving teachers' language proficiency (Oatey, 1990), rather than the pedagogical support which teachers need most. Administrators said that the more English a teacher knows, the better he/she will teach in Chinese tertiary EFL education (Maley, 1986). Therefore, the offered professional development programs failed to provide teachers with the needed pedagogy, i.e., how to teach communicatively, how to conduct assessments, and how to conduct communicative activities; all related to the implementation of the curriculum policies.

In addition, administrators mentioned that one particular training program—advanced teacher training certificate (ATTC)—which was a one-year, in-service professional development program with an emphasis on pedagogy, was unfortunately no longer being offered in many universities due to the fact that the diploma was not counted towards teachers' academic promotion (Han, 2003). Teachers had lost the motivation to attend because “only full degrees (Bachelors, Masters and PhDs) are truly recognized in

China” (Oatey, 1990, p. 220). Sunderland (1990) lamented that “there remains a clear demand for longer, higher level courses with clear and prestigious certification—an M.A. rather than a ‘diploma’ which is not standardized and has no clear status” (p. 244). Furthermore, teachers did not find any other short-term professional development training programs attractive either. They, for the most part, had heavy workloads teaching large classes.

In dealing with these challenges, the administrators, I concluded, had either not been supportive or had not known how to be supportive of teachers in the latter’s implementation efforts. The consequence was that teachers had been lost about what to do and how to do it, and thus had continued with their previous teaching practices despite having been given a different curriculum initiative.

### *Implications for Administrators*

The interview data indicate that administrators as middle-level managers could have been the lynchpins for ensuring that the policy was carried out, yet were not as helpful as they perhaps could have been. On the one hand, they did not seem to receive much or any help from the policymakers, hence they did not know what to do with regard to the national policies. However, on the other hand, they did not develop any substantial professional development programs themselves to assist the teachers’ efforts toward implementation.

Pal (2006) affirmed that policy implementation is not linear, and that any form of implementation should be accepted as long as the implementers go in the right direction with the intended policies. Although policymakers encouraged administrators to follow “mutual adaptation” (Darling-Hammond, 1990; McLaughlin, 1976) when policy is



translated into practice, administrators as intermediaries between policymakers and implementers may have found it unrealistic or even impossible to implement what was proposed by policymakers. This “mutual adaptation” suggests that the administrators adapt the national policy to teachers, while the teachers adapt it to the local circumstances and the local needs. For instance, if students had lower language proficiency and needed teachers to speak more Chinese to get the message across, as in my study, then teachers should accommodate the students’ needs. In the same vein, administrators, while designing local regulations, also need to take the strengths and abilities of the teachers and their situations (e.g., heavy teaching schedules, inadequate pedagogical skills) into consideration and make certain adaptations as well (e.g., providing the support the teachers really need, and not just what the administrators think they need).

Some such adaptation actually started to occur in the Chinese tertiary context where my research was conducted. During my field trip, I was made aware that the Ministry of Education, as the top policymaker, had decentralized the role of their policymaking. In January 2004, it changed the previous national syllabus and replaced it with an even more open-ended “College English Curriculum Requirements.” Based on this revised curricular document, each individual university was expected to formulate and design its own curriculum requirements. I attended a large-scale regional conference, where administrators from over 50 key universities in the northern parts of China gathered to discuss how to design their own curricula. In addition, there was a curricular initiative with regard to the nationwide college English test. From September 2005, the marking scheme of this test was reformed to only report students’ marks and not focus on a certain passing grade. Such measures were taken to stop negative competition among

universities for passing rates and to make language teaching and learning more improvement-oriented. Moreover, not only was each individual university permitted to design its own curriculum and its own tests, but also each university was encouraged to choose and/or design textbooks appropriate to its own students.

This transition from a centralized system to a more decentralized one is an example of overall adaptation. This adaptation will further challenge administrators to make action plans in order to better perform their intermediary roles. To do so, there is, first of all, a need for administrators to go to the teachers, asking what the teachers really want in their professional development. A needs analysis will enable administrators to draft constructive programs to facilitate curriculum policy implementation. At that point they could work with teachers to design a curriculum incorporating concrete pedagogy, which would better meet teachers' real needs and help them in their classroom practice. To guarantee that teachers' professional development programs function as desired, administrators also need to create a network of teachers, where collegial cooperation and collaboration will be built up.

Moreover, administrators need to transfer the focus from the prescribed hierarchical prescription of students' performance on tests to a more professional orientation, to have teaching and learning done in a more meaningful manner. They also need to take initiatives to make local policies in terms of syllabi, textbooks, and tests that are appropriate to the specific teaching circumstances, and adjust the local policies to be in line with the overarching national policies. To do their jobs well, administrators need to be provided by policymakers with supports such as seminars, where national policies can be elaborated on from the top, and accessible and ongoing communication channels

to express their concerns to policymakers. Most important of all, they should remember that, as they perform an indispensable role situated between policymakers and teachers, they themselves should be rigorous in delivering the policies to their teachers, making attempts to get teachers engaged in professional development activities to improve educational quality, and ensuring that the teachers are upholding the policies in their everyday practices.

### ***Implementing Roles of Teachers***

The role of teachers as one of the main stakeholders in the implementation of educational change and curriculum innovation has been the focus of ongoing interest to curriculum researchers, and has been examined extensively in the literature, both conceptually and empirically. This is because teachers, as implementers, determine whether or not curriculum innovation is executed in the classroom as it is intended by policymakers (Carless, 1999a; Clandinin & Connelly, 1992; Connelly & Clandinin, 1988). For instance, Carless (1999a) asserted that “teachers are the individuals who implement, adapt, reject, or ignore curriculum innovation. It is thus something of a truism that they are the core of the innovation process” (p. 374). Therefore, teachers’ decisive roles in the implementation of the curriculum cannot be underestimated. Without their support and genuine involvement in the innovation, any curriculum implementation will stay at a superficial level, with either semi- or even non-implementation. This section discusses the disjunction between policymakers and implementers as well as implications for teachers, based on the existing research data.

### *Disjunction between Policymakers and Implementers*

In my study, although policymakers encouraged teachers to follow the intended curriculum with, for example, a working knowledge of syllabus, a learner-centred approach, and whole English instruction, the classroom reality often left teachers unable to do so. When policymaker interviews were contrasted with teacher surveys, classroom observations, and teacher interviews, I identified a strong discrepancy between policymakers' intentions and teachers' actual execution of the policies. The gap existed primarily in the following aspects: understanding of the syllabus, the learner-centred approach promoted by the syllabus and textbooks, the use of English in teaching, and the impact of tests on implementation.

Policymakers emphasized the importance of teachers' working knowledge and thorough understanding of the syllabus in the expected implementation. From the teacher surveys, however, one third of the teachers were found to be ignorant of the theoretical foundation of the syllabus: they did not know that the college English syllabus is based on a functional-notional concept. Although approximately 21% (selecting "strongly agree") and 51% (selecting "agree") of the teachers demonstrated their basic knowledge of skill requirements in the syllabus, 59% of the teachers said that they did not understand the objectives of the syllabus. Almost one third of the teachers chose "neutral" in syllabus knowledge, disclosing their lack of awareness of this significant curricular guideline. In addition, only 7% of the teachers clearly indicated that they understood what and how they were expected to teach under the guidance of the college English syllabus; over 90% indicated uncertainty. I conclude then that teachers' knowledge and understanding of the syllabus was inadequate and insufficient.

Administrators argued that teachers' lack of syllabus knowledge could be attributed to the vagueness and abstractness of the curricular document itself. Similarly, the two interviewed teachers also maintained that the syllabus should have been more explicit, concrete, and specific. The results revealed that when policymakers fail to make their interpretations explicit, a danger exists: either teachers may have no idea of what was intended and then overlooked some aspects of the innovation, or teachers may misunderstand the policymakers' intentions and react with disfavour.

For example, the college English syllabus failed to prescribe which teaching methods language teachers should use. As was pointed out, the teaching methodology suggested in the syllabus document is flexible (Wang & Han, 2002), "eclectic," and "composite" (Cowan et al., 1979). From the policymakers' standpoint, the intention was to offer teachers enough freedom and space to explore or create particularly Chinese ways of language teaching in classrooms. The syllabus stated:

Any foreign language teaching approach is the product of certain historical and social circumstances. We need to introduce the advanced experiences and methods from abroad, but we still need to preserve the efficient, time-proven experiences and methods of our own. Based on the Chinese EFL situation and teaching conditions, we should explore a Chinese way of college English teaching approach, by balancing the relations between introducing foreign things and inheriting our traditional methods.  
(College English Syllabus Revision Team, 1986, p. 10)

It seems that policymakers preferred teachers absorbing aspects from different approaches rather than blindly following a single foreign teaching method, which is "congruous with how China has historically managed to adapt rather than adopt" (Penner, 1995, p. 13). As Wang and Han (2002) noted, the Chinese philosophy of eclecticism was previously defined by Mao Zedong, the former chairman of China: "let the past serve the present, and make the foreign things serve China" and "Chinese essence, Western

practice” (p. 80). Therefore, policymakers suggested that teachers employ flexible and practical methods according to where different learners are at different stages. This perspective illustrated the Chinese attitude toward foreign influences. In this sense, policymakers are justified in recommending such an approach for EFL teaching methods in the Chinese context (Fan, 1999; Wang, 2001).

However, from the teachers’ point of view, such eclecticism implied that they could adopt whichever methods they preferred. This absence of guidance, in fact, may have encouraged teachers to stick to the teaching method they already felt most comfortable with, albeit not necessarily effective or appropriate. When asked about the teaching methodology employed, the two teachers interviewed responded that they did not use any fixed teaching methods. My observations revealed that both teachers used mainly a grammar-translation method. For instance, one teacher, in her “Listening and Speaking” class, asked her students to translate sentences from Chinese to English to ensure that students fully mastered the structure and its meaning. To a certain degree, the use of the grammar-translation method was counterproductive; not promoting students’ communicative skills, especially speaking skill, as prescribed in the syllabus.

Policymakers emphasized that in order to implement the textbook designers’ teaching principles, teachers must both adopt a learner-centred approach and use English entirely in instruction. In contrast, only 34% of the teachers who responded to the survey indicated that they “always” conducted their classroom teaching in English, and 49% said “often.” Forty percent of the teachers claimed that group work or pair work activities had little or no use, whereas 80% found it hard for them to involve their students in such activities. My classroom observations of the two teachers confirmed that college English

teaching remained teacher-centred with more teacher talk and less student talk (see observation results in Chapter Four). These findings are consistent with those of others; several researchers have also noted that tertiary teaching and learning in China was teacher-centred, grammar-focused, and test-oriented (Wang & Han, 2002), emphasizing structure, grammar and translation, text analysis, vocabulary, rote memorization, and reproduction of knowledge (Anderson, 1993; Campbell & Zhao, 1993; Chen & Zhang, 1998; Cheng, 1988; Cowan et al., 1979; Ford, 1988; Lee, 2000; Li, 1984; Penner, 1995; Scovel, 1983a; Wang, 1999; Yan & Zhang, 1995; Zou, 1998).

Previous empirical studies in the EFL context also found that a mismatch existed between policymakers and implementers. O'Sullivan's (2002) longitudinal case study revealed that teachers in Namibian primary schools did not implement the learner-centred English teaching reform imported from Western communicative approaches and advocated by Namibian policymakers. Teachers' non-implementation of the reform was caused by policymakers' failure to take into consideration the classroom realities, where teachers' professional and linguistic capacity, learner capacity, support services, and poor communication skills functioned as hindering elements. Karavas-Doukas (1996) examined teachers' attitudes towards the communicative learner-centred approach in Greek public secondary schools. She found that although most teachers held favourable attitudes towards innovations proposed by policymakers, the same teachers still conducted classroom teaching in the teacher-fronted and grammar-oriented manner, an apparent discrepancy between words and actions and between policymakers' intentions and teachers' execution.

To further explain why such a discrepancy existed and how to bridge the gap, O'Sullivan (2002) and Karavas-Doukas (1996) said that policymakers need to bear in mind that teachers' role in curriculum implementation cannot be undermined and their classroom realities need to be adequately considered. From my interviews with the two teachers, the implementation reality was found to be the reason for this discrepancy as well. They said that because Xi'an was situated in a less developed region and student origin was mainly from rural areas, English education was not as good as coastal cities such as Shanghai or Guangdong. For this reason, teachers felt that 100% use of English and no use of the mother tongue were neither feasible nor effective for English language teaching and learning in a context such as Xi'an.

Although policymakers contended that teachers' positive change in perception was more important than their language proficiency, both teachers I interviewed and observed expressed their disagreement. They said that their classroom reality, especially their students' language proficiency, was the biggest concern for them in deciding how much English and Chinese should be used in teaching. They stated that one hundred percent use of English in instruction would probably result in students' frustration, based on their students' language ability. They argued that use of their first language was beneficial for their students: saving time, clearly conveying the course content, and more importantly, checking if students understand their instruction or not. Excluding Chinese in classrooms seemed unrealistic for them. In addition, these two teachers commented that teachers at top universities such as those in Beijing or Shanghai undoubtedly had more of an advantage, with top students who were more proficient in English on the national university entrance examinations. Those students would have less difficulty in



following teachers' English instruction in multi-media classrooms and computer labs. The students in Xi'an, in comparison, who were mainly from rural areas and had lower English language proficiency, struggled with instruction in English.

The topic of greatest contention was in the use of the standardized high-stakes college English test results in evaluating teachers' performance. Policymaker reiterated that the CET was voluntary, that it should impact positively on classroom teaching, and that its sole purpose was to assess if the syllabus was being properly implemented. The teachers revealed not only that these tests were mandatory for their universities and students, but also that tests like CET impacted negatively on them, a phenomenon discussed by Alderson and Wall (1993) and Smith (1991b). In my surveys, 89% of the teachers who responded expressed that the CET influenced their classroom teaching; 93% of the teachers stated that the CET influenced their students' language learning. In addition, 94% of the teachers admitted that they helped their students with simulated tests before the CET, and 65% of the teachers revealed that their students' CET scores influenced the teaching performance evaluations in their departments.

When I observed the classroom teaching, I found the CET washback effects obvious. Although my observations were deliberately focused only on the two teachers teaching freshmen, I still saw the impact of the test. Teachers followed the testing syllabus instead of the teaching syllabus, instructing on what was to be tested in the CET. For example, one teacher continuously reminded her students to pay special attention to words or verbal phrases such as "access," "classify," and "deprive of" that were frequently tested in the CET. The other teacher spent two teaching periods explaining how to write an application letter, because the CET had such a test format. Such

“teaching to the test” behaviour, with an “undesirable narrowing of the curriculum” (Alderson & Wall, 1993, p. 118) has been shown as having an impact on classroom teaching and learning (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Madaus & Kellaghan, 1992; Prodomou, 1995; Smith, 1991a).

Indeed, teachers in my research conducted test-related practices that included giving students test-taking tips, emphasizing exercises potentially tested, demonstrating marking procedures, and using various means to promote student motivation for the test; all practices that Madaus and Kellaghan (1992) had described. For example, both teachers kept reminding their students of key words, verb phrases, or structures that had been tested in the previous CET. Teachers also aligned instruction with test formats and adapted their teaching to remain consistent with test content. One glaring example of this was that of one teacher who started dictation practice only after the CET had had this test format added to it.

Specifically, the classroom observations convincingly revealed the negative washback both overtly and covertly as Prodomou (1995) delineated. The two teachers were found using examples from textbooks that primarily emphasized the skills used in taking the CET. As a result, reading was given much more emphasis in the classroom than listening, writing, and speaking. The same teachers were also seen to be “teaching a textbook as if it were a *testbook*” (Prodomou, 1995, p. 15, original italics). Because of this, they focused mainly on those points which would be tested, and helped students in completing multiple-choice practice exercises. Smith (1991b) summarized that testing considerably reduces learning time, narrows the curriculum, and discourages teachers from attempting to meet other goals or from using materials not compatible with formats

used by the test makers. As she put it, “multiple choice testing leads to multiple choice teaching” (p. 10).

When asked in the interviews why they conducted teaching that way, both teachers expressed their quandary. On the one hand, they described such teaching as generating problematic teaching consequences, as reflected by the statement that “even when students can get high scores and good grades in the examinations, seldom do they write fluently or speak fluently.” On the other hand, they were obliged to proceed with such practices, because students evaluated and complained about them if they failed to attach importance to the CET in their teaching. Their concerns resonated with what Madaus and Kellaghan (1992) asserted regarding the impact of high-stakes tests on teachers. These two authors stated that the influence of testing on teachers’ classroom practice is intensified when students, teachers, administrators, or the general public perceive the testing results to be linked to important decisions. These decisions include “graduation, promotion or placement of students, evaluation or rewarding of teachers or administrators, allocation of resources to schools or school districts, and school or school-system certification” (p. 139). As well, Alderson and Wall (1993) argued, “for teachers, the fear of poor results, and the associated guilt, shame, or embarrassment, might lead to the desire for their pupil to achieve high scores in whatever way seems possible” (p. 118). Therefore, given the importance of this high-stakes test, it can be assumed that teachers will be highly likely to continue with the test-related instruction for as long as the CET exists.

### *Implications for Implementers*

The findings from my study revealed a mismatch of intention and execution between policymakers and implementers. Teachers as implementers did not carry out the intended curriculum. Rather, they conducted classroom instruction based on the context and reality where they were teaching. In Chinese college English education, teachers, being at the lower level of the hierarchical structure, seemed to have little input into curriculum development. However, just as Connelly and Clandinin (1988) claimed, curriculum development is ultimately about teacher development, and it is teachers who decide whether implementation can be enacted as intended by policymakers. Therefore, Chinese EFL teachers need to take initiatives to have their voices heard on issues of language teaching and learning, through various channels: conferences, workshops, and staff meetings. They should not consider themselves merely as passive implementers of curriculum. Rather, they should see themselves as major players in putting the proposed curriculum into classroom practice by actively participating in the curriculum development. They should acknowledge that their perspectives are valuable and have more weight in determining what and how curriculum can be implemented. Without their sincere participation, continuity and sustainability of any curriculum innovation will be out of the question.

In addition, teachers need to be actively involved in teacher training and professional development programs, such as expert seminars, academic conferences, and research undertakings. Teaching is an ongoing and life-long learning process. Teachers, therefore, should see curriculum innovation as an opportunity which facilitates them in upgrading their professional capacity. Only after they vigorously engage themselves in

such ventures can they be able to actually claim ownership of the innovation. Teachers will see themselves as part of the innovation and the innovation is part of them as well. This ownership in turn creates more autonomous teaching instead of keeping to the designated textbooks by teachers. Moreover, teachers should also start seeking collaboration and collegial support from peer teachers. Such cooperation will eventually benefit teachers in information sharing, in conducting research, and in problem solving.

### *Factors Affecting Curriculum Implementation*

To learn the extent to which the intended curriculum was implemented in the classroom, I asked a group of Chinese EFL teachers to respond to a questionnaire soliciting their perceptions about the external and internal factors that facilitated or impeded their curriculum implementation activities. The analysis of the survey data resulted in six significant factors which contributed to the prediction of teachers' curriculum implementation endeavour. These six factors were: (1) resource support; (2) communicative language teaching; (3) grammar-translation method; (4) teaching experience; (5) language proficiency; and (6) professional development needs.

When I compared and contrasted the above factors with the literature, I was surprised to find that tests did not turn out to be a significant factor. As discussed in the literature review in Chapter Two, testing has been found to have washback effects on teaching and learning. Particularly, researchers have indicated that China is well known for its evaluation-driven educational system and examination-oriented learning context, and that tests affect teaching and learning to a great extent (Campbell & Zhao, 1993; Chen & Zhang, 1998; Wang & Han, 2002; Yan & Zhang, 1995). Interviews with administrators and teachers in this study also confirmed this phenomenon. All this

seemed to suggest that testing should have been the most significant factor affecting curriculum implementation.

Yet, this claim was contradictory to the findings in teacher surveys of this study, even though classroom observations and teacher interviews indicated the impact of testing. One possible reason for this inconsistent finding may be that, although teachers reported that testing had the most influence on their teaching, they were unaware of the principles of teaching and learning that are in fact guiding their decisions about pedagogy. Another possible explanation is that when the surveys were administered, teachers were instructing freshmen and were still one year away from the high-stakes nationwide college English test. Cheng and Wang (2003) found in their study that Chinese EFL teachers' instruction and assessment practices were not influenced by external standardized testing when the test was a long time away, but were greatly affected when the test was approaching.

Although testing was not significant in predicting teachers' implementation activities in the classroom in my study, the six factors mentioned above had more effect on teachers' implementation. Therefore, the following section discusses each factor resulting from multiple regression analyses in the light of the literature. I first discuss the results from the external factors and then from the internal factors, along with the findings of the teacher surveys, observations, and interviews.

### ***Resource Support***

As was shown in the multiple regression results (see Table 22 and 23 in Chapter Four), resource support predicted teachers' curriculum implementation activities in the classroom, albeit not to a high degree, that is, only explaining 7.2% of the total variance

in teachers' curriculum implementation. In addition, resource support had a positive effect. That is to say, the more resources teachers had, the more faithful teachers would be to implementation.

Indeed, resource support has been considered essential in determining successful implementation of an innovation or change in ESL and EFL contexts. Everard, Morris, and Wilson (2004) classified three resources, material, financial, and human, as the most important. Previous studies demonstrated the importance of these three resources. For example, O'Sullivan (2002) ascribed the unsuccessful implementation of the English syllabus in Namibia to limited financial resources. Likewise, in Greece and Egypt, both Karavas-Doukas (1995) and Gahin and Myhill (2001) found that more funding was needed to obtain materials such as resource books or even photocopies, to assist teachers in preparing and presenting the items which needed to be taught. Li (1998) particularly mentioned that lack of human support had undermined South Korean teachers' efforts in conducting communicative activities, because these teachers had failed to receive expert advice on how to apply CLT in classrooms.

In China, human support tended to be the most serious problem. Y. Wang (1999) disappointedly found that "there are simply not many teacher training programs available to those who teach non-English majors because such teaching has long been considered secondary in importance" (p. 49). Even worse, large class sizes, limited authentic materials, and poorly equipped classrooms added to the problems of resource support in college English education (H. Wang, 2001; Wang & Han, 2002). In the current study, as much as 89% of the teachers who responded to the questionnaire claimed that the size of their classes had influenced their teaching.

Despite the fact that the six administrators interviewed said that they had provided their teachers with mentors and encouraged the teachers to conduct peer observation and attend workshops, teachers in the survey disclosed a different story. In the six participating universities, support mechanisms that related to the implementation of the college English curriculum tended to be lacking to a great extent. For example, only 38% of the teachers who responded to the questionnaire said that they were actually given mentors from their department to support their teaching. While 61% of the teachers admitted that they observed their colleagues' teaching, less than half of the teachers (i.e., 48%) confessed that they had attended workshops for professional development purposes.

In addition, although my visit to some department libraries found a good supply of material support in terms of Chinese research journals (but very few journals in English) and audio-video materials, both administrators and teachers interviewed admitted that human support was inadequate. They told me that young teachers seldom received support from senior and experienced professors in terms of pedagogy, classroom management, and assessment. Because of this, novice teachers had to figure out for themselves how to teach and how to follow the syllabus. Especially, the inexperienced teachers more often had to rely on their past learning experience to inform their own teaching practice. The interviews with the two teachers confirmed that professional development activities provided by their departments were far from being satisfactory to them; both teachers acknowledged that there were very few opportunities for them to be engaged in training programs of various kinds. They indicated a strong desire to participate in training programs in order to fulfil their professional development needs.



### ***Communicative Language Teaching and Grammar-Translation Method***

Communicative language teaching (CLT) and grammar-translation method (GTM) in this study were the most significant predictors (see Table 24 and 25 in Chapter Four) with regard to teachers' curriculum implementation activities in the classroom. Seventy-seven percent of the teachers who responded to the questionnaire indicated that CLT was useful in helping their students communicate in English, while 50% of the teachers indicated the importance of GTM. Likewise, 68% of the teachers expressed comfort with the CLT method, compared with only 27% of the teachers who felt comfortable with GTM. Interestingly, 59% of the teachers stated that they used the CLT method in their classroom teaching. The survey results seemed to suggest that teachers preferred CLT to GTM. My classroom observations in the two classes confirmed what Gatbonton and Gu (1994), Karavas-Doukas (1996), and Li (1998) found in their studies: teachers in EFL contexts such as China, Greece, and South Korea followed an eclectic approach, using both traditional (local) and communicative (foreign) approaches in classrooms.

Multiple regression analysis indicated that CLT had positive effects while GTM had negative effects on teachers' curriculum implementation activities in classrooms. This suggests that the more the teachers used CLT, the more likely they would be to faithfully implement the curriculum; the more they used GTM, the less likely they would be. Such results in fact turned out to be in accord with the underlying rationale pertaining to the college English syllabus, which, as a functional-notional syllabus, emphasizes communicative performance (Breen, 1987; Mitchell, 1988; Savignon, 1990a, 1990b). In fact, over half of the teachers in the survey actually employed CLT, conducting

communicative activities such as role-playing, group or pair work in their instruction. However, those who failed to do so but adopted grammar-translation method in their teaching practices tended to show less fidelity to implementation.

Very few empirical studies corroborated my findings that CLT and GTM were the significant predictors in contributing to teachers' implementation endeavours. Yet, the findings, to a large extent, resonated strongly with what had been discussed in the literature about the debate on communicative approach and grammar teaching in both ESL and EFL contexts. Larsen-Freeman (1986), Richards and Rodgers (1986), Mitchell (1988), and Savignon (1990b) maintained that communicative language teaching is characterized by focusing on communicative functions, a learner-centred approach, and use of authentic materials, and CLT is of paramount significance in developing students' communication proficiency. However, despite the wide adoption of CLT in ESL settings, researchers in the empirical studies mentioned below found that applying CLT in EFL contexts proved to be extremely difficult. EFL teachers at primary, secondary, and tertiary levels all resisted CLT in their classroom teaching in EFL countries such as Greece (Karavas-Doukas, 1995), Japan (Gorsuch, 2000), Egypt (Gahin & Myhill, 2001), South Korea (Li, 1998), and Namibia (O'Sullivan, 2002), just to name a few. Teachers either rejected CLT or merely paid lip service, deviating considerably from the principles of the communicative approach in their classroom practices.

Particularly in the EFL context of China, debate on the communicative approach and grammar teaching has been animated. The focus has been on advocacy of CLT (Li, 1984), the applicability of CLT in China (Anderson, 1993; Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Campbell & Zhao, 1993; Penner, 1995; Ting, 1987), language teacher education (Cheng

& Wang, 2004; Ng & Tang, 1997; Zou, 1998), adaptation of ESL curriculum in the Chinese context (Sun & Cheng, 2002; Gabonton & Gu, 1994; White, 1989), cultural appropriateness of CLT (Ellis, 1996; Hu, 2002), and teachers' and students' perceptions of communicative teaching (Li, 1997; Rao, 2002; Scovel, 1983b). More importantly, based on the Chinese circumstance that the phenomenon of "deaf and dumb English" (Ng & Tang, 1997; H. Wang, 2001) is still rampant and that the educational system is still examination-oriented, researchers recommended that a better model would be the integration of traditional grammar instruction with communicative approaches (Gabonton & Gu, 1994; Rao, 1996; H. Wang, 2001). This integration would take various forms, such as using tasks for grammar practices (Ellis, 1995) and explicit and implicit focus on form (Fotos, 1998). Such a combination was believed to be appropriate in EFL settings to eventually promote the development of students' communicative ability.

### ***Teaching Experience and Language Proficiency***

About eighty-six percent of the teachers who responded to my questionnaire acknowledged that their teaching experience helped them in their classroom instruction. While 85% of the teachers revealed that their teaching changed as they gained more experience from classroom instruction, 84% of the teachers also said that their teaching improved with more experience. The multiple regression results revealed that for all 248 teachers in the study, teaching experience had a positive effect on their ability to implement the curriculum. To elaborate, the longer teachers teach, the better they implement the curriculum. This suggests that teaching experience plays an indispensable role in implementation of the college English curriculum in China.

Richards (2001) claimed that teachers are a key factor in the successful implementation of curriculum innovation. Among the teacher factors, teaching experience is one of the central elements. Richards and Farrell (2005) pointed out the difference between experienced and novice language teachers, arguing that the former possess a richer knowledge base and deeper understanding of their students and student learning, and therefore are more capable of solving teaching problems. Also, Gahin and Myhill (2001) found that experienced EFL teachers and their less experienced counterparts were different in their attitudes towards communicative language teaching. Experienced teachers tended to hold the least favourable attitudes toward the newer, more communicative approach. Less experienced teachers preferred instructional strategies consonant with communicative approaches, such as valuing fluency over accuracy, using collaborative activities, using audio-visual materials, and avoiding use of the mother tongue in class. Therefore, they stated that in-service training should be targeted more towards experienced teachers rather than newly-qualified teachers, which differs from my findings.

With regard to language proficiency, 92% of the teachers who responded to the questionnaire agreed that their overall language proficiency influenced their classroom teaching. The vast majority of these teachers attached substantial significance to the issue of language proficiency. Regarding the discussion on applying the communicative approach to EFL contexts such as China, India, Korea, and Egypt, researchers Beretta (1990), Burnaby and Sun (1989), Li (1998), and Gahin and Myhill (2001) all pointed out that teachers' inadequate command of English turned out to be the typical roadblock to implementing the revised curriculum.

What is intriguing in this study is the observation of English proficiency in negatively predicting teachers' implementation. This finding suggests that the higher language proficiency teachers have, the less likely they are to implement the curriculum. From the interviews with the administrators, coupled with the speeches and talks given by the officials from the Ministry of Education (Cen, 1999; Wu, 2004; Zhang, 2003), I learned that the majority of novice teachers who just graduated from university generally had a higher English proficiency and higher education levels than their older, more senior counterparts. It is highly likely that this group of teachers may not implement the curriculum proposed by policymakers. This is because they were not familiar with the college English curriculum and lacked pedagogical training in teaching.

The results of the independent sample *t* tests seemed to contradict the regression results. Although teaching experience had a positive effect on teachers' implementation, independent samples *t* test showed no significant difference between implementation scores for teachers with less than five years of teaching experience and those with more than 10 years of teaching experience ( $t = -1.297, p > .05$ ). Because of these contradictions, it is difficult to determine whether teachers with more years of teaching experience (more than 10 years in this case) had more fidelity to curriculum implementation than teachers with fewer years (less than five years).

In terms of education qualifications, independent samples *t* test also showed no significant difference in implementation scores between teachers with a bachelor's degree and those with a master's degree ( $t = -1.789, p > .05$ ). That is to say, there seems to be no difference of implementation fidelity between teachers with higher language proficiency and those with lower language proficiency in terms of curriculum implementation. This

finding is unique in the Chinese tertiary context. As was found in the study, the teachers with a relatively higher language proficiency tended to be young teachers with higher education levels (i.e., a master's degree), but also with fewer years of teaching experience. The teachers with a relatively lower language proficiency, on the other hand, were generally older, more senior teachers with lower education levels (i.e., a bachelor's degree or an advanced teacher training certificate), but with more years of teaching experience. Since education levels were not found to make much difference in teachers' implementation efforts, I posit that teacher training and professional development programs should target all the teachers, old and young, to ensure the successful implementation and continuity of the curriculum policies.

### ***Professional Development Needs***

In this study, the great majority of the teachers (86%) who responded to the questionnaire expressed their desire to improve their language teaching through professional development: 80% of the teachers wanted to work on a graduate degree, 90% wanted to learn communicative language teaching, and 91% wanted to learn computer-assisted teaching. However, teachers' responses seemed contradictory, in that only 62% of the teachers said they believed that in-service teacher training actually improved their classroom teaching. On the one hand, they expressed enthusiasm toward participating in teacher development programs. But on the other hand, they showed doubt about the usefulness of such programs. More surprisingly, the results in the regression analysis revealed that teacher development had a negative effect on teachers' curriculum implementation activities in the classroom. In other words, the more training teachers received, the less likely they would be to correctly implement the intended curriculum.

I believe that the above results were due to the nature of the professional development programs in the tertiary context of China. The professional development was believed to be the same as teacher education programs in China, but in fact the former focuses on gaining knowledge of pedagogy, and the latter focuses on teachers obtaining a graduate degree. Therefore, it may be assumed that teachers may not have believed in the usefulness of teacher education programs although they indicated that they were interested in attending them. Furthermore, such training programs did not appear to have contributed to teachers' implementation endeavours, according to this study. On the contrary, teachers were not apparently willing to implement the intended curriculum even if they obtained more training.

Richards and Farrell (2005) contended that the need for ongoing teacher education remains a recurring theme in language teaching field in the new century. Empirical studies regarding the role of teacher education generated different results: some positive and others negative. Fullan and Pomfret (1977) found that teachers who received in-service training had a higher degree of implementation than those who did not. Gahin and Myhill (2001) found that teachers who attended training courses on communicative approach (CA) were significantly more likely to make use of authentic materials consonant with CA. Similarly, Bailey (1992) found through surveys and interviews that teachers after training did change, but this change process was "slow, gradual, incomplete, partial, ongoing, evolutionary" (p. 276). In the context of China, Cheng and Wang (2004) found that secondary school English teachers preferred to learn about communicative language teaching and computer-based and assisted teaching

through professional development programs. Teachers in the current study expressed the same desires.

However, other researchers uncovered opposite findings on the role of teacher education. Young and Lee (1987) found that teachers who attended the in-service training revealed a slight change in their attitude by the end of the course, but the change was too small to be statistically significant. In his longitudinal study examining changes in teachers' beliefs about second language learning, Peacock (2001) found that no significant changes were present regarding some mistaken conceptions in pre-service ESL teachers after their three years of study in the Bachelor's program. He (1998) explored the implementation of the College English Syllabus within the Chinese context and found that the apprenticeship-like teacher training system in China failed to do much in changing teachers' perceptions, particularly their instructional behaviours in the classroom. Morris (1988) found that teachers in Hong Kong expressed favourable attitudes toward the more process-oriented teaching model during the training session, yet, in practice, these teachers reverted to their former type of teaching and did not implement the innovation whatsoever. All this suggests that teachers' beliefs and attitudes toward curriculum innovation are hard to change, and that even teacher education programs may not facilitate perception changes in teachers. This should remind Chinese administrators that they need to be aware of the two different possible outcomes when planning similar programs for their teachers.

### ***Summary of Factors***

The results from the regression analysis demonstrated that resource support, teaching methods (communicative language teaching and grammar-translation method),



teaching experience, language proficiency, and professional development needs are significant predictors that have more effect on teachers' curriculum implementation than other factors such as testing, textbooks, knowledge of innovation, and language learning background. Although previous studies as well as the interview data from administrators and teachers in this study all indicate the impact of testing on implementation, the above-mentioned factors from teacher surveys seemed to suggest that these factors are the attributing ones, which are exclusively related to teachers. These five significant factors signalled an implied message to policymakers and administrators: teachers play an indispensable role in innovation, and that these factors need to be taken into serious consideration when new policies are formulated, designed, and ultimately executed.

The results revealed that for high implementers, both external and internal factors turned out to be significant predictors, and that external factors negatively and internal factors positively predicted teachers' implementation activities in the classroom. This suggests that for this group of teachers who demonstrated high ability to implement curriculum expectations, the more influence they receive from external factors such as testing, textbooks, evaluation, and workloads the less likely they will be inclined to implement the curriculum. On the contrary, the more input they have from internal factors such as professional development, knowledge of syllabus, teaching methods, and teaching experience, the more they will implement the curriculum. Therefore, policymakers and administrators need to be aware of such influences, and strive by every means to reduce the external factors and maximize the internal ones for this group of implementers.

The findings did not fully support the literature reviewed in Chapter Two, where external factors—testing, textbooks, and teacher training—and internal factors—teachers’ beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, and understanding as well as teachers’ involvement and participation in the innovation—were considered to be the factors affecting implementation. I used these variables in my survey, however, none of these factors contributed to the prediction of teachers’ implementation. This seems to suggest that none of these were what Chinese English teachers actually needed to enact the curriculum policies.

Moreover, the poor regression results with lower variance (7.2% for external factors and 15.7% for internal factors) explaining implementation endeavours seems to inform us that other, unexplored, factors, be they external or internal, may play a role in teachers’ implementation activities in the classroom. For example, cultural orientation, teachers’ philosophy of teaching, influence of colleagues, teachers’ social status, economic reasons such as low pay, and teachers’ personal concerns and worries, all may exert certain impacts on teachers’ implementation. While these factors may not be perceived obviously, they may be embedded in the factors affecting teachers’ implementation efforts in teaching.

### *Summary of Chapter Five*

This chapter has discussed the research findings. It first discussed the different roles of the three major stakeholders, in this case, policymakers, administrators, and teachers, in curriculum policy implementation. Then it explored factors which may have facilitated or hindered teachers’ curriculum implementation efforts. The results revealed that one external and four internal factors were significant predictors contributing to

teachers' implementation activities: resource support, teaching methods (communicative language teaching and grammar-translation method), teaching experience, language proficiency, and professional development needs.

The next chapter, Chapter Six, will offer the implications of the study. It will address limitations and meanwhile point out future directions for research. Conclusions are also provided.

## CHAPTER 6

### IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter discusses the implications of the study and provides conclusions. It is composed of four sections. The first section deals with implications of the study for language education. The second section addresses the limitations of the current study. The third section points to some future directions of curriculum implementation research in English as a second or foreign language education. The final section contains conclusions based on the findings.

#### *Implications of the Study*

To date, very few large-scale empirical studies of tertiary language curriculum implementation have been conducted in China. Therefore, this study has implications for EFL language education in China as well as in other EFL contexts. This section discusses implications of my study within a wider context in the curriculum implementation field.

Previous studies have revealed that problems and challenges are likely to emerge when a proposed curriculum is implemented in local institutions (Brindley & Hood, 1990; Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; Snyder et al., 1992). In any educational jurisdiction, failing to attend to possible barriers precludes classroom teachers from following the guidelines expected by policymakers (Elmore & Sykes, 1992).

Realization of intended curriculum is often much more difficult than imagined; this is why policymakers expect teachers to adhere strictly to their plans. In fact, in many cases, implementing the intended curriculum literally may be impossible. The complexity is attributable to diverse causes. O'Sullivan (2002) argued that, in the case of English

teaching reforms in Namibia, the failure of policymakers to consider the realities of the local contexts the teachers worked in ensured that the implementation was superficial. Reforms were significantly beyond the teachers' capacity; consequently, teachers did not implement them. This non-implementation scenario reminds policymakers to be sensitive to local realities and needs. Bekalo and Welford (2000) found an inverse relationship between stated policy objectives and the teaching and learning activities prescribed in the textbooks, and between policymakers' intentions and the assessment practices. Their results revealed that the link between policy and practice was, at best, tenuous. In another example, from focus group discussions, Miller and Aldred (2000) explored student teachers' perceptions regarding the suitability and usability of communicative language teaching and also found a mismatch between ideals and reality in the language classrooms of Hong Kong.

My study confirmed what these researchers claimed. This research on Chinese college English education indicated that a gap exists between the intended EFL curriculum proposed by national language policymakers and the enacted curriculum practiced by classroom teachers. The two main disjunctions were the differences between policymakers and administrators and between the policymakers and teachers. Within the hierarchical structure, administrators expressed totally different perceptions of the national language policies from those expressed by policymakers, whereas teachers continually followed their own teaching beliefs, thereby not fully implementing the intended curriculum.

Furthermore, the vast majority of research conducted in the area of implementation has been focused on obtaining evidence as to why teachers failed to

implement the intended curriculum and how their beliefs and attitudes affected their efforts. For instance, Munn (1995) explained that Scottish policymakers' refusal to allow their teachers to participate in feasibility studies was the main reason that national testing was not satisfactorily implemented in the classroom there. Peacock (2001) found that ESL teachers at a Hong Kong university were still slow to change their beliefs towards language learning even after three years in the pre-service program. Young and Lee (1987) also found that, in response to curriculum innovation, EFL teachers showed resistance to changing their attitudes. These studies are useful in understanding what actually occurs during the attempted implementation process.

A focus on uncovering factors in a particular context seems vital to successful implementation. By discovering what has facilitated or impeded teachers' faithful implementation, policymakers and administrators will be able to come up with strategies that will engage teachers in appropriate professional development programs that support enactment. These measures will hopefully transform teachers into practitioners of new curricula in a gradual and ongoing manner. For instance, the current study looked into external and internal factors which may have affected teachers' implementation in the Chinese tertiary context. These factors were further explored through statistical analysis to find out which factors had more effect.

Several studies examined factors that facilitate or hinder curriculum implementation in EFL contexts, for instance, Carless' (2003) study in Hong Kong, O'Sullivan's (2002) in Namibia, and Gahin and Myhill's (2001) in Egypt. My study also focused on uncovering factors affecting teachers' fidelity to curriculum implementation. What was unique was that I investigated which factors contributed more to the prediction

of teachers' implementation endeavours. My research findings revealed that external and internal factors such as resource support, teaching methods, teaching experience, teachers' language proficiency, and teachers' professional development needs had the most impact. These findings challenge some studies which suggest that tests have been the most significant factor in curriculum implementation (Gorsuch, 2000; Turner, 2000).

Although my findings are limited because I focused my research on only six universities in one city in China, the results point to both the importance of teacher professional development programs and the necessary changes in the existing training programs. As Chinese TEFL experts (Hu, 2005; Wu, 2001; Yu, 2001) have noted, teacher training is the most urgent issue that stakeholders in language education have to face. Moreover, a better way to ensure that the intended curriculum is smoothly implemented may be to initiate a close scrutiny of potential problems beforehand, so that elements potentially affecting teachers' implementation efforts can be identified. Identification of these factors would help policymakers become aware of the potential problems, and consequently enable them to take measures to eliminate the impediments.

### ***Limitations of the Study***

The current study has some limitations. They involve the absence of students' perspectives, the generalization of the study, and the language and cultural factors affecting the processes of data collection and interpretation. Each limitation is addressed below.

#### ***Absence of Students' Perspectives***

Curriculum activities in any educational jurisdiction must involve students. Therefore, the final evaluation of any new curriculum implementation will depend on

whether the newly-enacted curriculum promotes students' learning or not. As indicators of any curriculum outcomes, the students' perceptions of curriculum implementation may eventually determine the extent to which the intended curriculum is successfully implemented and further sustained. I did not include students in this study for the following three reasons.

First, to best address the four research questions, and uncover the discrepancy between the two curricula, my primary participants were policymakers, administrators, and classroom teachers. The intended curriculum entailed the essential participation of the policymakers, who proposed language policies at the national level. As well, the perceptions of the administrators at the departmental level regarding the intended curriculum were also necessary to explore the rationale of local regulations stipulated and practiced at the university level.

Second, teachers as curriculum implementers determined what and how the intended curriculum was played out in the classroom. Their perceptions explained and elaborated on the enacted curriculum and further demonstrated the implementation reality in their working context.

Third, due to the hierarchical structure of the Chinese educational system, students in fact have little input in curriculum implementation. Therefore, I focused exclusively on the three groups of people mentioned above, and left students' perspectives for future research.

### ***Generalization of the Study***

As discussed in the methodology chapter, the sampling techniques involved purposive sampling. This non-probability strategy, to a large extent, decreases the



generalizability of the research findings to other Chinese contexts. In addition to national policymakers, my research involved university department heads and EFL teachers in six universities located in Xi'an city, in the north-western part of China. China is a large country with 23 provinces, five autonomous regions, four centrally administrative municipalities, and two special administrative regions. Particularly, there are 1,571 universities and colleges located in China's 600-plus cities (<http://www.edu.cn>). Such a large area means that college English education in that country exhibits, depending on region, variations with regard to teachers' capacities, students' origins, facilities and materiel support, and research capacities. This diversity also indicates that teachers from different areas may hold different perspectives towards college English teaching and learning in general, and may perceive other, different factors facilitating or impeding their own curriculum implementation activities in the classroom. Therefore, the research findings in this study will not be generalizable to all other universities across a vast country like China. There is, however, no reason to assume that the sample and the analysis in this current study are atypical.

### ***Language and Cultural Factors***

The language employed in the interviews with policymakers, administrators, and EFL teachers was primarily Chinese (Mandarin). Although all my participants were teachers of English at the tertiary level and could speak fluent English, they unanimously chose to use Chinese when invited to voice their perspectives regarding college English education. In all of the interviews, I asked the questions in Mandarin and emphasized some key words in the interview questions first in Chinese and then in English, to ensure that the interviewees understood what I referred to. The responses provided by the

participants were mostly in Mandarin, with occasional use of English to clarify some key terms in language curriculum or illustrate an idea with precise explanation. For example, a number of policymakers and administrators mentioned the concepts of “learner-centred,” “group work,” “presentation” in English, concepts which have been discussed extensively in the literature regarding ESL and EFL curricula.

I translated all 12 interview tapes with the policymakers, administrators, and EFL teachers into English and omitted unrelated talking, such as greetings at the beginning of the interviews. I am a native born Chinese, have received my formative education in China, and taught English for over 14 years before pursuing my graduate studies in Canada. However, my bilingual proficiency does not mean equality in processing these two languages. I have come across difficulties in demonstrating interviewees’ unique style of talking, their choice of words, and their distinct way of expressing their standpoints. This, to a certain extent, weakens the vividness of the interview data collected during my translation.

### *Implications for Future Research*

Specifically, four aspects need to be taken into consideration for future research into this topic. These aspects will involve the important curriculum players in either ESL or EFL context: (1) middle-level managers, the facilitators of curriculum policy implementation; (2) teachers, the decision makers in the classroom; and (3) students, the receivers of the curriculum.

First, as has been discussed in this chapter, the administrators functioned as the intermediaries, who were responsible for interpreting the curriculum policies and who bore the responsibility for helping classroom teachers put the policies into practice. In my

study, their facilitating roles seemed to fall apart: they failed to understand the national policies and they also did not understand what teachers really needed for proper implementation. Therefore, future research should place a focus on this group of players, i.e., what support mechanisms can be established for administrators to help them better understand the policies, and how can administrators work with teachers to design a practical and useful curriculum to facilitate teachers' implementation?

Second, future research should also place a focus on teacher preparation and accountability, such as ongoing endeavours to reform teacher education and professionalize teaching. Specifically, in an EFL context such as China's, teacher educators, and especially local administrators should consider how to develop professional development (PD) programs with more pedagogical support. Since the current study demonstrated that teachers' primary professional development goals included working on their graduate degrees, learning communicative language teaching and computer-assisted teaching, more emphasis should be placed on PD programs teachers actually need.

Third, to investigate factors affecting curriculum implementation in a particular context, future research should be expanded to include other variables in the questionnaire in terms of external and internal factors. In my study, multiple regression analyses revealed that the effect of the total contributing factors was weak, with only 7% of the external and 15% of the internal factors accounting for the total variance in implementation; a very small portion of teachers' implementation activities. This suggests that some predictor variables might not have been taken into account. Therefore, in future curriculum implementation studies, more questionnaire items with wider

dimensions are needed to uncover which factors have more impact on teachers. These dimensions may include teachers' philosophies of teaching, factors such as teachers' income and social status, and influence of colleagues. As well, I would recommend the use of larger-scale surveys, involving more EFL teacher participants from multiple sites.

Fourth, the perceptions of the curriculum implementation of the students, as the receivers of any curriculum outcomes, may eventually determine whether the intended curriculum is successfully implemented or not. This means that future research should also focus on investigating how students respond to curriculum innovation during the implementation process, and whether or not the enacted curriculum promotes their learning. Such endeavours may produce a fuller and more realistic picture of how curriculum implementation influences students' learning in both ESL and EFL contexts and thereby provide evidence of whether or not the implementation has been successful.

### *Conclusions*

The current study explored the intended and the enacted curriculum through interviews with policymakers and administrators as well as through questionnaire surveys and classroom observations with EFL teachers. The major findings are as follows. The policymakers designed more open-ended curriculum policies, apparently with a view to providing local administrators and teachers more flexibility and versatility in local implementations. However, the middle-level managers at the local sites interpreted the national policies independently, and differently, from as had been intended. In the absence of understanding of the curriculum, they chose to focus on the outcomes—students' test scores—as the focus of classroom instruction, rather than having a more student-centred English speaking program (product vs. process). Furthermore, as

intermediaries, they failed to support their teachers in first, understanding the teachers' needs, and second, providing those teachers with the support necessary for them to carry out the new policy. Teachers were therefore frustrated about what to do and how to do it in terms of the new policy.

Between policymakers and implementers a gap seems to exist. While national language policies exerted a certain impact on teachers' classroom teaching, teachers followed the more concrete regulations from their own universities. These rules had more impact on their teaching, in that disobeying them might rule out teachers' practical benefits such as monetary rewards or academic promotions. In addition, the mismatch between the intended curriculum and the enacted curriculum was clearly reflected in the following. The intended curriculum was designed with the intention that students take the CET voluntarily. It also expected teachers to have a thorough understanding of the syllabus, and lastly, a close adherence to the teaching approaches recommended in the textbooks. However, the findings indicated that, contrary to the expressed design of the syllabus, classroom teachers carried out instruction based on their classroom reality, by mainly following first the testing syllabus and then the textbooks. They could be said to have only partially implemented the intended curriculum. On the one hand, they implemented the administrators' regulations by focusing on developing students' reading skills. On the other hand, they failed to adhere to the intended curriculum as expected by the national policymakers, for instance, a more learner-centred approach, entire use of the target language in classroom teaching, and more cultivation of students' communication abilities.

Surprisingly, the study provided evidence that the most significant factor contributing to teachers' curriculum implementation was not the testing, as had been suggested in the literature. Revisiting Figure 2 in Chapter Two on page 72, I recognize that my hypothesized model did in fact reveal a pattern in terms of teachers' implementation efforts. To be more exact, external factors such as resource support, and internal factors such as teaching methods in terms of communicative language teaching and grammar-translation, teaching experience, teachers' language proficiency, and professional development needs, turned out to be the significant factors affecting teachers' curriculum implementation activities in the classroom. Apparently, the internal factors are all closely related with teachers: teaching methods that they use in instruction, their English proficiency, years of teaching, and finally their PD needs. This should relay an important message to both policymakers and administrators, which is, in order to decrease the "policy drift" (Lewis et al., 2003), more attention must be paid to teachers, who are the actual implementers. Their change or improvement in these aspects will exert a significant impact on the implementation outcomes.

This study reinforces the point that implementation is a very complex matter (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; Snyder et al., 1992). Any coherent language curriculum will have to reconcile what is desirable—policy—and what is acceptable and possible—practice (Johnson, 1989). It is naive to believe that good intentions alone toward improving both teaching and learning will result in desirable results, and that teachers' commitment to change is unquestionable simply because they understand the benefits. As Marsh (1986) said, "It cannot be expected that teachers will automatically implement a curriculum according to the intentions of the developer" (p. 19). Therefore, prior to

implementation of any new curriculum policy, a detailed analysis of existing systems, especially the different cultures of organization and the contexts where teachers work should be conducted (White, 1988).

More importantly, to ensure smooth implementation, it needs to be remembered that the role of administrators is critical. They bear dual responsibilities, of interpreting accurately the policies from the top, and of providing the teachers with constructive professional development programs and other supports. The administrators in this study failed to support teachers in understanding and carrying out the policy. I conclude, however, that this mismatch may have been unavoidable during the implementation process. I would suggest in a case like this, however, that the expectation of a close match between the intended and the enacted curriculum by policymakers and administrators who have articulated and operationalized policies and regulations at different levels is unreasonable. To minimize conflicts caused by trying to match two inherently incompatible curricula (Connelly & Lantz, 1991), there has to be mutual adaptation (Berman, 1978; Berman & McLaughlin, 1980; Darling-Hammond, 1990; McLaughlin, 1976). That is, in the EFL context of China, national policies should be adapted, rather than simply adopted, by middle-level managers as well as classroom teachers, so that the intended curriculum is implemented to suit teachers' as well as students' needs. Hopefully this mutual adaptation will allow administrators and teachers alike to become motivated to produce and follow policies that are in alignment with the nationally proposed curriculum, yet, at the same time, will adequately and comfortably reflect their local situations.

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## Appendices

### A: College English Teaching Syllabus

#### College English Syllabus

(For Students of Arts and Sciences in Institutions Higher Learning)

#### I. Target Students

This syllabus is designed for students of arts and sciences in institutions of higher learning. It is expected that before the students are enrolled they will have already acquired a minimum competence in pronunciation and grammar as well as a vocabulary of 1,600 words. Of this number, the students are required to know the correct spelling and the basic meaning and usage of about 1,200 words. The students are also assumed to have received elementary training in the skills of reading, listening, writing and speaking.

#### II. Objectives

College English aims to develop in students a relatively high level of competence in reading, an intermediate level of competence in listening and a basic competence in writing and speaking. After completion of the course, the students should be able to use the English they have learned as a means to obtain whatever information they need in their fields of specialization and also as a solid foundation for further improvement of their command of the language.

#### III. Requirements

College English is divided into two stages: the Foundation Stage and the Specialized Stage. The requirements for these two stages are set as follows:

##### A. Foundation Stage

This stage is subdivided into 6 progressive bands called College English Bands 1-6 (CEBs1-6). As students admitted to this course may well have different levels of competence in English, requirements for the completion of this stage have been set at two levels. Those who have successfully completed the first four bands are considered to have met the basic requirements, whereas those who have passed CEB 6 are regarded as having met the higher requirements.

##### 1. Basic Requirements

1) *Pronunciation*: The students should be able to read aloud with acceptable pronunciation and intonation.

2) *Vocabulary*: The students should be able to recognize 4,000 words and a certain number of the most frequently used phrases. They should also be able to guess the meaning of unknown words with the help of basic rules of word formation. Of the 4,000 words, they are required to know the correct spelling and the basic meaning and usage of 2,300.

3) *Grammar*: The students should increase their basic knowledge of grammar with the emphasis on developing their ability to use this knowledge for communicative purposes.

4) *Reading*: The students should be able to employ basic reading skills and read with ease texts on general topics at intermediate level. The reading speed should be no less than 50 wpm. For less difficult texts, with new vocabulary not exceeding 2% of the total number of words, the reading speed should be around 90 wpm with at least 70% accuracy in comprehension.

5) *Listening*: The students should be able to follow classroom instruction in English. In addition, they should be able to understand listening materials on familiar topics presented only once at a speed of 120 wpm. These materials should have very few new words and should be relatively simpler than texts for reading. The students should score no less than 70% accuracy in comprehension.

6) *Writing*: Provided with some guidance, the students should be able to complete in 30 minutes a short composition of 100-120 words on a given topic. The composition should be written with coherence and without any serious grammatical mistakes.

7) *Speaking*: The students should be able to carry on daily conversations in simple English and to ask and answer questions based on a given text.

## **2. Higher Requirements**

1) *Vocabulary*: The students should be able to recognize 5,300 words and a certain number of frequently used phrases. Of the given number, they are required to know the correct spelling and the basic meaning and usage of about 2,800 words.

2) *Reading*: The students should be able to employ relatively advanced reading skills and read with ease more advanced texts on general topics. The reading speed should be no less than 70 wpm. For less difficult texts, with new vocabulary not exceeding 3% of the total number of words, the reading speed should be no less than 120 wpm, with a minimum comprehension of 70%.

3) *Listening*: The students should be able to understand listening materials on familiar topics with a minimum comprehension of 70%. These materials should have very few new words and should be presented only once at a speed of 140 wpm.

4) *Writing*: The students should be able to write coherent short composition (such as abstracts) of 120-150 words within 30 minutes.

5) *Speaking*: With preparation beforehand, the students should be able to talk briefly about the content of a text or a specific question under discussion. They should, by and large, be able to get their ideas across to the listeners.

## **B. Specialized Stage**

By the end of this stage, the students should have met the following requirements:

1) They should be able to read with ease articles and books relevant to their own fields of specialization.

2) They should be able to read the above mentioned materials at a speed of no less than 70 wpm with at least 70% accuracy in comprehension.

3) The total amount of their reading should be no less than 250,000 words.



## IV. Course Structure

### A. Foundation Stage

The number of class hours in this stage should be no less than 280 distributed over the first four semesters in college. Each band is equivalent to one semester's work, preferably with 4 class hours per week and at least two hours devoted to homework after each hour in class.

A placement test should be given before the start of the course in order to put the student into suitable bands. In most cases students start from CEB 1 and continue until they complete CEB 4. Those who start from CEB 2 or 3 must continue to study through CEB 5 or 6 respectively.

Students will be reassigned according to their performance to a suitable band at the end of each semester or academic year. Any capable student with good marks may take the test for a higher band than his own. If he passes, he may skip the band.

(Refer to Table I for full specifications of this stage.)

### B. Specialized Stage

To ensure continuity in English learning and to help students do specialized reading in English for gathering information in their own fields, a specialized reading course should be offered from the 5th semester on through the 7th by teachers from relevant discipline. This will be a compulsory course with two class hours per week.

Specialized reading can also be handled in the following two ways:

- 1) Using a relevant English textbook in teaching a specialized course.
- 2) Assigning English reference books for outside reading in teaching a specialized course.

### C. Optional Courses

If conditions permit, optional courses at a more advanced level may be offered from the 3rd year on. However, optional courses should by no means replace the specialized reading course.

#### Some suggested optional courses

Courses	Qualifications of the Participants
College English Band 5	Those who have passed CEB 4
College English Band 6	Those who have passed CEB 5
Selected Readings in different types of literature	Those who have at least passed CEB 4
Translation	ditto
Advanced Listening	ditto
Advanced Conversation	ditto
Writing Skills	ditto

## **D. College English Preparatory Stage**

For those students whose level of English is lower than that required for CEB 1, two College English preparatory bands have been set up. They are called College English Sub-Bands 1 and 2 (CESBs 1-2).

For CESB 1, the students are required to have undergone a preliminary training in pronunciation and grammar and to have a vocabulary of 700 words of which they are required to know the correct spelling and the basic meaning and usage of 500. For CESB 2 the students are required to have a vocabulary of 1,100 words besides having had a preliminary training in pronunciation and grammar. Of the 1,100 words, they should know the correct spelling and the basic meaning and usage of 850.

As key universities those who start from CESB 1 or 2 must continue to study from CEB 1 through CEB 4. As for other universities, it is left to them to decide the minimal requirement for graduation.

(Refer to Table II for full specifications.)

## **V. Some Guidelines for College English Teaching**

### **A. To lay emphasis on a good foundation of the language**

Although the English used in different disciplines has some different characteristics, it has after all the same basic vocabulary, basic functions and notions, which are generally known as the common core. At the Foundation Stage emphasis must be laid on the teaching of the common core so as to help students lay a good foundation for competent reading in their specialities, for the development of their ability to use English as a tool to obtain whatever information they need and for further improvement of their communicative competence both in oral and written English.

With the advance of society, the development of frontier disciplines, the mutual infiltration between natural and social sciences, and the diversity in the sources of technical information, students of liberal arts should know more about natural sciences while students of natural sciences ought to know more about liberal arts and the humanities. This has set higher demands for English teaching and for the setting of students' English upon a more solid foundation. Hence the necessity of preparing a unified syllabus and developing teaching materials designed for students of both natural sciences and liberal arts.

To help students lay a good foundation in the language, the teaching materials should have a diversity in content and form. Besides choosing stories and articles of general interest and in standard English, efforts should also be made to select as teaching materials readings in various subjects, such as popular science, literature, history, philosophy, economics, etc. Whatever the material, it must be conducive to the building of a solid foundation in the language.

### **B. To attach importance to the development of communicative competence**

Language is a tool for communication, and the ultimate aim of language teaching is to foster students' ability to communicate both orally and through written channels. In the process of teaching, therefore, the teacher should not only impart necessary knowledge about the language but also help the students read extensively and engage in other forms of communication using as a tool the language they have learned and the skills they have acquired. Language teaching should not only aim at the development of the students' linguistic competence but also at the development of their communicative competence. Importance should be attached both to language training at sentence level and to the gradual improvement of students' communicative competence at discourse level.

### **C. To have a proper balance between reading on the one hand and listening, writing and speaking on the other**

To increase in international exchange, the steady rise in students' entry level of English and the gradual popularization of audio-visual aids and materials make it necessary as well as possible to cultivate students' abilities in listening, writing and speaking besides developing in them a relatively high level of reading ability. As has been proved empirically the development of reading ability is interdependent with that of the other three abilities. To have some training in listening, writing and speaking will surely help improve students' ability to read.

### **D. To help students acquire fluency in the language**

In fostering students' abilities to read, listen, write and speak, attention should be paid not only to accuracy, but also to fluency. Accuracy and fluency are closely related. Desirable fluency cannot be acquired without accuracy; whereas without fluency, communication can hardly be efficient. In teaching, therefore, it is necessary to help the two in balance. But at present, special importance should be attached to the enhancement of fluency so that students will acquire communicative competence as soon as possible and will further improve their accuracy gradually in the process of communication.

### **E. To adopt a suitable teaching approach on the basis of actual conditions**

Any language teaching approach is the product of certain historical and social circumstances. In teaching college English, strong points should be drawn from different approaches. Different approaches should be adopted for different students, different stages and different purposes. But consideration must first be given to the specific conditions of our country. No matter what approach or method is adopted, it is necessary to bring into full play the initiative of the students and to develop their ability to do independent work.

**F. To create a favourable language environment**

Practical experience indicates that the creation of a favourable language environment in which students may have the fullest possible exposure to English, both oral and written, will help strengthen their language feeling and develop their abilities to read, listen, write and speak. Teachers, therefore, should conduct classroom teaching as much in English as possible. While making efforts to improve teaching in class, they should help students read extensively after class. Besides, they should also try their best to create conditions favourable for setting up “second classroom,” and encourage students to participate in all kinds of extracurricular activities in English.

**G. To utilize modern teaching aids**

Modern teaching aids, such as tape-recordings, videotapes, television, films and computers, will not only help improve the quality of English teaching, but also partly make up for the shortage of teaching staff. Therefore, they should be popularized and utilized fully. Meanwhile, experiments and research work in teaching English with audio-visual aids and computer technology should be carried further and attention should also be directed to the development of software for teaching purposes.

**VI. Testing**

1. Language testing should focus on students' basic language skills, and it should aim to be scientific, objective, unified and standardized.
2. Tests should be given at the end of each band of the Foundation Stage. For CEB 4 and CEB 6, unified tests will be given on a nationwide basis in accordance with the requirements laid down in this syllabus. In the students' academic records both the band passed and the score achieved should be entered.
3. At the end of the Specialized Reading Stage, the department concerned must arrange for students to take a test in their specialized reading ability. The scores they achieve are also to be registered in their academic records.
4. For optional courses, tests should also be given and scores registered.

## B: A Sample Text of "Reading and Writing" in College English Course

## READING-CENTERED ACTIVITIES

LOVE

## Part Three Reading-Centered Activities

## A Good Heart to Lean On

## I. Word List

**Directions:** Memorize the words and phrases before class. You will benefit from your effort when you get the passage from your teacher and read it in class.

New Words

- activity**<sup>4</sup> /æk'tɪvətɪ/ *n.* something you spend time doing for interest or pleasure 活动  
*e.g.* I) There is usually little political activity in August.  
 II) The old people can join in various organized activities, such as sight-seeing tours and theatre visits.
- adjust**<sup>4</sup> /ə'dʒʌst/ *v.* change slightly, especially in order to make it more effective or more suitable 调整  
*e.g.* The body adjusts itself to changes in temperature.
- balance**<sup>4</sup> /bæləns/ *n.* the state in which all parts are of equal weight; steadiness 平衡  
*e.g.* You need a good sense of balance to ride a bicycle.
- baseball**<sup>4</sup> /'beɪsbɔ:l/ *n.* 棒球
- basement**<sup>6</sup> /'beɪsmənt/ *n.* 地下室
- bother**<sup>\*</sup> /'bɒðə(r)/ *v.* annoy someone by interrupting them 麻烦, 打扰  
*e.g.* Danny, stop bothering me while I'm trying to work.
- bout** /baʊt/ *n.* a boxing or wrestling match 拳击或摔跤比赛
- cling**<sup>6</sup> /klɪŋ/ *v.* (*clung, clung*) hold tightly 紧紧抓住  
*e.g.* The two lost children clung tightly to each other.
- complain**<sup>4</sup> /kəm'pleɪn/ *v.* say that something is wrong or not satisfactory 抱怨  
*e.g.* He complains about anything—his job, his wife, his back and everything.
- complaint**<sup>4</sup> /kəm'pleɪnt/ *n.* 抱怨, 怨言  
*e.g.* We've made a complaint to the police about the noise.
- content**<sup>\*</sup> /kən'tent/ *adj.* happy and satisfied 满足的  
*e.g.* I) He seems to have been content to live and work in this province.  
 II) The girl appeared content with the small world her parents had constructed for her.
- coordinate**<sup>4</sup> /kəʊ'ɔ:dɪneɪt/ *v.* make various things work effectively as a whole 协调  
*e.g.* As the disease progresses, the patient loses the ability to coordinate his or her movements.
- crippled**<sup>\*</sup> /'krɪpld/ *adj.* handicapped, disabled 跛的, 拐的, 伤残的
- despite**<sup>4</sup> /dɪ'spaɪt/ *prep.* in spite of 尽管  
*e.g.* Despite the difference in their ages they were good friends.
- embarrassed**<sup>\*</sup> /ɪm'bærəst/ *adj.* ashamed, nervous or uncomfortable 尴尬的  
*e.g.* She was embarrassed when they asked her age.
- engage**<sup>4</sup> /ɪn'geɪdʒ/ *v.* take part or become involved in an ac-

## UNIT ONE

## READING-CENTERED ACTIVITIES

- tivity 从事  
*e.g.* In his spare time he engages in voluntary work.
- envious** /'enviəs/ *adj.* jealous 妒忌的, 嫉妒的  
*e.g.* I'm very envious of your new coat—it's lovely.
- envy**<sup>4</sup> /'envi/ *n.* 嫉妒  
*e.g.* They felt a lot of envy towards the youngest sister because she was so pretty and popular.
- fortune**\* /'fɔ:tʃən/ *n.* 命运, 运气  
*e.g.* I ) I was excited and delighted by my good fortune.  
 II ) My fame was assured, my fortune guaranteed, I thought.
- fortunate**\* /'fɔ:tʃənət/ *adj.* lucky  
*e.g.* We are extremely fortunate in having the support of the general public behind us.
- frustration**\* /frʌ'streɪʃən/ *n.* 沮丧, 挫折感  
*e.g.* Mary watched in frustration as her team lost yet again.
- halting** /'hɔ:ltɪŋ/ *adj.* slow, stopping and starting repeatedly 一瘸一拐的
- handrail** /'hændreɪl/ *n.* (楼梯等的) 扶手, 栏杆
- impatient**<sup>4</sup> /ɪm'peɪʃənt/ *adj.* annoyed because you have had to wait too long for something 不耐烦的  
*e.g.* Susan is impatient and refuses to wait in line for anything.
- indignity** /ɪn'dɪgnəti/ *n.* something that makes you feel very ashamed, unimportant, and not respected 侮辱
- kid**<sup>4</sup> /kɪd/ *v.* tease in a joking way 开玩笑, 取笑  
*e.g.* You are kidding, aren't you?
- lean**<sup>4</sup> /li:n/ *v.* depend on someone or something for support and encouragement 依靠  
*e.g.* It's good to know you've got friends to lean on.
- local**<sup>4</sup> /'ləʊkəl/ *adj.* 当地的, 本地的  
*e.g.* Our children all go to the local school.
- lower**<sup>4</sup> /'ləʊə(r)/ *adj.* 较低的  
*e.g.* Nina chewed her lower lip anxiously. 尼娜焦虑地咬着下嘴唇。
- marvel** /'mɑ:vəl/ *v.* be filled with surprise and admiration 惊叹
- memorable** /'memərəbl/ *adj.* worth remembering or likely to be remembered; unforgettable 值得记住的
- nasty**<sup>6</sup> /'nɑ:sti/ *adj.* very unpleasant to see, experience, or feel 恶劣的, 令人极不愉快的  
*e.g.* There's a nasty smell—has someone left the gas on?
- navy**<sup>4</sup> /'neɪvi/ *n.* military force that fights at sea 海军
- occasion**<sup>4</sup> /ə'keɪʒən/ *n.* a case of something happening or the time when it happens 场合  
*e.g.* I met him only on one occasion. It was at a party.
- pace**<sup>4</sup> /peɪs/ *n.* the speed at which you walk or run or travel by car or bicycle 节奏  
*e.g.* If you're going to walk a long way, it's better to start out at a fairly slow pace.
- participate**<sup>4</sup> /pɑ:'tɪsɪpeɪt/ *v.* take part in an activity or event 参与  
*e.g.* Everyone in the class is expected to participate in these discussions.
- precisely**\* /prɪ'saɪsli/ *adv.* accurately and exactly 精确地  
*e.g.* The play begins at eight o'clock precisely.
- punch**<sup>4</sup> /pʌntʃ/ *v.* hit someone or something hard with your fist 用拳猛击  
*e.g.* I punched him in the stomach.
- reluctance**\* /rɪ'lʌktəns/ *n.* unwillingness to do something 不情愿  
*e.g.* The offer was accepted with great reluctance.
- severely**\* /sɪ'verɪli/ *adv.* very badly or to a great degree 严重地  
*e.g.* The building was severely damaged in the bombing.
- shove**<sup>4</sup> /ʃʌv/ *v.* push someone or something in a rough or careless way, using your hands and shoulders 猛推  
*e.g.* Reporters pushed and shoved as they tried to get close to the princess.
- sleigh** /sleɪ/ *n.* 雪橇
- stress**<sup>4</sup> /stres/ *n.* great worry, tension or anxiety caused by a difficult situation 压力, 紧张  
*e.g.* People under a lot of stress may experience headaches, minor pains and sleeping difficulties.
- subway**<sup>4</sup> /'sʌbweɪ/ *n.* 地铁
- trifle**<sup>6</sup> /'traɪfl/ *n.* something unimportant or without value 微不足道的事情  
*e.g.* We couldn't decide whether to order black pens or

## READING-CENTERED ACTIVITIES

## LOVE

blue—such are the trifles of office life.

**tunnel**<sup>4</sup> /'tʌnəl/ *n.* 隧道

**unaided**<sup>\*</sup> /ˌʌn'eɪdɪd/ *adj.* without help 没有帮助的

*e.g.* After his accident he was barely able to dress or go to the toilet unaided.

**unworthy** /ˌʌn'wɜːðɪ/ *adj.* lacking worth or merit 无价值的; 没有优点的

**urge**<sup>4</sup> /ɜːdʒ/ *v.* ask or advise someone very strongly to do something 催促

*e.g.* They urged that the library be kept open during the holidays.

**vicariously** /vɪ'keəriəslɪ/ *adv.* 间接感受到地

*e.g.* Chicago Bulls fans experienced Michael Jordan's victories vicariously.

Phrases and Expressions

**break out** 爆发, 突然发生

*e.g.* A bad fire broke out in the supermarket.

**engage in** take part or become involved in an activity 从事, 参与

*e.g.* If you engage in local politics, you cannot expect to have much time for your family.

**let on** tell someone something that was intended to be a secret; reveal 泄露秘密

*e.g.* Don't let on that I told you.

**make it to** arrive somewhere in time for something 及时赶到

*e.g.* I just made it to the airport before the plane left.

我正好在飞机起飞之前赶到了机场。

**now that** 既然

*e.g.* Now that dinner is ready, wash your hands.

**on leave** on holiday 休假

*e.g.* I) He is home on leave from the Navy.

II) He informed him that he was on sick leave from a government office.

**see to it that** 确保

*e.g.* I) Catherine saw to it that the information went directly to Walter.

II) See to it that you are not late again.

**set the pace** 定速度

*e.g.* If we let the fastest runner set the pace the others will be left behind.

**subject ... to** make someone experience something, especially something unpleasant 使承受, 使遭受

*e.g.* He subjected us to a very difficult test.

**II. Pre-Reading**

**Directions:** Discuss the following questions in pairs.

- 1) How do you feel when you walk on the street and see a disabled person?
- 2) Do you know anyone who is disabled? If you do, talk about him/her.

## UNIT ONE

## READING-CENTERED ACTIVITIES

**III. Passage Reading**

**Directions:** *Get the passage from your teacher and read it on your own. You should finish it within 12 minutes. Record the time you actually take.*

**Notes:**

1. take a dive (美俚)(拳击中)假装被击倒

This phrase comes from professional boxing when one boxer is paid (in secret) by gamblers (赌博者) to lose, so the gamblers can win their bets (赌注). In other words, the match has been "fixed" (被不正当的手段操纵).

2. see to it that 确保

- e. g. 1) It's up to you to see (to it) that the job is done properly.  
 2) Please see (to it) that the room is cleaned before you leave.  
 3) Please see to it that no one comes in without identification.  
 4) The receptionist said he would see that she got the message.  
 5) See that you're ready by five.

**IV. Post-Reading****Reading Comprehension****1. Understanding the Structure**

**Directions:** *The passage can be divided into four parts. You are given the paragraph numbers of each part and the main topics. Read through the story and find the right topic for each part.*

Paragraphs	Topics
Para. 1~4	a. The son's comment on the father's personality.
Para. 5~7	b. The father's attempt to experience things directly or indirectly.
Para. 8~11	c. The father's physical condition and how he managed to get to work.
Para. 12~13	d. The father's influence on his son.

**2. Directions:** *Read through the passage and answer the following questions.*

- 1) What would people do when they saw the father and the son walking together?

- 2) How did the son feel at the time?

- 3) What was the father's reaction?



## READING-CENTERED ACTIVITIES

## LOVE

- 4) How did the father get to the subway station when the weather was fine?  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 5) How did the father go to the subway station on snowy days?  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 6) What hobbies did the father have?  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 7) What did he ask the others to do at the beach party when a fight broke out?  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 8) How did the father feel about his son?  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 9) How did the son feel about his father after his father had been gone for years?  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 10) What did the son learn from his father?  
\_\_\_\_\_

**3. Directions:** Complete the following sentences with the most appropriate answer.

- 1) The son was embarrassed to be seen with his father because \_\_\_\_\_.
- A. his father was shorter than he  
B. his father was too heavy  
C. his father was crippled  
D. he thought his father was too quiet
- 2) The sentence "You set the pace. I will try to adjust to you." in Paragraph 2 means \_\_\_\_\_.
- A. "The son decides on the speed and the father will try to walk at the same speed."  
B. "The son walks first and the father will try to follow him."  
C. "The son stops so that the father can try to change the way he walks."  
D. "The son decides which way to go and the father will try to go that way."
- 3) Father took pride in \_\_\_\_\_.
- A. having a job in Manhattan  
B. having his children help him to go to work  
C. being able to get to work in bad weather  
D. doing a better job than other people in his office
- 4) The father \_\_\_\_\_.
- A. walked from Brooklyn to Manhattan to work  
B. lived in Brooklyn and worked in Manhattan  
C. worked in a basement office in Manhattan  
D. worked for the subway company in Manhattan
- 5) We may conclude from Paragraph 5 that a grown man \_\_\_\_\_.

## UNIT ONE

## READING-CENTERED ACTIVITIES

- A. is always under stress  
 B. always suffers from indignity  
 C. often complains about his misfortune  
 D. would find it hard to behave like the father
- 6) The word "owner" (l.22) refers to \_\_\_\_\_.
- A. a person with a good heart  
 B. a more fortunate or able person  
 C. the father himself  
 D. a person who knows what a good heart is
- 7) Which of the following is true according to the passage?
- A. The father once played baseball for the local baseball team.  
 B. The father once helped to manage the local baseball team.  
 C. The father had helped the Brooklyn Dodgers.  
 D. The father had to sit for a while after dancing.
- 8) The sentence "I'll fight anyone who will sit down with me! (Para.9)" is closest in meaning to \_\_\_\_\_
- A. "Nobody should sit down, or I'll fight him!"  
 B. "Stop fighting! Everybody should sit down!"  
 C. "I'd like to fight somebody, but we will sit down to fight!"  
 D. "Everyone should sit down and fight me!"
- 9) After the son joined the Navy, \_\_\_\_\_.
- A. he made it a rule to visit his father's office every time he came home  
 B. his father went with him on holidays  
 C. his father started to introduce his son to his co-workers  
 D. his father would like his son to visit his office every time he came home
- 10) When the narrator says "I'm sorry I never told him how sorry I was", he means that "\_\_\_\_\_."
- A. I regret that I never apologized to my father before he died  
 B. I regret I never really understood what sorry means  
 C. I apologized to my father for my reluctance to walk with him  
 D. I apologized to my father for the lack of a good heart

## READING-CENTERED ACTIVITIES

## LOVE

## 4. Reference Words

**Directions:** Find the reference words listed below in the passage. Then write the words or phrases referred to in the space provided.

Reference words	Words or phrases referred to
1) that (l.6)	
2) (believe) that (is) (l.23)	
3) one (l.25)	
4) it (l.27)	
5) did (l.35)	
6) (have done) this (l.40)	
7) did (l.43)	
8) it (l.44)	

## 5. Questions for Discussion

**Directions:** Work in groups to discuss the following questions.

- 1) What do you think makes a good heart?
- 2) What did you learn from this article about the relationship between the father and the son?
- 3) How and why does the son's attitude change?
- 4) If you were the son, how would you feel towards the father?

## Vocabulary

**1. Directions:** Complete the sentences with the words or phrases given in the box. Change the form if necessary.

embarrass   bother   adjust   coordinate   halt   subject  
engage   urge   participate   complain   kid   see to it that

- 1) The people were \_\_\_\_\_ to do their very best to save their nation.
- 2) The mountain climbers \_\_\_\_\_ for a rest.
- 3) I am sorry to \_\_\_\_\_ you, but could you direct me to the station?
- 4) She was \_\_\_\_\_ to hear her husband talking so loudly at the party.
- 5) He \_\_\_\_\_ very quickly to the heat of the country.
- 6) If the service was so bad, why didn't you \_\_\_\_\_ to the manager?
- 7) Don't \_\_\_\_\_ me. I know you're not telling the truth.
- 8) If a book doesn't \_\_\_\_\_ my interest in the first few pages, I don't usually continue reading it.

## UNIT ONE

## READING-CENTERED ACTIVITIES

- 9) "I didn't want to \_\_\_\_\_ him to the long journey," she said.  
 10) Papa \_\_\_\_\_ much of my spare time was profitably occupied.  
 11) A baby cannot easily \_\_\_\_\_ his movements.  
 12) We asked high school students to \_\_\_\_\_ in an anti-drugs campaign.

## 2. Word-Building

**Directions:** Give the correct form of the word according to the indication in the brackets. Then complete the sentences using the right form of each word. Use each word once.

patient—	(noun)	enter—	(noun)
bitter—	(noun)	complain—	(noun)
fortunate—	(noun)	envy—	(adjective)
knowledge—	(adjective)	memory—	(adjective)
reluctance—	(adjective)	frustrate—	(noun)

- 1) Failing the final exams was a \_\_\_\_\_ disappointment for me.  
 2) You are very \_\_\_\_\_ to have found such a pleasant house.  
 3) You'd be hopeless looking after children—you don't have enough \_\_\_\_\_.  
 4) The queen's visit was a \_\_\_\_\_ occasion.  
 5) He was very \_\_\_\_\_ to go, but he had no choice.  
 6) The explosion did a great deal of damage to the \_\_\_\_\_ of the building.  
 7) The store has a special department to handle customer \_\_\_\_\_.  
 8) He was \_\_\_\_\_ of his brother because he could afford to give so much.  
 9) Do you think you are more \_\_\_\_\_ than your parents were at your age?  
 10) The \_\_\_\_\_ of his ambitions made him a bitter man.

## Translation

**Directions:** Translate the Chinese sentences into English, using the expressions in brackets.

- 他走得慢,是因为腿有毛病。(because of)
- 他尽管病得很重,但还是来参加会议了。(despite)
- 他确保同样的错误今后不再发生。(see to it that)
- 现在他们之间的了解多了一些,他们相处得就好些了。(now that)
- 此时我发现自己被五六个男孩子围住了。(find oneself)
- 在这幸福的时刻,我向你致以最美好的祝愿。(on ... occasion)

## C: College English Testing Syllabus

### 大学英语四级考试样题 (一)

#### College English Test - Band Four - (SAMPLE 1 - 4ASZ1) (120 分钟)

#### 注 意 事 项

- 一. 将自己的校名、姓名、学校代号、准考证号写在答题纸和作文纸上。考试结束后，把试题纸、答题纸和作文纸放在桌上。教师收卷后才可离开试场。试题册、答题纸和作文纸均不得带走。
- 二. 仔细阅读题目的说明。
- 三. 在 120 分钟内答完全部试题，不得拖延时间。
- 四. 多项选择题的答案一定要划在答题纸。作文写在作文纸上。凡是写在试题册的答案一律无效。
- 五. 多项选择题只能选一个答案，多选作答错处理。选定答案后，用 HB 浓度以上的铅笔在相应字母中划一条横线。正确方法是：  
[A] [B] [C] [D]  
使用其他符号答题者不给分，划线要有一定粗度，浓度要盖过字母底色。
- 六. 如果要改动答案，必须先用橡皮擦净原来选定的答案，然后再按上面的规定重新答题。

#### Part I

#### Listening Comprehension

(20 minutes)

#### Section A

**Directions:** *In this section, you will hear 10 short conversations. At the end of each conversation, a question will be asked about what was said. The conversation and the question will be spoken only once. After each question there will be a pause. During the pause, you must read the four choices marked A), B), C) and D), and decide which is the best answer. Then mark the corresponding letter on the Answer Sheet with a single line through the centre.*

*Example: You will hear:*

- You will read:*
- A) At the office.
  - B) In the waiting room.
  - C) At the airport.
  - D) In the restaurant.

*From the conversation we know that the two were talking about some work they have to finish in the evening. This is most likely to have taken place at the office. Therefore, A)*

*“At the office” is the best answer. You should choose [A] on the Answer Sheet and mark it with a single line through the centre.*

**Sample Answer**      [A]    [B]    [C]    [D]

1. A) Yes, he may attend it.  
B) Yes, he will by all means.  
C) No, he can't attend it.  
D) No, he doesn't want to attend it.
2. A) She doesn't want to answer the question.  
B) She doesn't understand what the man said.  
C) She is also a newcomer in the city.  
D) She is going that way too.
3. A) One.                      B) Two.                      C) Three.                      D) Four.
4. A) He will no longer ask for their help.  
B) He will regret not accepting their help.  
C) He still needs their help.  
D) He has to manage without their help.
5. A) She is not feeling very well.  
B) She is very ill.  
C) She is annoyed with the doctor.  
D) She is badly hurt.
6. A) Things to wear.  
B) The warm weather.  
C) Best material for making clothes.  
D) A bright shirt.
7. A) In the restaurant.  
B) At the railway station.  
C) In the post office.  
D) At the airport.
8. A) 6:45.                      B) 7:45.                      C) 7:15.                      D) 6:15.
9. A) Two weeks from now.  
B) In about two days.  
C) He hasn't decided yet.  
D) In four weeks.
10. A) A double room.  
B) A single room.  
C) A room on the second floor.  
D) A room on the top floor.

**Section B**

**Directions:** *In this section, you will hear 3 short passages. At the end of each passage, you hear some questions. Both the passage and the questions will be spoken only once. After you hear a question, you must choose the best answer from the four choices marked A), B), C) and D). Then mark the corresponding letter on the Answer Sheet with a single line through the centre.*

**Passage One****Questions 11 to 13 are based on the passage you have just heard.**

11. A) Listening to music.  
B) Swimming.  
C) Walking.  
D) Going to movies.
12. A) Running.                      B) Cycling.                      C) Fishing.                      D) Hunting.
13. A) Swiss people are very frank.  
B) Switzerland has a favourable climate for sporting activities.  
C) Switzerland has a variety of attractions.  
D) Switzerland is one of the most beautiful countries in Europe.

**Passage Two****Questions 14 to 16 are based on the passage you have just heard.**

14. A) To find out how clever monkeys were.  
B) To test the intelligence of different animals.  
C) To tell the difference between man and the monkey.  
D) To find out how monkeys search for food.
15. A) To give the monkey a surprise.  
B) To see who the monkey ate from a box.  
C) To see how soon the monkey could find it.  
D) To find out how the monkey would open the box.
16. A) By looking through the keyhole.  
B) By looking through the window.  
C) By taking the pictures of the monkey.  
D) By hiding himself behind the box.

**Passage Three****Questions 17 to 20 are based on the passage you have just heard.**

17. A) He thought experts were more needed there.  
B) He wanted to have a good time there.  
C) He was invited to work there.  
D) He didn't like to stay in Shanghai any longer.
18. A) Nineteen.  
B) Sixty-five.  
C) Eighty-four.  
D) Fifty.
19. A) The food in Nanping.  
B) The organization of the class.  
C) The discussion in the class.  
D) The co-operative spirit of the students.
20. A) It was interesting.  
B) It was a valuable experience.  
C) It was not as helpful as expected.  
D) It was a difficulty course to teach.

**Part II****Reading Comprehension****(35 minutes)**

**Directions:** *There are 4 reading passages in this part. Each passage is followed by some questions or unfinished statements. For each of them there are four choices marked A), B), C) and D). You should decide on the choice that best answers the question or completes the statement. Then mark the corresponding letter on the Answer Sheet with a single line through the centre.*

**Questions 21 to 25 are based on the following passage:**

The advantages and disadvantages of a large population have long been a subject of discussion among economists. It has been argued that the supply of good land is limited. To feed a large population, inferior land must be cultivated and the good land worked intensively. Thus, each person produces less and this means a lower average income than could be obtained with a smaller population. Other economists have argued that a large population gives more scope for specialization and the development of facilities such as ports, roads and railways, which are not likely to be built unless there is a big demand to justify them.

One of the difficulties in carrying out a world-wide birth control program lies in the fact that official attitudes to population growth vary from country to country depending on the level of industrial development and the availability of food and raw materials. In the developing country where a vastly expanded population is pressing hard upon the limits of food, space and natural resources, it will be the first concern of government to place a limit on the birthrate, whatever the consequences may be. In a highly industrialized society the problem may be more complex. A decreasing birthrate may lead to unemployment because it results in a declining market for manufactured goods. When the pressure of population on housing declines, prices also decline and the building industry is weakened. Faced with considerations such as these, the government of a developed country may well prefer to see a slowly increasing population, rather than one which is stable or in decline.

21. A small population may mean \_\_\_\_\_.
- A) higher productivity, but a lower average income
  - B) lower productivity, but a higher average income
  - C) lower productivity, and a lower average income
  - D) higher productivity and a higher average income
22. According to the passage, a large population will provide a chance for developing \_\_\_\_\_.
- A) agriculture
  - B) transport system
  - C) industry
  - D) national economy
23. In a developed country, people will perhaps go out of work if the birthrate \_\_\_\_\_.
- A) goes up
  - B) goes down
  - C) remain stable
  - D) is out of control
24. According to the passage, slowing rising birthrate perhaps is good for \_\_\_\_\_.



- A) a developing nation
  - B) a developed nation
  - C) every nation with a big population
  - D) every nation with a small population
25. It is no easy job to carry out a general plan for birth control throughout the world because \_\_\_\_\_.
- A) there are too many underdeveloped countries in the world
  - B) the industrial development of underdeveloped countries is at a low level
  - C) different governments have different views of the question
  - D) even developed countries may have complex problems

**Questions 26 to 30 are based on the following passage:**

“It hurts me more than you,” and “This is for your own good.” These are the statements my mother used to make years ago when I had to learn Latin, clean my room, stay home and do homework.

That was before we entered the permissive period in education in which we decided it was all right not to push our children to achieve their best in school. The schools and the educators made it easy on us. They taught that it was all right to be parents who take a let-alone policy. We stopped making our children do homework. We gave them calculators, turned on the television, left the teaching to the teachers and went on vacation.

Now teachers faced with children who have been developing at their own pace for the past 15 years, are realizing we’ve made a terrible mistake. One such teacher is Sharon Klompus who says of her students – “so passive” – and wonders what happened. Nothing was demanded of them, she believes. Television, says Klompus, contributes to children’s passivity. “We’re not training kids to work any more,” says Klompus. “We’re taking about a generation of kids who’ve never been hurt or hungry. They have learned somebody will always do it for them. Instead of saying ‘go look it up’, you tell them the answer. It takes greater energy to say no to a kid.”

Yes, it does. It takes energy and it takes work. It’s time for parents to end their vacation and come back to work. It’s time to take the car away, to turn the TV off, to tell them it hurts you more than them but it’s for their own good. It’s time to start telling them no again.

26. Children are becoming more inactive in study because \_\_\_\_\_.
- A) they watch TV too often
  - B) they have done too much homework
  - C) they have to fulfill too many duties
  - D) teachers are too strict with them
27. To such children as described in the passage \_\_\_\_\_.
- A) it is easier to say no than to say yes
  - B) neither is easy – to say yes or to say no
  - C) it is easier to say yes than to say no
  - D) neither is difficult – to say yes or to say no
28. We learn from the passage that the author’s mother used to lay emphasis on \_\_\_\_\_.
- A) learning Latin
  - B) natural development

- C) discipline  
D) education at school
29. By “permissive period in education” the author means a time \_\_\_\_\_.  
A) when children are allowed to do what they wish to  
B) when everything can be taught at school  
C) when every child can be educated  
D) when children are permitted to receive education
30. The main idea in the passage is that \_\_\_\_\_.  
A) parents should leave their children alone  
B) kids should have more activities at school  
C) it’s time to be more strict with our kids  
D) parents should always set a good example to their kids

**Questions 31 to 36 are based on the following passage:**

They are among the 250,000 people under the age of 25 who are out of work in the Netherlands, a group that accounts for 40 percent of the nation’s unemployed. A storm of anger boils up at the government-sponsored (政府资助的) youth centre, even among those who are continuing their studies.

“We study for jobs that don’t exist,” Nicollete Steggerda, 23, said.

After three decades of prosperity, unemployment among 10 member nations of the European Community has exceeded 11 percent, affecting a total of 12.3 million people, and the number is climbing.

The bitter disappointment long expressed by British youths is spreading across the Continent. The title of a rock song “No Future” can now be seen written on the brick walls of closed factories in Belgium and France.

Recent surveys have found that the increasing argument in the last few years over the deployment (部署) in Europe of North Atlantic Treaty Organization missiles and the possibility of nuclear war have clouded European youths’ confidence in the future.

One form of protest tends to put the responsibility for a country’s economic troubles on the large numbers of “guest workers” from Third World nations, people welcomed in Western Europe in the years of prosperity.

Young Europeans, brought up in an extended period of economic success and general stability, seems to resemble Americans more than they do their own parents. Material enjoyment has given them a sense of expectation, even the right, to a standard of living that they see around them.

“And so we pass the days at the discos, or meet people at the cafe, and sit and stare,” said Isabella Gault. “There is usually not much conversation. You look for happiness. Sometimes you even find it.”

31. Unemployment in the Netherlands has affected \_\_\_\_\_.  
A) one million people  
B) roughly 0.6 million people  
C) 250,000 people  
D) less than half of the population
32. What Nicollete Steggerda said (Para. 2) means that \_\_\_\_\_.  
A) school education is not sufficient  
B) what the students learn is more than necessary

- C) the students cannot get work after graduation  
 D) the students' aim in study is not clear
33. The word "prosperity" (Para. 6, Line 3) most probably means \_\_\_\_\_.  
 A) achievements in economy  
 B) advance in politics  
 C) economic troubles  
 D) political crisis
34. Which of the following statements is NOT TRUE?  
 A) The rock song "No Future" is an expression of the disappointment of European youth.  
 B) 40% of the guest workers are out of work in Western Europe now.  
 C) European youth are worried about a new world war in the future.  
 D) Widespread unemployment is beyond European youths' expectation.
35. British youths \_\_\_\_\_.  
 A) are trying to find work on the Continent  
 B) are sympathetic with the unemployed on the Continent  
 C) have been the first to show their disappointment over joblessness  
 D) show their concern for unemployment in France and Belgium
36. It seems that young Europeans \_\_\_\_\_.  
 A) look upon life as their elders do  
 B) are more like Americans than their elders in their way of thinking  
 C) look more like Americans than their elders do  
 D) expect more from Americans than from their elders

**Questions 37 to 40 are based on the following passage:**

The news of the escape first got around on Sunday night. It threw the oldest son into anxiety, almost panic (惊慌), possibly because he was old enough to know what it meant. The youngest didn't seem to care: he was too young. Mrs. Birnam – an unimaginative mother, easy-going, busy with family matters – seemed to take the attitude that if danger was involved, it was danger to somebody else besides themselves. Don's reaction, the middle son, was romantic: what a pity that it had happened forty miles away, and thus the consequent exciting danger or threat would never reach as far as their town of Arcadia. He was twelve at the time.

There had been a break at the state prison in Auburn. Six dangerous criminals had shot their way out and were even now – so everybody said – terrorizing the countryside, though no one had seen them since their rush to freedom after a wounded guard, at gun point, had raised the outer gate for their escape. They might equally have vanished off the face of the earth or hidden in somebody's abandoned barn, too frightened to stir from their hiding places for weeks to come.

The news came to the Birnams inevitably (必然) from one of their neighbours over the telephone. There was no radio in those days but Mrs. Kirtle was just as good. By some mysterious gift she always managed to hear things before anybody else and immediately got on the phone or rushed across the back yards, ducking under clotheslines and knocking at kitchen door. "Pauline Revere," the boys called her, and their mother suppressed (抑制) a smile and scolded them for disrespect.

37. How far was the prison from Arcadia?

- A) Forty miles.  
 B) Six miles.  
 C) Twelve miles.  
 D) The selection doesn't tell us.
38. Mrs. Birnam's family learned of the news of the escape \_\_\_\_\_.  
 A) through Mrs. Kirtle  
 B) over the radio  
 C) from the wounded guard  
 D) by some mysterious gift
39. The boy's attitude toward Mrs. Kirtle was one of \_\_\_\_\_.  
 A) tolerance  
 B) impoliteness  
 C) doubt  
 D) kindness
40. Which of the following statements is NOT TRUE?  
 A) The six criminals succeeded in escaping with much violence.  
 B) Mrs Kirtle always kept herself informed about daily happenings in their neighborhood.  
 C) Mrs. Birnam thought that the news had nothing to do with her family.  
 D) Every member of the Birnams was thrown into a panic by the news.

**Part III****Vocabulary and Structure****(20 minutes)**

**Directions:** *There are 30 incomplete sentences in this part. For each sentence there are four choices marked A), B), C) and D). Choose the ONE answer that best completes the sentence. Then mark the corresponding letter on the Answer Sheet with a single line through the centre.*

41. I \_\_\_\_\_ a long pole in the centre of the field, and on top of it I hung the lamp.  
 A) put up  
 B) put on  
 C) put out  
 D) put up with
42. We all \_\_\_\_\_ the achievements he has made in his experiments.  
 A) admire  
 B) adopt  
 C) advise  
 D) adjust
43. If the test taker finds an item to which an answer is not known, it may be \_\_\_\_\_ to leave it blank and go on with the test.  
 A) valuable  
 B) advisable  
 C) considerable  
 D) probable
44. Though the long term \_\_\_\_\_ cannot be predicted, the project has been approved by the committee.  
 A) affect  
 B) effort  
 C) effect  
 D) afford
45. The teacher's lecture on American history was three hours long, and Morris felt very \_\_\_\_\_.  
 A) hurt  
 B) bored  
 C) disturbed  
 D) neglected

46. It's surprising that this innocent-looking person should have \_\_\_\_\_ such a crime.  
 A) performed  
 B) made  
 C) acted  
 D) committed
47. Ted agreed to \_\_\_\_\_ the strike if the company would satisfy the demand of the workers.  
 A) call out  
 B) call off  
 C) call to  
 D) call on
48. Not long ago, John Smith, whom you know very well, was \_\_\_\_\_ a car accident.  
 A) related to  
 B) involved in  
 C) included in  
 D) damaged by
49. All particulars should be carefully checked. Nothing should be \_\_\_\_\_.  
 A) born in mind  
 B) put up with  
 C) taken for granted  
 D) taken into consideration
50. We've been \_\_\_\_\_ with that company for many years.  
 A) comparing  
 B) dealing  
 C) keeping  
 D) combining
51. This multiple-choice test \_\_\_\_\_ 40 incomplete statements with several choices to complete them.  
 A) is composed of  
 B) consists in  
 C) makes up  
 D) sets out
52. In the theatre the actors are very \_\_\_\_\_ to the reaction of the audience.  
 A) sensible  
 B) sensitive  
 C) emotional  
 D) positive
53. He wore dark glasses to avoid \_\_\_\_\_.  
 A) having been recognized  
 B) to be recognized  
 C) recognized  
 D) being recognized
54. It \_\_\_\_\_ around nine o'clock when I drove back home because it was already dark.  
 A) had to be  
 B) must have been  
 C) was to be  
 D) must be
55. There was a teapot fashioned like a duck, out of \_\_\_\_\_ open mouth the tea was supposed to come.  
 A) which  
 B) its  
 C) that  
 D) whose
56. \_\_\_\_\_ being used in industry, laser can be applied to operations in the hospital.  
 A) Except for  
 B) In addition to  
 C) Out of  
 D) In spite of
57. \_\_\_\_\_ on a clear day, far from the city crowds, the mountains give him a sense of infinite peace.  
 A) If walking  
 B) Walking  
 C) While walking  
 D) When one is walking
58. The Vikings are believed \_\_\_\_\_ America.  
 A) to have discovered  
 B) to discover  
 C) in discovering  
 D) to have been discovered
59. Husband and wife with a common duty to the country will find themselves \_\_\_\_\_ closer together.  
 A) been drawn  
 C) drawn

- B) to draw  
D) drawing
60. Prisons in some countries are short of staff, \_\_\_\_\_ means each prison officer is overworked and underpaid.  
A) which  
B) this  
C) what  
D) it
61. \_\_\_\_\_ you return those books to the library immediately you will have to pay a fine.  
A) Until  
B) If  
C) Unless  
D) Provided
62. So little \_\_\_\_\_ about mathematics that the lecture was completely beyond me.  
A) I know  
B) I knew  
C) do I know  
D) did I know
63. \_\_\_\_\_ the 1500's. \_\_\_\_\_ the first European explored the coast of California.  
A) It was not until / then  
B) It is not until / when  
C) It is until / that  
D) It was not until / that
64. Here we found little snow, as most of it seemed \_\_\_\_\_ blown off the mountain.  
A) to have been  
B) to be  
C) that it was  
D) that it had been
65. The ground was black \_\_\_\_\_ ants, great energetic ants that were busy running back and forth.  
A) for  
B) in  
C) by  
D) with
66. I told him how to get here but perhaps I \_\_\_\_\_ him a map.  
A) should have given  
B) ought to give  
C) had to give  
D) must have given
67. The replacement of shops such as the grocer's and chemist's by cafes \_\_\_\_\_ the housewives with insufficient facilities for shopping.  
A) leave  
B) have left  
C) has left  
D) is leaving
68. He came all the way to China for promoting friendship \_\_\_\_\_ for making money.  
A) other than  
B) more than  
C) better than  
D) rather than
69. Every dog that came \_\_\_\_\_ sight was a terror to me.  
A) in  
B) to  
C) on  
D) at
70. He was running \_\_\_\_\_ the pace he had learnt from the natives.  
A) on  
B) at  
C) by  
D) in

**Part IV****Close****(15 minutes)**

**Directions:** *There are 20 blanks in the following passage. For each blank there are four choices marked A), B), C) and D) on the right side of the paper. You should choose the ONE that best fits into the passage. Then mark the corresponding letter on the Answer Sheet with a single line through the centre.*

Smoking is considered dangerous to the health. Our tobacco-seller, Mr. Johnson, therefore, always asks his customers, if they are very young, whom the cigarettes are brought (71).

One day, a little girl whom he had never seen before walked (72) into his shop and demanded twenty cigarettes. She had the (73) amount of money in her

hand and seemed very (74) of herself.

Mr. Johnson was so (75) by her confident

manner that he (76) to ask his usual

question. (77), he asked her what kind of cigarettes she wanted. The girl replied (78) and handed him the money. While

he was giving her the (79), Mr. Johnson

said laughingly that (80) she was so

young that she should (81) the packet in

her pocket in (82) a policeman saw it.

(83), the little girl did not seem to find

this very funny. Without (84) smiling she

took the (85) and walked towards the

door. Suddenly she stopped, turned (86), and looked steadily at Mr. Johnson. There was a moment of silence and the tobacco-seller (87) what she was going to

say. (88) at once, in a clear,

(89) voice, the girl declared, "My dad is a

policeman," and with (90) she walked quickly out of the shop.

- |                     |                 |
|---------------------|-----------------|
| 71. A) with         | C) for          |
| B) to               | D) by           |
| 72. A) nervously    | C) hesitatingly |
| B) heavily          | D) boldly       |
| 73. A) exact        | C) large        |
| B) some             | D) enough       |
| 74. A) ashamed      | C) fond         |
| B) sure             | D) glad         |
| 75. A) worried      | C) surprised    |
| B) annoyed          | D) pleased      |
| 76. A) forgot       | C) feared       |
| B) came             | D) remembered   |
| 77. A) Therefore    | C) Anyway       |
| B) Instead          | D) Somehow      |
| 78. A) readily      | C) softly       |
| B) patiently        | D) slowly       |
| 79. A) change       | C) bill         |
| B) warning          | D) cigarettes   |
| 80. A) as           | C) for          |
| B) while            | D) though       |
| 81. A) cover        | C) dip          |
| B) hide             | D) take         |
| 82. A) time         | C) fear         |
| B) case             | D) consequence  |
| 83. A) Nevertheless | C) Therefore    |
| B) Moreover         | D) Then         |
| 84. A) ever         | C) little       |
| B) some             | D) even         |
| 85. A) packet       | C) money        |
| B) advice           | D) blame        |
| 86. A) away         | C) over         |
| B) round            | D) aside        |
| 87. A) wondered     | C) doubted      |
| B) considered       | D) expected     |
| 88. A) And          | C) But          |
| B) So               | D) All          |
| 89. A) weak         | C) joking       |
| B) firm             | D) humble       |
| 90. A) which        | C) that         |
| B) him              | D) what         |

**Part V****Writing****(30 minutes)**

**Directions:** *For this part, you are allowed 30 minutes to write a composition about TELEVISION in three paragraphs.*

*You are given the first sentence of each paragraph and are required to develop the idea in completing the paragraph. Your composition should be no less than 100 words, not including the words given. Remember to write neatly.*

*You should write this composition on the Answer Sheet.*

**Television**

1. Television presents a vivid world in front of us. \_\_\_\_\_

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2. Television can also play an educational role in our daily life. \_\_\_\_\_

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3. However, television can also be harmful. \_\_\_\_\_

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## 大学英语四级考试样题 (一)答案

## (SAMPLE 1 - 4ASZ1)

(第 1-90 题)

1 C	21 D	41 A	61 C	71 C
2 C	22 B	42 A	62 D	72 D
3 C	23 B	43 B	63 D	73 A
4 D	24 B	44 C	64 A	74 B
5 A	25 C	45 B	65 D	75 C
6 A	26 A	46 D	66 A	76 A
7 D	27 C	47 B	67 C	77 B
8 B	28 C	48 B	68 D	78 A
9 D	29 A	49 C	69 A	79 D
10 A	30 C	50 B	70 B	80 A
11 A	31 B	51 A		81 B
12 C	32 C	52 B		82 B
13 A	33 A	53 D		83 A
14 B	34 B	54 B		84 D
15 C	35 C	55 D		85 A
16 A	36 B	56 B		86 B
17 A	37 A	57 D		87 A
18 D	38 A	58 A		88 D
19 D	39 B	59 C		89 B
20 B	40 D	60 A		90 C

**D: Interview Protocols for the Policymakers (at the National and Provincial Levels)****(A) Interview Questions for the Syllabus Revision Team**

1. What was the rationale for having a national College English Syllabus of 1999 version?
2. What changes have been made to the Syllabus since then?
3. How appropriate is the College English Syllabus for the Chinese teaching context?
4. Why is the Syllabus designed the way as it is?
5. How practical is the College English Syllabus for the Chinese tertiary language teaching and learning?
6. What do you think of the Syllabus in terms of its clarity in order for respective local universities to understand?
7. To what extent does the Syllabus Revision Team expect the respective universities to follow the Syllabus?
8. How is the Syllabus communicated to respective universities?
9. To what extent does the Syllabus Revision Team intend get teachers involved in the development of the Syllabus?
10. To what extent does the Syllabus Revision Team take into account teachers' language proficiency when delivering the Syllabus?

**(B) Interview Questions for the Material Development Team**

1. What was the rationale for having a national set of textbooks entitled *New College English*?
2. What changes have been made to the textbooks since then?
3. How appropriate is the set of the textbooks for the Chinese teaching context?
4. Why are the textbooks designed the way as they are?
5. How practical are these books for the Chinese tertiary language teaching and learning?
6. To what extent do the textbooks actually cover the official College English Syllabus?
7. To what extent does the Material Development Team expect the textbooks to be taught in the classroom?
8. How does this Team communicate with the local universities about how to use these books?
9. To what extent does the Material Development Team get teachers involved in the design of the textbooks?
10. To what extent does the Material Development Team take into account teachers' language proficiency when teaching this set of textbooks?

**(C) Interview Questions for the National College English Testing Committee**

1. What is the rationale for conducting the College English Test?
2. What changes have been to the CET since its inception?
3. How appropriate is the College English Test for the Chinese teaching context?
4. Why is the College English Test designed the way as it is?
5. How practical is the College English Test for the Chinese tertiary language teaching and learning?
6. What do you do with the results from the College English Test?
7. What impact, if any, does the College English Test have on teachers' classroom teaching?
8. What impact, if any, does the College English Test have on students' language learning?
9. To what extent does the National College English Testing Committee expect the College English Test to be implemented in the respective universities?
10. What is the general rule for respective university students to take the test?
11. To what extent does the Committee take into account the students' language proficiency when taking the test?
12. What happens if students fail to pass the test?

**(D) Interview Questions for the Shaanxi Provincial College English Teaching and Research Association (at the Provincial Level)**

1. What was the language policy for the College English education in Shaanxi Province in 1999?
2. What changes have been made to the language policy since then?
3. Are there any related regulations in relation to the national language policy? If so, what are they?
4. How appropriate is the policy in terms of the College English education for the local teaching context?
5. Why is the policy designed the way as it is?
6. How clear is the policy in order for the local universities to understand?
7. How practical is the policy in terms of language teaching and learning in the local context?
8. To what extent does the Association expect the local universities to follow the policy?
9. How is the policy communicated to the respective local universities?
10. To what extent does the Association get the teachers involved in the development of the policy?
11. To what extent does the Association take into account teachers' language proficiency when delivering the curriculum?
12. What are the biggest challenges do you see respective local universities face when implementing the College English Curriculum?

**E: Sample Interview Protocols for the Administrators (at the Departmental Level)**

1. What are the specific regulations in relation to the national and provincial language policies for the College English education in your university?
2. Why is your university policy in terms of College English teaching designed the way as it is?
3. Is the policy clear and straightforward in order to implement it? If not, what do you think is not clear or is lacking?
4. How appropriate are those policies in terms of the College English Curriculum for the teaching context of your university?
5. How clear is the Syllabus for teachers of your universities to understand?
6. How practical is the Syllabus in terms of language teaching and learning in your university?
7. To what extent do the textbooks that teachers use now accurately represent the College English Syllabus?
8. What is the benefit of College English Test from your perspective as a department head?
9. What impact, if any, does the College English Test have on teachers' classroom teaching?
10. What impact, if any, does the College English Test have on students' language learning?
11. To what extent does the school policy take into account teachers' language proficiency when delivering the curriculum?
12. What kind of support does your university provide to your teachers?
13. What are the biggest challenges do you see your university faces in implementing the College English Curriculum?

## **F: Sample Interview Protocols for the Teachers**

### **Before and during the classroom observation:**

1. Can you tell me something about your language learning experience?
2. Can you say something about yourself, such as your educational background and teaching experience?

### **After the classroom observation:**

3. How would you describe your experience following the College English Syllabus?
4. What do you think of the clarity of the national College English Syllabus? Is it clear and easy to follow? If not, why not?
5. What do you think of the practicality of the Syllabus in terms of your language teaching? Is it practical for you to use? If not, why not?
6. How appropriate is the College English Syllabus for your teaching context?
7. Why do you think that teachers should have a national College English Syllabus?
8. To what extent do you think the textbooks accurately represent the College English Syllabus? If not, where are they lacking?
9. What is the benefit of the College English Test from your perspective as a teacher?
10. What impact, if any, does the College English test have on your classroom teaching?
11. What impact, if any, does the College English test have on your students' learning?
12. How do you actually conduct your classroom teaching to achieve the objectives stated in the official syllabus?
13. How much support do you receive from your department head regarding how you teach College English?
14. What kinds of support would you like to receive from your department head in your teaching of College English?
15. What are the most challenging aspects that you face regarding implementing the College English Curriculum?
16. What is the rationale for you to conduct your class in English / in Chinese?
17. Why do you organize your classroom activities that allow your students to work with their peers / to work alone?

## G. Descriptive Statistics of the Pilot Study

### Section A. The External Factors on Curriculum Implementation

Items	Missing (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Strongly disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
A1: Textbooks affect what to teach	0	58.1	34.9	2.3	4.7	0	4.47	5	5	.767	-1.705	3.224
A2: Textbooks affect how to teach	0	9.3	39.5	23.3	20.9	7.0	3.23	3	4	1.109	-.377	-.682
A3: Test affects teaching	0	32.6	44.2	14.0	9.3	0	4	4	4	.926	-.755	-.086
A4: Test affects learning	0	53.5	37.2	9.3	0	0	4.44	5	5	.666	-.794	-.409
A5: Doing simulated tests	0	74.4	20.9	4.7	0	0	4.7	5	5	.558	-1.720	2.166
A6: Impact of students' test scores	0	18.6	41.9	18.6	9.3	11.6	3.47	4	4	1.241	-.739	-.341
A7: Students' evaluation	0	62.8	11.6	16.3	7.0	2.3	4.26	5	5	1.115	-1.294	.612
A8: Department's evaluation	0	30.2	27.9	32.6	2.3	7.0	3.72	4	3	1.141	-.729	.210
A9: Access to teaching resources	0	7.0	37.2	37.2	9.3	9.3	3.23	3	3	1.043	-.625	.106
A10: Access to audio-visual resources	0	18.6	30.2	30.2	16.3	4.7	3.42	3	3	1.118	-.269	-.609
A11: Students' English abilities	0	32.6	48.8	16.3	2.3	0	4.12	4	4	.762	-.540	-.019
A12: Students' expectations	0	14.0	37.2	34.9	11.6	2.3	3.49	4	4	.960	-.304	-.123
A13: Class size	0	37.2	53.5	9.3	0	0	4.28	4	4	.630	-.288	-.576
A14: Workload	0	25.6	51.2	14.0	7.0	2.3	3.91	4	4	.947	-1.044	1.251

### Section B. The Internal Factors on Curriculum Implementation

Items	Missing (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Strongly disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
B1: Grammar-translation method	0	11.6	44.2	25.6	14.0	4.7	3.44	4	4	1.031	-.589	-.091
B2: CLT method	0	18.6	62.8	18.6	0	0	4	4	4	.617	.000	-.198
B3: Basis of the syllabus	2.3	11.6	25.6	39.5	18.6	2.3	3.26	3	3	.989	.072	-.418
B4: Skill requirements of the syllabus	0	30.2	30.2	30.2	7.0	2.3	3.79	4	3	1.036	-.500	-.265
B5: Objective of the syllabus	0	7.0	18.6	32.6	27.9	14.0	2.77	3	3	1.130	.173	-.607
B6: F/N means grammar	0	7.0	4.7	23.3	27.9	37.2	2.16	2	1	1.194	.904	.172
B7: F/N meaning communicative	0	16.3	46.5	32.6	2.3	2.3	3.72	4	4	.854	-.617	1.220
B8: Need for the syllabus	2.3	30.2	48.8	16.3	2.3	0	4.10	4	4	.759	-.515	.005
B9: Clarity of the syllabus	0	4.7	20.9	51.2	16.3	7.0	3	3	3	.926	-.189	.362
B10: What to teach in the syllabus	0	4.7	37.2	41.9	11.6	4.7	3.26	3	3	.902	-.543	.410
B11: How to teach in the syllabus	0	0	20.9	53.5	18.6	7.0	2.88	3	3	.823	-.584	.171
B12: Complexity of the syllabus	0	4.7	27.9	41.9	20.9	4.7	3.07	3	3	.936	-.144	-.175
B13: Practicality of the syllabus	0	0	11.6	41.9	41.9	4.7	2.60	3	2	.760	.139	-.345
B14: Taught by GT method	0	27.9	37.2	23.3	9.3	2.3	3.79	4	4	1.036	-.634	-.099
B15: Taught by CLT method	0	0	9.3	34.9	37.2	18.6	2.35	2	2	.897	.064	-.713
B16: Language learning influence	0	20.9	44.2	23.3	9.3	2.3	3.72	4	4	.984	-.656	.198

B17: Comfortable with GT method	0	7.0	20.9	34.9	27.9	9.3	2.88	3	3	1.074	.120	-.502
B18: Comfortable with CLT method	0	4.7	53.5	39.5	2.3	0	3.60	4	4	.623	-.107	-.110
B19: Teachers' English proficiency	0	32.6	58.1	4.7	4.7	0	4.19	4	4	.732	-1.072	2.109
B20: Teaching experience	0	41.9	53.5	4.7	0	0	4.37	4	4	.578	-.245	-.691
B21: Improve teaching with experience	0	32.6	62.8	2.3	2.3	0	4.26	4	4	.621	-.850	2.838
B22: In-service training	0	14.0	32.6	34.9	7.0	11.6	3.30	3	3	1.166	-.535	-.216
B23: Unavailable teacher training	0	16.3	25.6	9.3	37.2	11.6	2.98	3	2	1.336	.170	-1.328
B24: Attending workshops	0	2.3	23.3	23.3	30.2	20.9	2.56	2	2	1.140	.153	-1.058
B25: Professional development	0	53.5	37.2	7.0	2.3	0	4.42	5	5	.731	-1.236	1.524
B26: Working on a graduate degree	0	41.9	44.2	7.0	2.3	4.7	4.16	4	4	.998	-1.697	3.309
B27: Learning CLT	0	39.5	39.5	18.6	2.3	0	4.16	4	4	.814	-.591	-.426
B28: Learning CAT	2.3	44.2	48.8	4.7	0	0	4.40	4	4	.587	-.371	-.676



### Section C. The Curriculum Implementation Activities in the Classroom

Items	Missing (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Strongly disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
C1: Teaching four hours of reading	0	41.9	30.2	9.3	14.0	4.7	3.91	4	5	1.231	-.940	-.228
B2: Difficulty to practice spoken English	0	39.5	30.2	4.7	20.9	4.7	3.79	4	5	1.301	-.747	-.822
C3: Available subject-based English class	0	2.3	39.5	30.2	23.3	4.7	3.12	3	4	.956	-.413	-.646
C4: Difficulty to write English journal	0	32.6	34.9	16.3	9.3	7.0	3.77	4	4	1.212	-.876	-.045
C5: Teacher as transmitter	0	18.6	23.3	20.9	27.9	9.3	3.14	3	2	1.283	.011	-1.146
C6: Difficulty in developing students' communicative abilities	0	30.2	27.9	23.3	16.3	2.3	3.67	4	5	1.149	-.401	-.886
C7: Group work has little value	0	9.3	23.3	14.0	37.2	16.3	2.72	2	2	1.260	.334	-1.041
C8: Unavailable subject-based English class	0	23.3	37.2	16.3	20.9	2.3	3.58	4	4	1.139	-.413	-.900
C9: Difficulty in doing group work activities	0	23.3	34.9	14.0	23.3	4.7	3.49	4	4	1.222	-.382	-1.020

<b>Items</b>	<b>Missing (%)</b>	<b>Always (%)</b>	<b>Often (%)</b>	<b>Sometimes (%)</b>	<b>Seldom (%)</b>	<b>Never (%)</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Median</b>	<b>Mode</b>	<b>Standard deviation</b>	<b>Skewness</b>	<b>Kurtosis</b>
C10: Doing translation exercises	0	9.3	32.6	34.9	20.9	2.3	3.26	3	3	.978	-.068	-.537
C11: Doing reading practice	0	11.6	67.4	16.3	4.7	0	3.86	4	4	.675	-.799	1.555
C12: Encouraging responsibility and self-discipline	0	39.5	34.9	18.6	4.7	2.3	4.05	4	5	.999	-.998	.770
C13: Conducting class in English	0	55.8	37.2	7.0	0	0	4.49	5	5	.631	-.847	-.241
C14: Organizing listening and speaking activities	0	23.3	46.5	25.6	4.7	0	3.88	4	4	.823	-.315	-.382

## H: Questionnaire Survey for the Pilot Study

### Chinese EFL Teachers' Perceptions of the College English Curriculum and its Implementation

#### Instruction:

This questionnaire survey is designed for Chinese EFL teachers who teach in a university. The purpose aims to explore your perceptions of the official 1999 College English Syllabus (大学英语教学大纲) and its implementation (实施) in your classroom. There are four sections in this survey, section A to section D. They ask about external and internal factors on your curriculum implementation (课程实施), ask about your curriculum implementation activities in the classroom, and ask information about you.

For each statement, please circle only one number (5, 4, 3, 2, or 1) that best represents your thinking at this time in relation to College English Curriculum. For example, if you circle a **5**, it means that you **strongly agree** with the statement. If you circle a **1**, it means that you **strongly disagree** with the statement. It will take you 25-30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. There is no **correct** or **best** response to the statements. Please answer them based on your thinking at this time, not on what you think the researcher might expect. Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the statements in the following sections by circling the following response scale:

**5 = Strongly Agree (SA)**

**4 = Agree (A)**

**3 = Neutral (N) (Neither agree nor disagree)**

**2 = Disagree (D)**

**1 = Strongly Disagree (SD)**

#### Section A

	SA	A	N	D	SD
A1. The textbooks that I am told to use by my department head influence what I teach.	5	4	3	2	1
A2. The textbooks that I am told to use by my department head influence how I teach.	5	4	3	2	1
A3. The College English Test influences my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
A4. The College English Test influences my students' learning.	5	4	3	2	1
A5. My students do simulated tests (模拟题) to prepare for the College English Test.	5	4	3	2	1
A6. My students' College English Test scores contribute to my teaching evaluation by my department head.	5	4	3	2	1
A7. My students evaluate me anonymously (匿名地).	5	4	3	2	1
A8. My department head evaluates me.	5	4	3	2	1

A9. I have access to English teaching resources.	5	4	3	2	1
A10. I have audio-visual resources to use in my language classes.	5	4	3	2	1
A11. My students' English abilities influences my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
A12. My students' expectations about how to study English influences my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
A13. The size of my classes influences my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
A14. My workload (工作量) influences my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1

### **Section B**

	<b>SA</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>SD</b>
B1. Grammar-translation method (语法翻译法) is useful as it helps my students to understand the texts.	5	4	3	2	1
B2. Communicative language teaching method (交际法) is useful as it helps my students to communicate in English.	5	4	3	2	1
B3. The College English Syllabus is based on functional-notional concept.	5	4	3	2	1
B4. The College English Syllabus aims to develop in students a high level of competence in reading and an intermediate competence in listening, speaking, writing, and translating.	5	4	3	2	1
B5. The College English Syllabus aims to develop students to communicate in English.	5	4	3	2	1
B6. Functional-notional syllabus to me means teaching English with a focus on grammar and vocabulary.	5	4	3	2	1
B7. Functional-notional syllabus to me means teaching English with a focus on improving students' communicative ability.	5	4	3	2	1
B8. I feel that there is a need to have the College English Syllabus for Chinese colleges and universities.	5	4	3	2	1
B9. I feel that the College English Syllabus is a clearly written document.	5	4	3	2	1
B10. I understand what I am expected to teach under the guidance of the College English Syllabus.	5	4	3	2	1
B11. I understand how I am expected to teach under the guidance of the College English Syllabus.	5	4	3	2	1
B12. The College English Syllabus is complicated; it is difficult for me to follow in my classroom teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
B13. I feel that the College English Syllabus is practical.	5	4	3	2	1
B14. I was taught by grammar-translation method.	5	4	3	2	1
B15. I was taught by communicative language teaching method.	5	4	3	2	1

B16. The way I learned English as a student influences the way I teach English.	5	4	3	2	1
B17. I feel comfortable with grammar-translation method.	5	4	3	2	1
B18. I feel comfortable with communicative language teaching method.	5	4	3	2	1
B19. My level of English-speaking ability influences my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
B20. My teaching experience helps me in my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
B21. My teaching improves as I gain more experience from my classroom instruction.	5	4	3	2	1
B22. In-service teacher training (在职培训) improves my classroom teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
B23. In-service teacher training is not available for me in my university.	5	4	3	2	1
B24. I attend workshops for my professional development.	5	4	3	2	1
B25. I would like to improve my language teaching through professional development.	5	4	3	2	1
B26. I would like to improve my language teaching through working on a graduate degree.	5	4	3	2	1
B27. I would like to learn more about communicative language teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
B28. I would like to learn more about computer-assisted teaching.	5	4	3	2	1

### *Section C*

	SA	A	N	D	SD
C1. I spend four hours each week teaching Reading Course including Intensive and Extensive for each class.	5	4	3	2	1
C2. The limited teaching hours make it difficult for me to ask my students to practice their spoken English in the classroom.	5	4	3	2	1
C3. My students have opportunity to improve their subject-based English (专业英语) after passing CET-4/6.	5	4	3	2	1
C4. My workload and class size make it difficult for me to ask my students to write English journals on a weekly basis.	5	4	3	2	1
C5. My role as an English teacher in the language classroom is to transmit knowledge to my students through explaining texts and giving examples.	5	4	3	2	1
C6. I find it hard to develop my students' listening and speaking abilities to the extent that they can communicate with native speakers.	5	4	3	2	1
C7. Group work or pair work activities in the classroom	5	4	3	2	1

have little or no use because it is very hard for me to monitor my students' performance and prevent them from using Chinese.					
C8. It is difficult for my students to learn subject-based English because of inadequate resources such as unavailable teachers and textbooks.	5	4	3	2	1
C9. The limited teaching hours make it hard for me to get my students involved in group work or pair work activities.	5	4	3	2	1
C10. I ask my students to do translation exercises from English to Chinese or from Chinese to English.					
always 5	often 4	sometimes 3	seldom 2	never 1	
C11. I ask my students to do reading practice to improve their reading speed and accuracy in comprehension.					
always 5	often 4	sometimes 3	seldom 2	never 1	
C12. I encourage my students to be responsible and self-disciplined, which allow them to develop their full potential in their language learning.					
always 5	often 4	sometimes 3	seldom 2	never 1	
C13. I conduct my classroom teaching in English instead of in Chinese.					
always 5	often 4	sometimes 3	seldom 2	never 1	
C14. I organize listening and speaking activities in my classroom teaching.					
always 5	often 4	sometimes 3	seldom 2	never 1	

**Section D** (Please put a tick [] to your answer)

D1. Your gender: [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] Female [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] Male
D2. What is your age? [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] 21-29 [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] 30-39 [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] 40-49 [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] 50-59 [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] over 60
D3. What is your educational qualification? [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] B.A. [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] Advanced /Assistant Teacher Training Certificate (高级教师/助教进修班) [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] M.A [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] M.Ed. [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] Ph.D.
D4. How many years have you been teaching English? [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] 1-4 [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] 5-9 [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] 10-14 [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] 15-19 [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] over 20
D5. How many class hours per week are you required to teach English in your university? [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] 8-9 [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] 10 [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] 11-12 [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] 13-14 [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] over 15
D6. How many students on average are there in your class? [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] 21-29 [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] 30-39 [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] 40-49 [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] 50-59 [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] over 60

**End of the questionnaire.**  
**Thank you very much for your help.**

## I: Questionnaire Survey for the Main Study

### Chinese EFL Teachers' Perceptions of the College English Curriculum and its Implementation

#### Instruction:

This questionnaire survey is designed for Chinese EFL teachers who teach in a university. The purpose aims to explore your perceptions of the official 1999 College English Syllabus (大学英语教学大纲) and its implementation (实施) in your classroom.

There are four sections in this survey, section A to section D. They ask about external and internal factors on your curriculum implementation (课程实施), ask about your curriculum implementation activities in the classroom, and ask information about you.

For each statement, please circle only one number (5, 4, 3, 2, or 1) that best represents your thinking at this time in relation to College English Curriculum. For example, if you circle a **5**, it means that you **strongly agree** with the statement. If you circle a **1**, it means that you **strongly disagree** with the statement. It will take you 25-30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. There is no **correct** or **best** response to the statements. Please answer them based on your thinking at this time, not on what you think the researcher might expect.

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the statements in the following sections by circling the following response scale:

**5 = Strongly Agree (SA)**

**4 = Agree (A)**

**3 = Neutral (N) (Neither agree nor disagree)**

**2 = Disagree (D)**

**1 = Strongly Disagree (SD)**

#### Section A

	SA	A	N	D	SD
A1. The College English Test influences my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
A2. The College English Test influences my students' learning.	5	4	3	2	1
A3. My students do simulated tests (模拟题) before the College English Test to prepare for it.	5	4	3	2	1
A4. My students' College English Test scores influence my teaching performance evaluation by my department.	5	4	3	2	1
A5. My students evaluate me anonymously (匿名地).	5	4	3	2	1
A6. My colleagues (同事) in the department evaluate me.	5	4	3	2	1
A7. The teaching and research committee in my department evaluates me.	5	4	3	2	1
A8. The textbooks that I am told to use by my department head influence what I teach.	5	4	3	2	1

A9. The textbooks that I am told to use by my department head influence how I teach.	5	4	3	2	1
A10. I have access to English teaching resources.	5	4	3	2	1
A11. I have audio-visual resources to use in my language classes.	5	4	3	2	1
A12. My students' English abilities influences my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
A13. The size of my classes influences my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
A14. My workload (工作量) influences my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1

### **Section B**

	<b>SA</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>SD</b>
B1. The College English Syllabus is based on functional-notional (功能/意念) concept.	5	4	3	2	1
B2. The College English Syllabus aims to develop in students a high level of competence in reading and an intermediate competence in listening, speaking, writing, and translating.	5	4	3	2	1
B3. The College English Syllabus aims to develop students to communicate in English.	5	4	3	2	1
B4. I feel that the College English Syllabus is a clearly written document.	5	4	3	2	1
B5. I feel that the College English Syllabus is practical.	5	4	3	2	1
B6. I understand what I am expected to teach under the guidance of the College English Syllabus.	5	4	3	2	1
B7. I understand how I am expected to teach under the guidance of the College English Syllabus.	5	4	3	2	1
B8. Grammar-translation method (语法翻译法) is useful as it helps my students to understand the texts.	5	4	3	2	1
B9. The way I learned English as a student influences the way I teach English.	5	4	3	2	1
B10. I feel comfortable with grammar-translation method.	5	4	3	2	1
B11. In-service teacher training (在职培训) improves my classroom teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
B12. I would like to improve my language teaching through professional development (职业发展).	5	4	3	2	1
B13. I would like to improve my language teaching through working on a graduate degree.	5	4	3	2	1
B14. I would like to learn more about communicative language teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
B15. I would like to learn more about computer-assisted teaching.	5	4	3	2	1



B16. Communicative language teaching method (交际法) is useful as it helps my students to communicate in English.	5	4	3	2	1
B17. I feel comfortable with communicative language teaching method.	5	4	3	2	1
B18. I use communicative language teaching method in my classroom teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
B19. I was taught by grammar-translation method.	5	4	3	2	1
B20. I was taught by communicative language teaching method.	5	4	3	2	1
B21. I was taught by a combination of grammar-translation method and communicative language teaching method.	5	4	3	2	1
B22. My teaching experience helps me in my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
B23. My teaching improves as I gain more experience from my classroom instruction.	5	4	3	2	1
B24. My teaching changes as I gain more experience from my classroom instruction.	5	4	3	2	1
B25. Functional/notional syllabus to me means teaching English with a focus on improving students' communicative ability.	5	4	3	2	1
B26. My level of English-speaking ability influences my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
B27. My overall language proficiency influences my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
B28. I am provided with a mentor (指导老师) from my department to help my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
B29. I observe my colleagues' classroom teaching for my professional development.	5	4	3	2	1
B30. I attend workshops (培训班) for my professional development.	5	4	3	2	1

### *Section C*

	SA	A	N	D	SD
C1. I spend four hours each week teaching Reading Course including Intensive and Extensive for each class within six teaching hours.	5	4	3	2	1
C2. The limited teaching hours make it difficult for me to ask my students to practice their spoken English in the classroom.	5	4	3	2	1
C3. My students have opportunity to improve their subject-based English (专业英语) after passing CET-4/6.	5	4	3	2	1

C4. My workload and class size make it difficult for me to mark my students' journal writings in English on a weekly basis.	5	4	3	2	1
C5. My role as an English teacher in the language classroom is to transmit knowledge to my students through explaining texts and giving examples.	5	4	3	2	1
C6. I find it hard to develop my students' listening and speaking abilities to the extent that they can communicate with native speakers.	5	4	3	2	1
C7. Group work or pair work activities in the classroom have little or no use because it is very hard for me to monitor my students' performance and prevent them from using Chinese.	5	4	3	2	1
C8. It is difficult for my students to learn subject-based English because of inadequate resources such as unavailable teachers and textbooks.	5	4	3	2	1
C9. The limited teaching hours make it hard for me to get my students involved in group work or pair work activities in the classroom.	5	4	3	2	1
C10. I ask my students to do translation exercises from English to Chinese or from Chinese to English.	always 5	often 4	sometimes 3	seldom 2	never 1
C11. I ask my students to do reading practice to improve their reading speed and accuracy in comprehension.	always 5	often 4	sometimes 3	seldom 2	never 1
C12. I encourage my students to be responsible and self-disciplined (自律), which allow them to develop their full potential in their language learning.	always 5	often 4	sometimes 3	seldom 2	never 1
C13. I conduct my classroom teaching in English instead of in Chinese.	always 5	often 4	sometimes 3	seldom 2	never 1
C14. I organize listening and speaking activities in my classroom teaching.	always 5	often 4	sometimes 3	seldom 2	never 1

**Section D** (Please put a tick [] to your answer to D1 and D3 and write your answer to D2, D4, D5, and D6)

D1. Your gender:	<input type="checkbox"/> Female	<input type="checkbox"/> Male
D2. What is your age by June 30, 2004?	<input type="text"/>	

D3. What is your highest educational qualification (最高学历)? <input type="checkbox"/> B.A. <input type="checkbox"/> Advanced /Assistant Teacher Training Certificate (高级教师/助教进修班) <input type="checkbox"/> M.A <input type="checkbox"/> M.Ed. <input type="checkbox"/> Ph.D.
D4. How many years have you been teaching English? <input type="checkbox"/>
D5. How many class hours per week are you required to teach English in your university? <input type="checkbox"/>
D6. How many students on average are there in your class? <input type="checkbox"/>

**End of the questionnaire.**  
**Thank you very much for your help.**

## **J: Classroom Observation Guide**

### **General Information:**

Instructor: \_\_\_\_\_

Observer: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Time: \_\_\_\_\_

Classroom: \_\_\_\_\_

### **Focus of the Observation:**

1. Who is conducting most of the talking? Is it the teacher or the student?
2. How does the teacher teach generally? Using what methods?
3. How does the teacher interact with students? Is there any interaction between the teacher and students?
4. How does the teacher ask and respond to the students' questions in class?
5. What language activities does the teacher organize in the classroom teaching?
6. Is there any group work or pair work in the classroom teaching and learning?
7. Is there any translation exercise in the classroom teaching?
8. Is there any oral English practice in the classroom teaching?
9. How is English used in Reading/Writing and Listening/Speaking classes?
10. How much is English used in Reading/Writing and Listening/Speaking classes?
11. How is Chinese used in Reading/Writing and Listening/Speaking classes?
12. How much is Chinese used in Reading/Writing and Listening/Speaking classes?

## **K: Letter of Information and Consent Form for Teacher Surveys**

(1)

### **Letter of Information (Teacher Surveys) for The Intended and Enacted Curriculum of College English in China**

I, Hong Wang, a Ph.D. student at the Faculty of Education, Queen's University in Kingston, Ontario, Canada, under the supervision of Dr. Liying Cheng, Assistant Professor in the Faculty of Education, am inviting you to participate in the study entitled "**The Intended and Enacted Curriculum of College English in China.**" The purpose of my dissertation study is to explore the implementation of the mandated national College English Curriculum (CEC) in one medium-sized city – Xi'an, P. R. China by investigating both the intended and the enacted curriculum over the nationwide adoption of the notional-functional syllabus since 1986.

I am inviting you to participate in a questionnaire survey, which intends to explore the perceptions that tertiary English language teachers hold towards the official syllabus and its implementation. The survey will be arranged in the staff meeting room on the campus of a university. It will be conducted in English and will take about 25-30 minutes. To ensure privacy of participants and confidentiality of data, consent forms and the completed questionnaires will be put in different envelopes. You should not put your names on the questionnaires.

There are no known or foreseen risks to participating in this study. Your participation is entirely voluntary. You are free to choose to participate in the study. You may withdraw from the study without reasons at any point. You are not obliged to answer any question that you find objectionable or that makes you feel uncomfortable. Survey data that you provide will be anonymous to protect your identity. No identifying information will be included in the document. Your university will simply be identified as a small, medium, or large university in P. R. China.

All data will be secured in a locked cabinet at the Faculty of Education, Queen's University and confidentiality is absolutely guaranteed. Access to the data is strictly restricted to the researcher. I will report the results of the study in my Ph.D. dissertation and may also report in publications of various types, conference presentations, journal articles, professional publications, and books. However, I will only report them as group data. Under no circumstance, will your name be released to anyone or appear in any publication created as a result of the study.

If you want to obtain a copy of the findings of this study, you can contact me at my e-mail address: [1hw1@qmlink.queensu.ca](mailto:1hw1@qmlink.queensu.ca) ("1" in my email address "1hw1" are numbers), or provide your email address at the bottom of the consent form in the space provided.

If you have questions about this study, please feel free to contact me, Hong Wang at 011-613-533-6000 ext. 75655 or at email: [1hw1@qmlink.queensu.ca](mailto:1hw1@qmlink.queensu.ca), or my supervisor, Dr. Liying Cheng at phone 011-613-533-6000 ext. 77431, or at e-mail: [CHENGL@educ.queensu.ca](mailto:CHENGL@educ.queensu.ca).

For questions, concerns, or complaints about the research ethics of this study, you can also contact Dr. Rosa Bruno-Jofré, Dean of the Faculty of Education at 011-613-533-6210, or Dr. Joan Stevenson, the Chair of the General Research Ethics Board at Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada at 011-613-533-6081.

(2)

**Consent Form (Teacher Surveys)  
for  
The Intended and Enacted Curriculum of College English in China**

I have read, understood, and retained a copy of the Letter of Information concerning the study “**The Intended and Enacted Curriculum of College English in China.**” The purpose of the study is to explore the implementation of the mandated national College English Curriculum (CEC) in one medium-sized city – Xi’an, P. R. China by investigating both the intended and the enacted curriculum over the nationwide adoption of the notional-functional syllabus since 1986. All the questions regarding the study have been sufficiently answered. I am aware that I will participate in a questionnaire survey that will take about 25-30 minutes. I understand the purpose and data collection procedures of this study.

I have been notified that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary. I may withdraw at any point during the study without any consequences to myself. I understand that I can choose not to answer any questions that I find objectionable or uncomfortable.

I have been told the steps that will be taken to ensure confidentiality of all information. If I have questions about this study, I know that I am free to contact Hong Wang at phone 011-613-533-6000 ext. 75655 or at email: [1hw1@qlink.queensu.ca](mailto:1hw1@qlink.queensu.ca) (“1” in the email address “1hw1” are numbers), or her supervisor, Dr. Liying Cheng at phone 011-613-533-6000 ext. 77431, or at email: [CHENGL@educ.queensu.ca](mailto:CHENGL@educ.queensu.ca).

For questions, concerns, or complaints about the research ethics of this study, I can also contact Dr. Rosa Bruno-Jofré, Dean of the Faculty of Education at 011-613-533-6210, or Dr. Joan Stevenson, the Chair of the General Research Ethics Board at Queen’s University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada at 011-613-533-6081.

Participant’s Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Please keep one copy of the Letter of Information and put the signed Consent Form into the envelope indicated as “Consent Form.”

If you want to obtain a copy of a report of this study, please provide your e-mail address:

\_\_\_\_\_

**L: Letter of Information and Consent Form for Policymaker and Administrator Interviews**

(1)

**Letter of Information (Policymaker/Administrator Interviews)  
for  
The Intended and Enacted Curriculum of College English in China**

I, Hong Wang, a Ph.D. student at the Faculty of Education, Queen's University in Kingston, Ontario, Canada, under the supervision of Dr. Liying Cheng, Assistant Professor in the Faculty of Education, am inviting you to participate in the study entitled **"The Intended and Enacted Curriculum of College English in China."** The purpose of my dissertation study is to explore the implementation of the mandated national College English Curriculum (CEC) in one medium-sized city – Xi'an, P. R. China by investigating both the intended and the enacted curriculum over the nationwide adoption of the notional-functional syllabus since 1986.

I am inviting you to participate in an interview, which intends to explore the English language policy and related regulations at the national, provincial, or institutional level. The interview will be arranged at a time and a location that is convenient and acceptable to you. It will be conducted in Chinese and will take about 45-60 minutes. Interview questions, letter of information, and consent form will be translated from English into Chinese and will be backtranslated into English for verifying accuracy. With your permission, the interview may be audiotaped. I will also prepare pens and notebooks in case you feel uncomfortable to have the interview tape-recorded. In both cases, I will send you a copy of the interview transcripts in order to insure the accuracy of the interview and to add or clarify any points that you wish. I will translate all the transcribed materials into English and Dr. Liying Cheng, a faculty member at Queen's Faculty of Education and who is fluent in both Chinese and English, will verify the English translation of the interview transcripts. Interview tapes will be erased after the thesis is completed.

There are no known or foreseen risks to participating in this study. Your participation is entirely voluntary. You are free to choose to participate in the study. You may or may not wish to have your session audiotaped. You may withdraw from the study without reasons at any point, and you may request removal of all or part of your data. You are not obliged to answer any question that you find objectionable or that makes you feel uncomfortable. A pseudonym will replace your name on all data that you provide to protect your identity. No identifying information will be included in the document. Your university will simply be identified as a small, medium, or large university in P. R. China.

All data will be secured in a locked cabinet at the Faculty of Education, Queen's University and confidentiality is absolutely guaranteed. Access to the data is strictly restricted to the researcher. I will report the results of the study in my Ph.D. dissertation

and may also report in publications of various types, conference presentations, journal articles, professional publications, and books. However, I will only report them as group data. Under no circumstance, will your name be released to anyone or appear in any publication created as a result of the study.

If you want to obtain a copy of the findings of this study, you can contact me at my e-mail address: [1hw1@qlink.queensu.ca](mailto:1hw1@qlink.queensu.ca) (“1” in my email address “1hw1” are numbers), or provide your email address at the bottom of the consent form in the space provided.

If you have questions about this study, please feel free to contact me, Hong Wang at 011-613-533-6000 ext. 75655 or at email: [1hw1@qlink.queensu.ca](mailto:1hw1@qlink.queensu.ca) or my supervisor, Dr. Liying Cheng at phone 011-613-533-6000 ext. 77431, or at e-mail: [CHENGL@educ.queensu.ca](mailto:CHENGL@educ.queensu.ca).

For questions, concerns, or complaints about the research ethics of this study, you can also contact Dr. Rosa Bruno-Jofré, Dean of the Faculty of Education at 011-613-533-6210, or Dr. Joan Stevenson, the Chair of the General Research Ethics Board at Queen’s University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada at 011-613-533-6081.



(2)

**Consent Form (Policymaker/Administrator Interviews)  
for  
The Intended and Enacted Curriculum of College English in China**

I have read, understood, and retained a copy of the Letter of Information concerning the study “**The Intended and Enacted Curriculum of College English in China.**” The purpose of the study is to explore the implementation of the mandated national College English Curriculum (CEC) in one medium-sized city – Xi’an, P. R. China by investigating both the intended and the enacted curriculum over the nationwide adoption of the notional-functional syllabus since 1986. All the questions regarding the study have been sufficiently answered. I am aware that I will participate in an interview that will take about 45-60 minutes. I understand the purpose and data collection procedures of this study.

I have been notified that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary. I may withdraw at any point during the study without any consequences to myself. I understand that I can choose to be or not to be audiotaped. I understand that I can choose not to answer any questions that I find objectionable or uncomfortable.

I have been told the steps that will be taken to ensure confidentiality of all information. If I have questions about this study, I know that I am free to contact Hong Wang at phone 011-613-533-6000 ext. 75655 or at email: [1hw1@qlink.queensu.ca](mailto:1hw1@qlink.queensu.ca) (“1” in the email address “1hw1” are numbers), or her supervisor, Dr. Liying Cheng at phone 011-613-533-6000 ext. 77431, or at email: [CHENGL@educ.queensu.ca](mailto:CHENGL@educ.queensu.ca).

For questions, concerns, or complaints about the research ethics of this study, I can also contact Dr. Rosa Bruno-Jofré, Dean of the Faculty of Education at 011-613-533-6210, or Dr. Joan Stevenson, the Chair of the General Research Ethics Board at Queen’s University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada at 011-613-533-6081.

Participant’s Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Please keep one copy of the Letter of Information and put the signed Consent Form into the envelope indicated as “Consent Form.”

If you want to obtain a copy of a report of this study, please provide your e-mail address:

\_\_\_\_\_

**M: Letter of Information and Consent Form for Teacher Interviews**

(1)

**Letter of Information (Teacher Interviews)  
for  
The Intended and Enacted Curriculum of College English in China**

I, Hong Wang, a Ph.D. student at the Faculty of Education, Queen's University in Kingston, Ontario, Canada, under the supervision of Dr. Liying Cheng, Assistant Professor in the Faculty of Education, am inviting you to participate in the study entitled **"The Intended and Enacted Curriculum of College English in China."** The purpose of my dissertation study is to explore the implementation of the mandated national College English Curriculum (CEC) in one medium-sized city – Xi'an, P. R. China by investigating both the intended and the enacted curriculum over the nationwide adoption of the notional-functional syllabus since 1986.

I am inviting you to participate in a case study. The purpose is afford me an in-depth investigation into what takes place in the classroom (the enacted curriculum) and into the reasons for delivering the components of the EFL curriculum in that way. I will conduct six (two weeks) unobtrusive classroom observations, each lasting 100 minutes. With your permission, I will tape-record your instruction and may take field notes when necessary to document what and how you conduct your teaching. I will also conduct three interviews with you, each lasting 45-60 minutes in English before, during, and after the observations. The interview will be arranged at a time and a location that is convenient and acceptable to you. The interview may be audiotaped, with your permission, and the taped interview will be transcribed verbatim afterwards. I will send the transcriptions to you for verification later and then the tape will be erased after the thesis is completed.

There are no known or foreseen risks to participating in this study. Your participation is entirely voluntary. You are free to choose to participate in the study. You may or may not wish to have your session audiotaped. You may withdraw from the study without reasons at any point, and you may request removal of all or part of your data. You are not obliged to answer any question that you find objectionable or that makes you feel uncomfortable. A pseudonym will replace your name on all data that you provide to protect your identity. No identifying information will be included in the document.

All data will be secured in a locked cabinet at the Faculty of Education, Queen's University and confidentiality is absolutely guaranteed. Access to the data is strictly restricted to the researcher. I will report the results of the study in my Ph.D. dissertation and may also report in publications of various types, conference presentations, journal articles, professional publications, and books. However, under no circumstance, will your name be released to anyone or appear in any publication created as a result of the study.

If you want to obtain a copy of the findings of this study, you can contact me at my e-mail address: [1hw1@qlink.queensu.ca](mailto:1hw1@qlink.queensu.ca) (“1” in my email address “1hw1” are numbers), or provide your email address at the bottom of the consent form in the space provided.

If you have questions about this study, please feel free to contact me, Hong Wang at 011-613-533-6000 ext. 75655 or at email: [1hw1@qlink.queensu.ca](mailto:1hw1@qlink.queensu.ca), or my supervisor, Dr. Liying Cheng at phone 011-613-533-6000 ext. 77431, or at e-mail: [CHENGL@educ.queensu.ca](mailto:CHENGL@educ.queensu.ca).

For questions, concerns, or complaints about the research ethics of this study, you can also contact Dr. Rosa Bruno-Jofré, Dean of the Faculty of Education at 011-613-533-6210, or Dr. Joan Stevenson, the Chair of the General Research Ethics Board at Queen’s University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada at 011-613-533-6081.

(2)

**Consent Form (Teacher Interviews)  
for  
The Intended and Enacted Curriculum of College English in China**

I have read, understood, and retained a copy of the Letter of Information concerning the study “**The Intended and Enacted Curriculum of College English in China.**” The purpose of the study is to explore the implementation of the mandated national College English Curriculum (CEC) in one medium-sized city – Xi’an, P. R. China by investigating both the intended and the enacted curriculum over the nationwide adoption of the notional-functional syllabus since 1986. All the questions regarding the study have been sufficiently answered. I am aware that I will participate in a case study. I will have my classroom teaching observed and will participate in interviews that will take about 45-60 minutes. I understand the purpose and data collection procedures of this study.

I have been notified that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary. I may withdraw at any point during the study without any consequences to myself. I understand that I can choose to be or not to be audiotaped. I understand that I can choose not to answer any questions that I find objectionable or uncomfortable.

I have been told the steps that will be taken to ensure confidentiality of all information. If I have questions about this study, I know that I am free to contact Hong Wang at phone 011-613-533-6000 ext. 75655 or at email: [1hw1@qlink.queensu.ca](mailto:1hw1@qlink.queensu.ca) (“1” in the email address “1hw1” are numbers), or her supervisor, Dr. Liying Cheng at phone 011-613-533-6000 ext. 77431, or at email: [CHENGL@educ.queensu.ca](mailto:CHENGL@educ.queensu.ca).

For questions, concerns, or complaints about the research ethics of this study, I can also contact Dr. Rosa Bruno-Jofré, Dean of the Faculty of Education at 011-613-533-6210, or Dr. Joan Stevenson, the Chair of the General Research Ethics Board at Queen’s University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada at 011-613-533-6081.

Participant’s Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Please keep one copy of the Letter of Information and put the signed Consent Form into the envelope indicated as “Consent Form.”

If you want to obtain a copy of a report of this study, please provide your e-mail address:

\_\_\_\_\_

## N. Descriptive Statistics of the Survey Study

### Section A. The External Factors Affecting Curriculum Implementation

Items	N	Missing n / %	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Strongly agree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Strongly disagree (%)	Disagree (%)
A1. Test affects teaching	248	0	4.33	4	5	.751	-1.158	1.704	47.2	41.9	8.5	2.0	0.4
A2. Test affects learning	248	0	4.60	5	5	.690	-2.102	5.798	68.5	24.6	5.6	0.4	0.8
A3. Doing simulated tests	248	0	4.59	5	5	.617	-1.332	1.177	65.3	28.6	5.6	0.4	0
A4. Students' test scores on teaching performance evaluation	246	2 / 0.8	3.87	4	4	.952	-.539	-.095	29.4	35.5	27.8	4.8	1.6
A5. Students' evaluation on teachers	247	1 / 0.4	3.82	4	4	1.061	-.825	.222	29.0	38.7	20.6	7.3	4.0
A6. Colleagues' evaluation	245	3 / 1.2	3.40	3	3	.860	-.277	.296	8.5	35.9	43.1	8.9	2.4
A7. Department's evaluation	247	1 / 0.4	3.88	4	4	.880	-.663	.577	24.6	45.2	24.6	3.6	1.6
A8. Textbooks affect what to teach	248	0	4.03	4	4	.958	-.975	.612	35.5	41.9	14.1	6.9	1.6
A9. Textbooks affect how to teach	248	0	3.73	4	4	.976	-.611	-.160	21.0	45.6	20.2	11.7	1.6
A10. Access to teaching resources	247	1 / 0.4	3.61	4	4	.908	-.323	-.228	15.7	41.1	31.9	9.7	1.2
A11. Access to audio-visual resources	248	0	3.25	3	4	1.267	-.275	-1.022	17.7	31.5	19.8	20.2	10.9
A12. Students' English abilities	248	0	4.21	4	4	.766	-1.138	2.235	37.1	50.8	8.9	2.4	0.8
A13. Class size	247	1 / 0.4	4.32	4	5	.774	-1.250	1.930	46.0	43.1	6.9	3.2	0.4
A14. Workload	248	0	4.24	4	5	.819	-1.009	.847	44.0	40.3	12.1	3.2	0.4

### Section B. The Internal Factors Affecting Curriculum Implementation

Items	N	Missing n / %	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Strongly agree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Strongly disagree (%)	Disagree (%)
B1. Syllabus is based on F/N concept	246	2 / 0.8	3.64	4	4	.873	-.313	-.018	15.7	41.5	33.9	6.9	1.2
B2. Skill requirements in the syllabus	247	1 / 0.4	3.84	4	4	.853	-.643	.373	20.6	50.8	21.0	6.5	0.8
B3. Objective of the syllabus	246	2 / 0.8	3.23	3	3	1.075	-.286	-.377	11.3	29.4	36.7	14.1	7.7
B4. Clarity of the syllabus	247	1 / 0.4	3.28	3	3	.929	-.194	-.264	8.1	33.9	38.7	16.1	2.8
B5. Practicality of the Syllabus	245	3 / 1.2	2.78	3	3	.895	-.078	-.161	2.0	16.9	45.6	26.2	8.1
B6. Understand what to teach in the syllabus	248	0	3.38	3	4	.887	-.366	-.169	7.3	41.5	35.1	14.1	2.0
B7. Understand how to teach in the syllabus	245	3 / 1.2	3.27	3	3	.938	-.271	-.289	7.3	35.5	36.3	16.5	3.2
B8. Grammar-translation is useful	248	0	3.42	3	4	.979	-.332	-.252	12.5	37.1	33.9	13.3	3.2
B9. Language learning influence on teaching	248	0	3.94	4	4	.918	-.861	.522	27.8	48.4	14.9	7.7	1.2
B10. Comfortable with GT method	248	0	2.85	3	3	1.046	.204	-.552	6.5	20.2	33.5	31.5	8.5
B11. Teacher training improves teaching	248	0	3.66	4	4	1.029	-.564	-.245	21.4	40.7	23.4	11.7	2.8
B12. Improve language teaching	247	1 / 0.4	4.30	4	5	.780	-1.305	2.697	45.2	42.3	10.1	0.8	1.2
B13. Working on a graduate degree	248	0	4.14	4	4	.891	-1.078	1.275	39.9	40.3	15.3	2.8	1.6
B14. Learning CLT	248	0	4.43	5	5	.744	-1.474	3.004	54.8	35.5	8.1	0.8	0.8
B15. Learning computer-assisted teaching	247	1 / 0.4	4.42	5	5	.687	-1.139	1.918	51.2	39.9	7.7	0.4	0.4
B16. CLT is useful	247	1 / 0.4	4.10	4	4	.896	-.944	.919	37.9	39.1	18.5	2.4	1.6
B17. Comfortable with CLT method	246	2 / 0.8	3.88	4	4	.861	-.506	.259	25.0	42.7	27.4	2.8	1.2

B18. Use CLT method in teaching	247	1 / 0.4	3.64	4	4	.904	-.490	.217	15.7	43.5	31.0	7.3	1.6
B19. Taught by GT method	247	1 / 0.4	3.43	4	4	1.072	-.264	-.651	16.9	33.1	29.0	16.9	3.6
B20. Taught by CLT	248	0	3.03	3	3	1.085	.059	-.740	9.3	25.4	31.0	27.4	6.9
B21. Taught by GT and CLT	246	2 / 0.8	3.54	4	4	.967	-.471	-.311	13.7	44.4	25.0	14.1	2.0
B22. Experience helps teaching	246	2 / 0.8	4.25	4	4	.750	-.910	1.107	40.3	45.6	11.3	1.6	0.4
B23. Teaching improves with more experience	247	1 / 0.4	4.20	4	4	.794	-1.057	1.883	38.7	45.2	13.7	0.8	1.2
B24. Teaching changes with more experience	248	0	4.15	4	4	.722	-.681	.963	31.9	52.8	13.7	1.2	0.4
B25. F/N syllabus meaning communicative ability	247	1 / 0.4	3.70	4	4	.786	-.227	-.041	14.1	47.2	33.1	4.8	0.4
B26. Speaking ability influences teaching	248	0	4.25	4	4	.760	-1.292	2.825	39.1	51.2	6.0	2.8	0.8
B27. Language proficiency influences teaching	246	2 / 0.8	4.37	4	4	.679	-1.157	2.614	45.2	47.2	5.2	1.2	0.4
B28. Provided with a mentor	247	1 / 0.4	2.89	3	4	1.365	.035	-1.257	14.1	24.2	19.0	21.4	21.0
B29. Observing colleagues' teaching for PD	247	1 / 0.4	3.53	4	4	1.100	-.688	-.215	16.5	44.8	19.4	12.9	6.0
B30. Attending workshops for PD	247	1 / 0.4	3.23	3	4	1.205	-.304	-.871	14.1	33.5	23.0	19.0	10.1

### Section C. The Curriculum Implementation Activities in the Classroom

Items	N	Missing n / %	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Strongly agree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Strongly disagree (%)	Disagree (%)
C1. Teaching four hours of reading a week	248	0	3.80	4	4	1.123	-.867	-.033	29.8	41.1	12.9	11.7	4.4
B2. Difficulty to practice spoken English	248	0	4.37	5	5	.819	-1.394	2.057	53.6	33.5	9.7	2.4	0.8
C3. Available subject-based English class	248	0	3.08	3	3	1.186	-.237	-.760	10.9	28.2	31.9	15.7	13.3
C4. Difficulty to mark students' journal writings	248	0	4.21	4	5	.899	-1.176	1.221	45.6	36.7	12.5	4.0	1.2
C5. Teacher as transmitter of knowledge	248	0	3.38	4	4	1.081	-.383	-.608	13.7	38.7	24.6	18.1	4.8
C6. Difficulty to develop students' listening and speaking abilities	248	0	3.96	4	4	.979	-.971	.698	32.3	43.1	15.7	6.5	2.4
C7. Group work / pair work has little or no use	248	0	3.07	3	4	1.235	-.048	-1.024	14.1	26.2	23.8	24.6	11.3
C8. Unavailable subject-based English class	248	0	3.56	4	4	.916	-.324	-.165	14.5	40.3	33.5	10.1	1.6
C9. Difficulty in doing group work / pair work activities	248	0	4.10	4	4	.824	-.707	.042	34.3	46.0	14.9	4.8	0



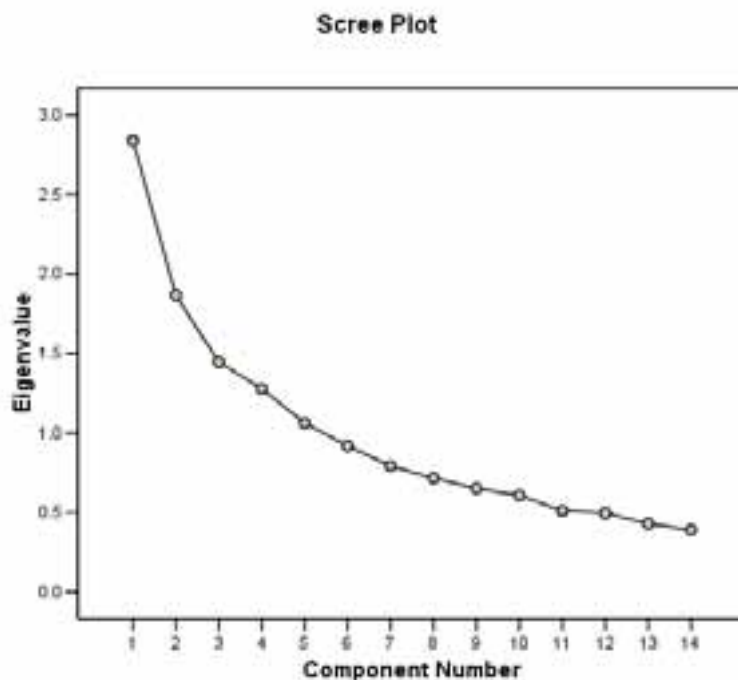
	N	Missing n / %	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Always (%)	Often (%)	Sometimes (%)	Seldom (%)	Never (%)
C10. Doing translation exercises	248	0	3.32	3	3	.864	.161	-.266	9.7	28.6	46.8	14.1	0.8
C11. Doing reading practice	248	0	3.89	4	4	.779	-.221	-.484	22.2	48.0	26.6	3.2	0
C12. Encouraging responsibility and self-discipline	248	0	4.12	4	4	.796	-.609	-.153	35.1	45.2	16.5	3.2	0
C13. Conducting class in English	248	0	4.14	4	4	.774	-.725	.308	34.3	49.2	12.9	3.6	0
C14. Organizing listening and speaking activities	248	0	3.71	4	4	.907	-.444	-.083	19.0	43.5	28.2	8.1	1.2

## Section D. The Demographic Information

Items	N	Missing n / %	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis					
D1. Gender	248	0								F	M		
									n	193	55		
									%	77.8	22.2		
D2. Age	246	2 / 0.8	31.51	30	26	7.555	.983	.452		21-29	30-39	40-49	Over 50
									n	121	84	33	8
									%	49.2	34.1	13.4	3.3
D3. Educational qualifications	246	2 / 0.8	1.83	1	1	.976	.490	-1.492	B.A. n / %	ATTC n / %	M.A. n / %	M.Ed. n / %	Ph.D. n / %
									137	20	84	5	0
									55.2	8.1	33.9	2.0	0
D4. Years of teaching	246	2 / 0.8	8.13	6	1	6.887	1.108	.986	1-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	Over 20
									98	52	52	23	21
									39.8	21.2	21.1	9.4	8.5
D5. Teaching hours per week	248	0	10.46	10	8	3.101	.869	.855	7-8	9-10	11-12	13-14	Over 15
									93	65	53	6	31
									37.5	26.2	21.4	2.4	12.5
D6. Number of students on average in a class	248	0	51.2	50	50	16.374	1.957	8.615	21-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	Over 60
									5	33	70	62	78
									2.0	13.3	28.2	25.0	31.5

**O: The Scree Diagram of the Five Factors in the External Factors and the Factor Analysis Results**

(1)



(2)

**Rotated Component Matrix (a)**

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
A1	-.033	.022	<b>.741</b>	.116	.011
A2	-.040	-.008	<b>.837</b>	.016	.056
A3	.218	.209	<b>.548</b>	-.102	.064
A4	<b>.657</b>	.098	.232	.219	-.151
A5	<b>.685</b>	-.017	.176	.057	-.078
A6	<b>.716</b>	.060	-.137	.098	.088
A7	<b>.715</b>	.066	-.084	.162	.041
A8	.197	.021	.083	<b>.837</b>	.047
A9	.224	.126	-.030	<b>.822</b>	-.082
A10	.141	.061	.043	-.056	<b>.831</b>
A11	-.190	.030	.070	.027	<b>.802</b>
A12	.001	<b>.676</b>	-.022	.067	-.003
A14	.037	<b>.806</b>	.079	.041	.057
A14	.118	<b>.757</b>	.124	.028	.045

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

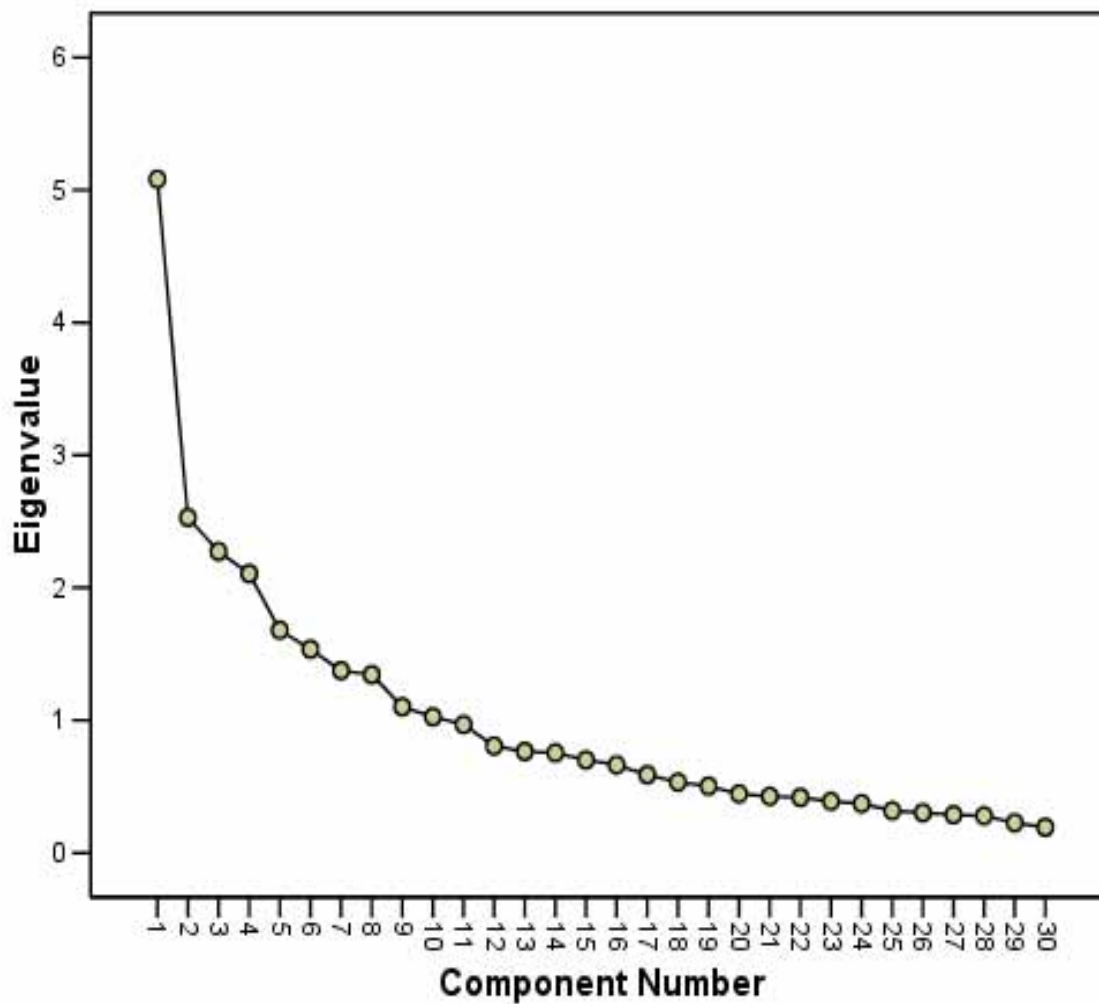
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

**P: The Scree Diagram of the Eight Factors in the External Factors and the Factor Analysis Results**

(1)

**Scree Plot**



(2)

**Rotated Component Matrix (a)**

	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
B1	<b>.347</b>	<b>.416</b>	.039	-.054	.179	-.086	.182	-.095
B2	<b>.444</b>	<b>.322</b>	.046	.022	.069	.040	.293	-.086
B3	.133	<b>.674</b>	-.022	.033	.000	-.010	.154	.048
B4	.033	<b>.596</b>	.134	-.117	-.106	.005	.014	-.062
B5	-.043	<b>.725</b>	.008	-.010	.147	-.012	.117	.076
B6	.208	<b>.588</b>	.038	.313	-.058	.158	-.279	.189
B7	.105	<b>.683</b>	.022	.335	-.031	.117	-.222	.172
B8	.145	.064	-.111	-.041	.100	<b>.829</b>	-.007	-.049
B9	-.008	-.050	.253	-.006	-.109	<b>.626</b>	.131	.090
B10	-.072	.070	.151	-.128	.095	<b>.773</b>	-.010	-.039
B11	.144	.261	.314	-.102	.262	.039	.097	-.148
B12	.086	.152	<b>.790</b>	-.013	.038	.061	-.039	.020
B13	-.024	.048	<b>.774</b>	-.017	.186	.108	.043	.050
B14	.107	-.105	<b>.749</b>	.348	.086	.070	.083	-.058
B15	.132	.038	<b>.570</b>	.339	-.043	.021	.148	.162
B16	.097	.005	.322	<b>.768</b>	.025	.008	.117	-.043
B17	.109	.044	.132	<b>.789</b>	.092	-.094	.070	.063
B18	.028	-.022	-.143	<b>.641</b>	.265	-.119	.229	.069
B19	-.130	.033	.050	-.076	-.008	-.427	-.047	<b>.608</b>
B20	-.027	.154	.064	.135	.203	.074	-.056	<b>.711</b>
B21	.238	-.015	-.006	-.007	.001	.062	.108	<b>.686</b>
B22	<b>.798</b>	.049	.106	.236	-.076	.082	-.041	.130
B23	<b>.840</b>	.086	.184	.119	-.110	.042	-.025	.006
B24	<b>.784</b>	.077	-.032	.003	.093	-.008	.137	.081
B25	<b>.383</b>	<b>.303</b>	.083	<b>.435</b>	.046	-.034	.071	-.060
B26	.086	.086	.019	.206	-.019	.102	<b>.803</b>	.025
B27	.106	.060	.157	.142	-.014	.019	<b>.806</b>	.019
B28	-.112	-.035	-.006	.035	<b>.755</b>	.148	-.027	.180
B29	.033	-.025	.099	.140	<b>.773</b>	-.004	.132	.064
B30	.061	.101	.181	.126	<b>.706</b>	-.047	-.149	-.045

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 8 iterations

